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Anglų kalbos frazinių veiksmažodžių leksinė semantinė grupė su 'sunaikinimo' reikšme ir jos ekvivalentai lietuvių kalboje

MAGISTRO DARBAS

Darbo vadovė:
Asoc. Prof. Ina KLijūnaitė
Studentas: Egidijus Valančius

ŠIAULIAI UNIVERSITY
THE FACULTY OF HUMANITIES
THE DEPARTMENT OF RUSSIAN FILOLOGY

FUNCTIONAL EQUIVALENTS OF ENGLISH PHRASAL VERBS WITH THE MEANING OF DESTRUCTION IN THE LITHUANIAN LANGUAGE

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Research Adviser:
Assoc. Prof. Ina Klijūnaitė
Student: Egidijus Valančius

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of the present paper is to elaborate the data collected through the investigation of lexico-semantic group of 'destruction' of English and Lithuanian languages, to compare the English verbs with their equivalents in the Lithuanian language, to ascertain the size of the semantic field of 'destruction', its centre and periphery, as well as their peculiarities.

Our objectives were:

1. To collect from dictionary entries all English and Lithuanian phrasal and prefixed verbs with the meaning of destruction.
2. To group them according to their semic structure.
3. To compare English and Lithuanian verbs in order to find similarities and differences between English and Lithuanian lexico-semantic group of destruction.

In order to implement the tasks the following methods of lexical semantics were applied in this work:

1. **The comparative method,** used to compare English verbs with the meaning of 'destruction' with their equivalents in the Lithuanian language and to determine similarities and differences of lexico-semantic group of 'destruction' in the English and Lithuanian languages.

2. **The method of componential analysis,** which shows how many and what semes constitute the meaning of the word / sememe.

3. **The derivational method,** according to which English phrasal verbs as well as Lithuanian prefixed verbs are regarded as formally derived from the base verbs and motivated by them.

4. **The distributional method,** which is used to characterise lexical combinability of either English phrasal verbs or Lithuanian prefixed verbs as well as their base verbs.

5. **The analysis of valency,** which is used in the investigation of syntactical features of English as well as Lithuanian verbs.

6. **The method of opposition.** This method is used in order to oppose the base verb (either English or Lithuanian one) with its derivational unit (phrasal or prefixed verb) on the basis of a certain relevant feature.

Since the research of the lexico-semantic group of destruction showed that both English and Lithuanian groups are very numerous, the investigation has been restricted to the English

phrasal verbs, which are composed of a base verb and a postverb (**UP** or **OUT)** and Lithuanian prefixed verbs (prefixes **UŽ-**, **PRI-, SU-**, **NU-** etc. are added to the base verb).

Lithuanian prefixed verbs have been chosen for the analysis because prefixes in Lithuanian language imply best of all the meaning of destruction to the base verb. Their equivalents in English language are postverbs which contribute to the change of the meaning of the base verb can be perceived from the opposition of a verb and its derivational unit.

According to the standpoint accepted in the present paper, phrasal verbs or combinations of verbs with postverbs, are word-building units, and a postverb is derivational means.

Classification of English phrasal units and Lithuanian prefixed verbs into lexico-semantic group in the present paper is based on the explication of the main concepts of lexical semantics, such as paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations, componential analysis, definition formula, general characteristics of lexico-semantic group and etc.

The data used for the research of lexico-semantic group of destruction has been collected from authoritative dictionaries. About 180 English verbs with postverbs and 320 their Lithuanian equivalents with illustrative sentences from dictionary entries and belles-lettres have been selected from:

Courtney R. Longman Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs (1986). Moscow: Russky Yazyk Publishers.

Dabartinės Lietuvių kalbos žodynas.-V.: Mokslo ir Enciklopedijų Leidykla, 2000.

Longman Phrasal Verbs Dictionary (2000). Essex: Pearson Education Limited.

Oxford Advanced Learner's Encyclopaedic Dictionary (1995). Oxford: Oxford Univ. Press.

We presume that our research and the data collected for it might be useful for students during the course of lectures in lexicology of the English language and also in special courses of word-building and semantics of the English and Lithuanian languages.

The work is also supplied with the table of contents and the list of references.

Below theoretical issues necessary for the analysis are presented.

1. The Comparative Analysis of Lexico - Semantic Groups

1.1. The main unit of semantic analysis

In lexicology the word is one of the most important and directly perceived units of language. Language is the system of signs and every word in it exists as the element of the system. Thus, the word like any sign has the plane of expression [I.e. **the form**] and the plane of content [**the meaning**]. The form and the content of a word are very complex phenomena. The form integrates two levels - phonetic and morphemic, and the content - lexical and widely understood grammatical meanings. Thus, word consists not only of sounds, which constitute its primary phonetic shape, but also of morphologic forms such as: number, gender, tense etc. In its signified several meanings of different abstraction level can be observed:

1. Onomasiological categorical meaning of either "an object" or "a feature".
2. The meaning of the part of speech.
3. The meaning of grammatical forms.
4. The sum total of all semantic meanings.
5. Individual lexical meaning of a word.

All these word content elements are connected with each other according to some hard-and-fast laws. Individual lexical meaning of a word, which is an essential object of lexical-semantics, can be separated from the general word content only for some specific purposes, though even then lexical meaning interrelates with other meaning components and it can not be ignored.

Every language possesses a certain system of grammatical meanings. Grammatical meanings are sectional typical not only for one certain word but for type of words [part of speech]. Every time a word is expressed by a certain form, which may convey several grammatical meanings:

       a boy - noun, singular;

       boys - noun, plural;

       boy's - noun, singular, possessive case;

       boys' - noun, plural, possessive case;

Grammatical meaning, which is expressed by grammatical form that is shown by a specific inflectional morpheme is a **relational meaning**, which reveals word's relations with other words. Every word possess a certain grammatical meaning, which does not depend on word's individual lexical meaning. Though lexical meaning is the most important it is always connected with a grammatical one and is never realized independently [Smirnitsky 1955, 15].

Lexical meaning is always supported by a grammatical one. However grammatical meaning, which is always formally expressed by a certain morpheme, is dictated by a categorical grammatical word meaning, which is determined by onomasiologic categorical meaning component. And individual lexical meaning can not be fully conceptualized without earlier mentioned grammatical meanings. That's why it is important to talk about all word content components' close interrelation [Jakaitienė 1980, 96].

A lot of investigators claim that there is a close relation between the form and the content. This relation produces the word as a sign and determines its functional capabilities. However this closeness between word form and content is not absolute since sometimes it may be violated. Thus it is important to speak about relationship between the form and the content or even about some kind of autonomy between these two sides.

It is easiest to understand a word having only one meaning. First of all this word being a representative of any class of objects is a member of nominational system. For example Lithuanian word "namas", which means 'a building designed for people to live in' is a member of group of words nominating living places [avilys, gryčia, lizdas, lūšna, rūmai, troba, tvartas, urvas etc.] and is related with other words in the group by various relations. The signifier of this word consists of all possible morphologic forms having the same phonetic shape. This semantically non-divisible word with all its morphological forms is not only a member of nominational system. It functions in speech a well. In a particular text this word appears in its one form determined by a certain sentence construction laws:

Einu nam**o**.

Statau nam**ą**.

Valgau nam**ie**.

A word, which is a member of nominational system and an element of communication, is called **functional word** or **lexico-semantic variant**. A variety of terms employed for marking the lexico-semantic variant as an elementary unit of the lexico-semantic system of language [lexico-semantic variant has been variously termed as a *functional word, a lexical unit, a lexical form of the word, an allolex, etc.*] is an indication of the unstable system of linguistic terminology as well as

difficulties in interpreting the linguistic status of the lexico-semantic variant. Therefore a theoretical framework that might be used to observe linguistically important general properties of the lexico-semantic variant as well as to give a unified account of various points of view concerning its linguistic status and terminology is needed.

The necessity to differentiate between the main unit of Lexical Semantics [the word] and its elementary unit [the lexico-semantic variant] has been realized in Russian school of Linguistics already by Peshkovsky [1925], who suggested to differentiate between the "word-member" as a word used in speech, and "word-type" or lexeme as an associative group consisting of similar word-members. Another prominent Russian author Vinogradov, having undergone various terminological stages of development, concluded with the division into *the word* and its *lexico-grammatical forms* [1938]. The term **Lexico-semantic variant** was introduced by the Russian linguist Smirnitsky, who wrote: "*Lexico-semantic variants of the word differ in their lexical meanings, while the differences in those lexical meanings are not reflected in their external phonetical form*" [Smirnitsky 1954,36]. Just like the word, the lexico-semantic variant is a two-sided entity characterized by the unity of its material form, represented by a variety of grammatical forms, and elementary meaning. In other words, a lexico-semantic variant *table1*, as an elementary lexical unit, is the totality of all grammatical forms of the given word related to one of its meanings ['a piece of furniture'] [Novikov 1982,113].

In concrete linguistic analysis when it is necessary to specially differentiate the modifications of the word form the point of view of its plane of expression [form] and the plane of content, the following term have been proposed: **the virtual word, the lexeme, and the lexico-semantic variant.**

From the point of view of the relation between the plane of expression and the plane of content of the word, the concept of the lexico-semantic variant can be understood by pointing out its two modifications: **the non-actualized lexico-semantic variant** and the **actualized lexico-semantic variant**. These modifications can be the best of all perceived on the basis of a monosemantic word. First of all, such a word representing a certain class of objects, expressing the concept, is a member of the system of nomination, i.e. it nominates things and phenomena of the reality. The plane of expression of this word is represented by its all possible grammatical and phonetic variants. However such a word is not only a member of the system of nomination, it also functions in the concrete text [speech]. Being as a member of system it may be called **non-actualized functional word** [**non-actualized lexico-semantic variant**] but when it is used in a concrete text it is already

called **actualized functional word** [**actualized lexico-semantic variant**]. The form and the content of a functional word embody symmetrical language sign.

Language system possesses one more phenomenon. It's a **virtual word** [lot. "imaginary" or "supposed"]. This is some kind of an invariant of lexico-semantic variants of the word. *The asymmetry between the form and the content leads to the appearance of virtual word. The main feature distinguishing virtual word from functional word or lecixo-semantic variant, word combination or a sentence is that the same virtual word form may convey several meanings*: Lithuanian word "Namai" has several meanings:

1. 'Buildings where people live' Eg: Mediniai namai.

2. 'The living place' Eg: Pasiilgau namų.

3. 'The family' Eg: Ar tavo namai sveiki, niekas neserga?

4. 'Social institution" Eg: Vaikų namai.

Thus virtual word in lexicology is well known as polysemantic word. Words that are used only by one meaning [terms] may be considered as virtual words having only one functional variant. As A. Ufimceva states virtual words help language to stay independent from its individual users. The identity is determined by the same form and the semantic link between its meanings. Virtual words being units of language may be understood only by taking in mind a lot of functional units having the same form and being related to each other semantically. Thus genetically virtual words originated from functional ones. However in synchronic language system virtual words become some kind of substratum of functional ones. Virtual word is not only an abstraction of functional words or lexico-semantic variants actualized in speech. This is a unit of language, which is related with some content in language users' minds. This content is generalized reflection of objects that are called by this word in a concrete text [Nemec 1980, 19-20].

It is important to distinguish these two word modifications when speaking about word's semantic structure. When speaking about functional word's semantic structure it is important to investigate the relation between its single meaning and a concrete thing of reality or a class of things and to compare with the meanings of other unambiguous words. These relations help to understand all components constituting word meaning and relations between them. Virtual word's semantic structure components are functional words' meanings, thus it is possible to understand its semantic structure only by investigating relations of every functional word meaning.

In our work we often use word **word** and usually the context helps to neutralize its polysemy. Usually we call this functional lexical unit. However for some specific purposes some

more concrete terms may be needed: **lexeme** - is a word serving at once as nominative and communicative means [Павлов 1985, 19]. It always has only one meaning. It is - functional non-actualized word or lexico-semantic variant. Sometimes the term **lex** is needed. Lex - is an actualized word or lexico-semantic variant, used in a concrete text and manifested only by one morphological form. However in lexical semantics usually lexeme forms are not detalized, thus the term lex is not usual as well.

The **form** can be defined as the sum total of its phonetical and grammatical variants and the **content** is understood and described only through the associations of the word with the things and phenomena of reality imprinted in our minds [Gudavičius 1994,11].

The content, the elementary meaning, which is realized in speech [text] is called **sememe**.

The totality of all grammatical forms of the word constitute lexeme and the totality of all sememes - the meaning of the word.

Sememe is the unity of the lexical meaning and its form of expression [Gudavičius 1994,14].

The plane of expression of the word [lexeme] and the plane of its contents [sememe] are inseparably interconnected, so that no meaning [sememe] can be realized without some material means of expression unless the aim of a linguist is to specially distinguish these two things.

In case of the word polysemy certain **separate meanings** of the polysemantic word are considered as sememes. The polysemy of the word is neutralized in the context, i.e. in speech the meaning of one concrete separate sememe is correctly identified in relation with other sememes [Gudavičius 1994,14]

E.g.

n. *smoke*

sememe nr.1 grey gas that is produced by something burning [clouds of black smoke belched from the building]

sememe nr.2 an act of the smoking the cigarette [a cup of coffee and a smoke]

sememe nr.3 *slang* a cigarette or drugs that are smoked

sememe nr.4 London or any large town or city

sememe nr.5 *informal* if your plans go up in smoke, you cannot do that you intended to do

sememe nr.6 **there is no smoke without fire** *spoken* use to say that if something bad is being said about someone, it is probably partly true.

Further in this work the investigation of the lexico-semantic fields is based exceptionally on the semantic aspect, and the analysis is carried out in the plane of sememe as a structure representing the field.

Sememe can be divided into kernel and peripheral semes. The kernel comprises constant, inherent semantic components [semes], while the periphery comprises removable and latent elements. The basis of the sememe consist of kernel semes. According to them the sememe interacts with other sememes systematically in the lexical system of the language. The kernel semes are essential in the meaning of the word. The ensure the unification of words in the paradigmatics groupings and opposition of sememes inside these groupings. The essence of the kernel semes is caused by reflection of properties and features of phenomena of extralinguistic reality. In the interlinguistic plane kernel semes coincide more often, than peripheral ones. The number of kernel semes can vary - from one [in verbs of broad meaning] to many [in nouns of concrete semantics].

Peripheral semes play an important part in the flow of speech, in development of semantic structure of a word, in creation of potential antonymy, synonymy.

In the semantic periphery of a word near, far and extreme peripheries are distinguished. Distinct and often actualized peripheral semes belong to the near periphery. Less distinct semes which demand special constructions and specific context for there actualization, belong to the far periphery. The extreme periphery consists of week, rarely actualized semes. The actualization requires wide context and maintenance of verbal explication. The number of peripheral semes hinges on the type of sememe - abstract or concrete, denotative or connotative [Popova 1989,187].

There are no distinct boundaries between the kernel and periphery of the meaning. In the text peripheral semes can become communicatively relevant, while kernel semes retreat to the back plane of the meaning. Semes, which are kernel in one sememe can become peripheral in a derivative sememe. Thus, it can be concluded that in the structure of sememe kernel and periphery are essential structural elements performing specialized functions both in the system of the language and in the speech [Popova 1989, 187-188].

To conclude, kernel element of structures of the field ensure differentiation and collation of fields in the system of the language, determine the inherent structure of a concrete field and types of relations among elements of the field. They ensure certain stability of the field: in most cases they are the most frequent in the speech and the most informative in the utterance. Peripheral elements ensure intersections and impositions of different fields, intertransitions of elements. They are zones of changes and development of structures of the field. National peculiarities of field structures of the

system of the language are concentrated mainly on zones of peripheral elements, while kernel elements serve to determine equivalence of the system.

Every meaning of the word [sememe] is not the smallest unit of a content of the language. It is a divisible semantic unit, which can be decomposed into smaller elements called **semes**. The next chapter is dedicated to investigate this particular phenomenon of the language.

1.1.1. Seme

Seme is defined as the minimal element of the meaning of the sememe, which is a reflection of different features of things and phenomena of reality in the mind of speakers, while the lexical meaning is the complex reflection of the thing, phenomenon of the feature [Gudavičius 1994,19].

For instance, in the sememe **to bumble** the following semes can be distinguished*: ' to speak ', 'to utter', ' to pronounce'; [Way of speaking]: 'in a confused way so that no one can understand you'.*

E. g. I really don't know what Karl was bumbling on about.

Seme as well as meaning is the unit of content and is not a sign therefore it has no form.

Semes are of different importance in sememe. Lexical meaning is not only the complex of semes, but also a system in which semes form a certain hierarchy on the top of which there are the most abstract semes and at the bottom the most concrete ones. The most abstract semes, which constitute the basis of the meaning, are **classemes**, i.e. semes of the grammatical part of speech or their lexico-grammatical subclasses, according to which sememes are grouped into semantic classes.

Less abstract semes in the hierarchy are called **integral semes [archisemes]**. The archiseme is a common seme of one group of sememes.

E.g. to glance,

to stare,

to gaze.

All these sememes have the archiseme 'to look'. Thus, archiseme is the basis of combination of sememes into one group. The most concrete semes, which are on the bottom of the hierarchy are called **differential semes**. They differentiate one sememe from another. In the above group of verbs with the archiseme 'to look' the differential semes are:

to glance - *'to look **quickly** at something or someone',*

to stare - *'to look at something or someone for a long time **without moving your eyes'**,*

to gaze - *'to look at something or someone for a long time, **giving it all your attention often without realizing you are doing so'**.*

The archiseme and the differential semes are explicated by oppositions, i.e. by comparison of every two sememes of a certain group and ascertainment of their common feature and at least one differential feature.

The archiseme serves as the major criterion for grouping sememes into a group.

Thus, lexico-semantic groups are words grouped according to their common lexical meaning or sememe. The distinguishing basis of lexico-semantic group is the common component of sememes, i.e. the common integral feature - archiseme.

The common meaning of the synonymic sememes in a synonymic set is called dominant, e.g. the dominant of the synonymic set *to glance, to stare, to gaze* is <u>to look</u>.

When a semantic field is divided into smaller fields, i.e. **microfields** the integral features of microfields in the field of large scope become differential. Consequently, the integral features of microfields in the semantic field of large scope become differential, i.e. they differentiate one microfield from the others in the semantic field.

A peculiar position is taken by a polysemantic word those separate sememes can be included not only into different lexical groups but also into different lexico-semantic groups and different semantic fields [Gudavičius 1983,291].

According to E. Jakaitienė [1988,96-99] several classifications of semes are possible:

1. As it has been mentioned above according to their main function to group or differentiate the meanings of the words semes are classified into integral included into the meanings of all members of the same semantic domain and differential, denoting the peculiarity of their meaning.

2. According to the degree of fixation and consolidation in the meaning semes are divided into main semes, which form the kernel or center of the meaning, and secondary semes which belong to the periphery of the structure of the meaning.

3. According to the regularity of the recurrence and the degree of abstraction categorical and ideosycratical [cf. Greek *ideos* 'special, peculiar' + *syncratos* 'strongly combined'] semes can be distinguished. Those semes, which regularly recur in meanings of many words of the same type, are called **categorical semes**. They are first of all such semes, which show the dependence of a word to a certain part of speech, to a derivational or semantic group. Some linguists treat

them as classemes [Koseriu 1967]. Semes purely individual, not recurring in other meaning are called **ideosyncratical**.

Occurrence of the same seme in several meanings is a sign of **paradigmatic relations** between sememes, which together with **syntagmatic relations** are substantially important when grouping sememes into lexico-semantic group and need to be discussed more thoroughly.

1.2 Field Structures in the Lexico-semantic System of Language

In modern linguistics language is perceived as a system of signs. In view of this, it is possible to investigate the principles of the semantic correlation between different language phenomena. From the point of view of structural linguistics language and its separate levels, including lexico - semantic level, are viewed as a system of formal and functional interrelations of lexical units and classes of them. Lexical units determine each other's place in the system and have no validity [sense] to occur independently.

Lexico - semantic system of the language is characterized by its own distinctive features:

- the number of its numbers cannot be exactly stated because it is maximally open. It depends much more on the extralinguistic reality, being essentially a specific reflection of reality in the speaker's mind.
- lexico - semantic system is especially characteristic of the feature of divisibility, i.e. division into groups of words whose meanings are close to each other.

The largest subsystems [groups of words close to each other in its meaning] of the lexico - semantic system are semantic fields. Semantic field is defined as a large grouping of the lexical system of the language, consisting of words which are combined into a group on the basis of at least one semantic feature which is usually extralinguistic, e.g. the common sphere of material things, the common purpose, function performed by things of reality nominated by these words, etc.

For example, the names of all domestic flying animals can form one semantic field:

- *Chicken;*
- *Goose;*
- *Duck;*
- *Turkey.*

The term "field" was introduced to linguistics by G. Ipsen in 1924. The idea of the field also occurred to J. Trier in 1923, though his works appeared only at the beginning of the 1930's. He assumed that words in the mind of a speaker or listener are not isolated, but they are connected with each other by the meaning. In the end J. Trier treated language field either as a group of related meanings [Sinnverwandte] or as a certain semantic sphere [Sinnbezirk] [Popova 1989, 27]. Nevertheless, this conception was criticized by many linguists. The criticism was well founded because the definitions of the semantic field as well as the criteria of distributing words into semantic fields were very diverse, and the boundaries of semantic fields were hard to discern.

Later the theory of semantic fields was defined more precisely by other linguists. Among more famous investigators of semantic fields we could mention the Lithuanian linguists A. Gudavičius, E. Jakaitienė, I. Klijūnaitė, G. Čepaitienė, the German linguist L. Weisgerber, the British J. Lyons, the French P. Guiraud, the Russian linguists J. Stepanov, J. Karaulov, Z. Popova and others. In the opinion of many linguists, semantic fields are a certain way of the reality and classification of lexis into semantic fields is a very suitable method of investigation of word meanings [Jakaitienė 1980,29].

In the semantic field its constituent parts - microfields i.e. subsystems of a narrower scope are distinguished and they are called **thematic groups** and **lexico - semantic groups.** Lexico - semantic groups are discussed in the further paragraphs.

In the subsequent chapter theoretical issues necessary for the analysis of the structure of the semantic field are presented.

1.3 Primary and Secondary Semantic Fields

The semantic field is a system of signs which interrelate with each other according to some relations as in any system and which simultaneously possess some specific features applicable only to the semantic field. The semantic field of the language consists of words connected by at least one feature of the meaning. It has an extraordinary structure - **kernel** and a **periphery**. The members constituting the field and being attached to the kernel ones possess the maximum concentration of features ascribed to a particular semantic field. The peripheral members of the field embody either less of these features or the intensity of them is slighter. Another peculiarity of the language field is connected with the possibility of different fields to intersect with each other. The intersection of the

semantic fields generates some integral segments referred to several fields, or the semantic transition zone.

Kernel _____ Periphery | Periphery _____ Kernel

Semantic transition zone
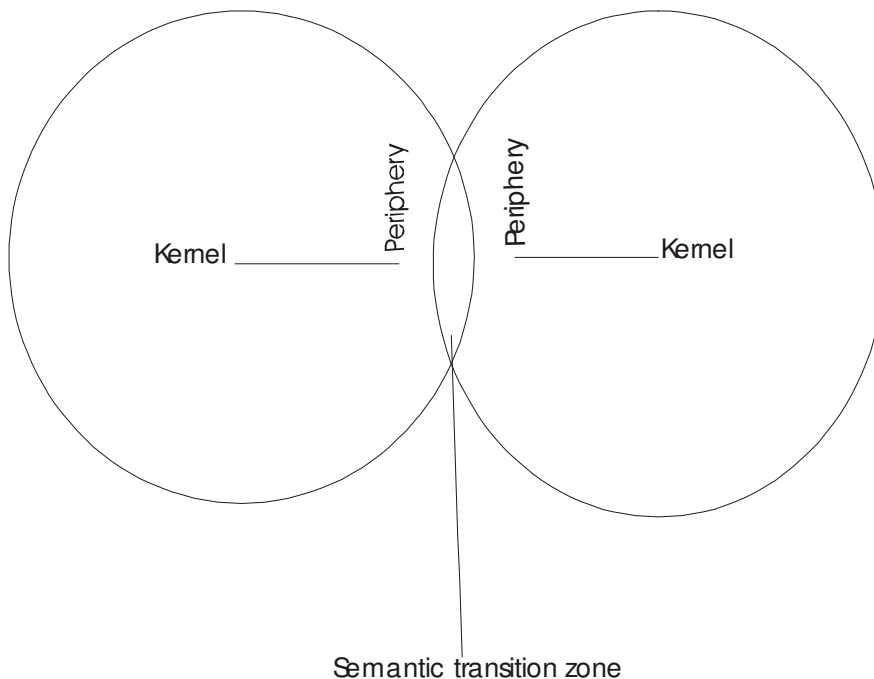
The transition from the kernel to the periphery is performed gradually. There are a number of peripheral zones, which are remote from the kernel to a different extent. The field in its structure can have several microfields, which are comparatively independent.

Z. Popova distinguishes the following main features of the language field:

1. The field consists of elements, which are connected with each other by structural relations.

2. Elements, which form the field, have a semantic community and they perform the same function in the language.

3. The field can unite homogeneous and heterogeneous elements.

4. In the structure of the field microfields are distinguished.

5. There are kernel and peripheral elements in the field. The kernel consolidates around the component-dominant. The periphery has a zone organization.

6. Kernel constituents are the most specialized to perform functions of the field. They are the most frequent in comparison with other constituents and inevitable in the field.

7. The kernel and the periphery distribute between themselves functions performed by the field, i.e. some functions are performed by the kernel, others are performed by the periphery.

8. The boundaries between the kernel and the periphery, as well as separate zones of the periphery, is not distinct.

9. Constituents of the field can belong to the kernel of the field and periphery to another field, and vice versa.

10.   Different fields intersect with each other forming zones of gradual transition.

[Popova 1989,5-6]

The kernel constituents of the semantic field compose its **primary** [main, structurally essential] fields, which divide the nominative sphere of the language according to a logical principle. The peripheral constituents form **secondary** [peripheral, supplementary] fields, which intersect primary fields and unite element of diverse primary fields according to a definite semantic feature, a definite seme, for instance according to the feature of existence / absence of emotions or estimations in the word meaning, and also according to the structural features, i.e. stylistic dependence, grammatical meaning and etc. These words in addition to their neutral designative seme have the emotive-expressive colouring, their lexical meaning contains a certain evaluation of the thing or phenomenon which is related with their derivational-semantic structure [Klijūnaitė 2004,25].

Analyzing the word linguists examine it not only as an element of the system, but also as a dynamic element of communication. In addition, the connotational aspect of meaning or connotation is analyzed in greater detail. Since the times of L. Bloomfield [1887-1949] in the USA and L. Hjelmslev [1899-1965] in Europe connotation has been considered by linguists as a secondary or additional meaning.

L. Bloomfield, distinguishing the primary or central meaning on the one hand and the marginal, metaphoric or figurative meaning on the other hand, further speaks about additional meanings. They may be included in the meaning of a word and are called connotations. According to the linguist, there are countless types of connotation. He characterizes connotation as "cluster meaning" [Bloomfield 1961,144-152].

Thus, in the structural analysis of meaning it is possible to ascertain the opposition between the primary meaning and additional connotation or connotations. In lexicology lexical items are generally divided into expressive and unexpressive ones. With regard to word meaning distinction is made between two qualitatively different meanings: those that have only a denotational or primary component and those that besides a primary component possess additional components.

According to I. Arnold, the denotational meaning of a word conceptualizes and describes our experience and names the objects spoken about. The word has a denotational meaning, since it

denotes an objectively existing referent. As L. Arnold states: "… if the denotative meaning exists by virtue of what the word refers to, connotation is the pragmatic communicative value the word receives by virtue of where, when, how, by whom, for what purpose and in what contexts it is or may be used." [Arnold 1986,48]

Usually the denotational aspect or component is the basis for definitions of the words in explanatory dictionaries. Y. Belayevskaya notes that the denotational aspect of lexical meaning is formed by the features, constituting the denotatum - verbal reflection of the concept of the objects or phenomena signified [Belayevskaya 1987,45].

Thus an inference can be drawn that the denotational aspect is this aspect of word meaning which names and conceptualizes the referent.

When speaking of connotation, it is important to note that the linguists are unanimous in that the lexical meaning of a word should be divided into two parts: on the one hand - primary, central meaning, on the other hand - the meaning formed by additional components, additional aspects, additional connotation. The distinction between denotation as a primary meaning and connotation as an additional meaning was already drawn by L. Bloomfield. According to this linguist the types of connotation are numerous.

It is necessary to agree upon terminology. The word *connotation* can denote all these additional meanings and in this case it is possible to speak about different types of connotation. Connotation refers to the associations that the words have for us. Words carry overtones of meaning which colour our reaction to them. Connotation can also be understood as the emotional [as well as stylistic] expression, characteristic of a word. In the present paper the term **connotation** denotes the aspect of meaning which includes additional information about the sense contained in the denotational content of a word.

If the assumption of connotation as an additional information on the referent is taken as a basis for the analysis of the types of connotation, then the following kinds can be distinguished, namely **emotive, evaluative** and **intensive** [Ikere 1999,90-93].

An interesting type from the point of view of contrastive linguistics is the evaluative connotation. Evaluative connotation is the connotation when the meaning of a word comprises information on the positive or negative attitude towards the object or phenomenon denoted. In respect of evaluative connotation one can maintain that it is inherent in lexical groups. They include informal and vulgar words, which give a harsh appraisal of some phenomena. This relates to stylistically vulgar words, e.g., animals' names and attributes associated with animals if they are applied to people [e.g. 'pig', 'goat', 'ape', 'piglet', 'ram', etc.].

The contemptuous evaluation emphasize different qualities of the object. This is vividly marked when contrasting different languages. For instance, the word "cūka" [pig] in its figurative sense in Latvian means "a dirty negligent, also a mean villainous man" but in English - "a dirty, negligent, voracious man or a man with bad manners". The semantic features "voracious" and "bad manners" are not to be found in the semantic structure of a Latvian word. The sememes "mean", "villainous" are not present in semantics of the English word.

Connotations refer to peoples' metaphorical thinking and one can arrive at interesting inferences of the difference there exists if one compares their languages. Therefore when acquiring a foreign language it is important to learn not only the denotative meaning of words, but also be aware of the different connotations words may possess.

Thus, semantic fields are formed not only according to denotative, but also according to connotative features of words. Only the primary fields are formed according to essential features of denotata, while the secondary fields are formed according to unessential features which do not correlate with extralinguistic reality, but reflect the linguistic one [Popova 1989,75].

Thus, secondary fields, as well as primary ones, express the reality of the language, however, purely semantic relations among their members prove to be weaker than in the primary fields. Nevertheless, the structure of the secondary fields is like a field. Examples of the secondary field can be **a field of expressive lexis**, **a field of colloquial lexis**, **associative groupings**, etc [Popova 1989, 75].

The semantic field of expressive lexis is comprised of lexemes, in which lexical meaning the expressive components are the dominant ones. The expressive component of the lexeme is the semantic sign of the word, which intensifies the expression, the colourfulness, amplifies the efficiency of the word. The expressive component may be a part of word's both denotative and connotative meaning.

For example in the Lithuanian semantic field of *motion* one of its kernel constituents, which lexical meaning is absolutely neutral or has no expressive component is *eiti* 'to move without any means of transport'. However it's peripheral constituents *vėžlintis, vilktis, kėblinti, kuprinti, sliūkinti, nešdintis* possess intensive negative connotative meanings. These lexemes constitute the secondary field and possess vivid expressive components.

The functionally stylistic field of colloquial lexis is ascribed to the secondary field where the relations between members are weaker, however, this field carries psychological reality. The native speakers unmistakably distinguish words possessing colloquially stylistic meaning and

paradigmatically link colloquial constituents of different semantics into one lexical field. In dictionaries such colloquial lexis is marked as *informal.*

An associative grouping or field is attached to the secondary field as well. Lexical units in the language system are linked to each other by associative relations and thus build associative groupings, which become as an exceptional feature of field structures. Any word in native speaker's mind may actualize in his consciousness a wide net of associative links. The associative grouping is a whole set of associative reactions [or associatives] recorded as a response to a given word stimulus [the initial word, which awoke some certain reactions] [Popova 1989,76].

For example for a Lithuanian word-stimulus *muzika* the associative grouping is:
- ✓ *muzikos mokytojas,*
- ✓ *miuziklas,*
- ✓ *smuikas,*
- ✓ *radijas,*
- ✓ *kompaktinis diskas,*
- ✓ *styga,*
- ✓ *dainuoti, etc.*

The words, which convey the nearest lexical meaning to the word *muzika* [like *muzikos mokytojas* and *miuziklas*] would embody the kernel of the associative grouping. The words with a remote lexical meaning to the word *muzika* constitute the periphery of the associative grouping.

The investigation of associative groupings or fields of different languages helped to answer a lot of questions: to investigate the organization of lexis in the language and in any individual's mind, to the analysis of the semantic structure of the word, the development of the meaning of polysemantic word in child's brains, etc. Thesauruses are organized on the same associative principle.

However as we study in our work the lexico-semantic group of destruction it is important to point out what do we call by lexico-semantic group. The following chapter is dedicated to this phenomenon.

1.4 Lexico-semantic Group as the Microsystem of the Semantic Field

Lexico-semantic group is the constituent of the semantic field and groups words classified according to the similarity of their lexical meaning. They are obtained by analyzing paradigmatic

and syntagmatic relations of sememes, i.e. according to the similarity of the structural meaning [sense] of sememes.

Lexico-semantic groups in reality exist only in language, i.e. objectively ties among common sememes exist in people's minds. These ties are the reflection of relations existing between the phemonena of reality [Gudavičius 1994, 32].

Lexico-semantic group of larger scope and variety are divided into smaller units: subgroups, lexical groups and synonymic groups of sememes. This division reflects the hierarchical structure in the aspect of lexical meaning. Synonymic group is the lowest level of such division, while lexical group represents a higher level of the structure of lexico-semantic group. In comparison with synonymic group, lexical group comprises sememes, which though united by a common semantic component [archiseme], are still not as close to each other in their meanings as those forming synonymic groups.

Several lexical and synonymic groups constitute subgroups, which are the largest subdivision of lexico-semantic group. Subgroups, lexical groups and synonymic groups combine sememes, which in addition to the seme characteristic to all lexico-semantic group also possess other common semes.

It should be emphasized that the main criterion distinguishing lexico-semantic group is the presence of a common seme or semes in the meaning of sememes. The more concrete is the common seme [or a complex of semes], the more compact is lexico-semantic group. On the contrary, the more abstract seme combines a greater number of meanings. Consequently, lexico-semantic group obtained according to an abstract seme will be larger [Gudavičius 1994, 32].

In addition, it must be pointed out that sememes ascribed to the same lexico-semantic group or lexical group are characterized not only by the same semantic and/ or lexical combinability [combinability with the same semantic and/ or lexical class of nouns in a certain syntactic position] but also by the common componential structure, which is explained more thoroughly in the subsequent chapter.

1.5 Componential analysis

Componential analysis is a process of breaking down the meaning of a word into its minimal distinctive features [semes]. Such an analysis of the sememes is often used in identifying

the aspects of meaning that are common to a group of semantically related words, and the aspects that serve to make distinctions among them.

The method of componential analysis is applied in semantics in order to distinguish the smallest meaningful units of a sememe called semes. Thus, pair of words that are close to each other by their lexical meaning are opposed to each other. As all we know absolute synonyms in a language system are quite rare. Most synonymic words are close in meaning however they are not absolute synonyms. These differences in their lexical meanings are shown by the method of componential analysis when word meaning is decomposed into its smallest meaningful elements [semes], which are opposed to the semes of another word close in lexical meaning. The semes that coincide are the **integral [common] semes** and the semes that do not coincide are the **differential semes**, which show the differences between two semantically related words and distinguish one word from the rest words of the same lexico-semantic group.

This may be done in the following way:

$girl \rightarrow$ [+HUMAN], [-ADULT], [+FEMALE],

$woman \rightarrow$ [+HUMAN], [+ADULT], [+FEMALE].

As we see from the example the only feature that distinguishes two words *girl* and *woman* from each other is the age. And this is that differential feature, which makes them unique and a language user is never confused about weather to use one or another word. The remaining semes [HUMAN and FEMALE] coincide, thus they are integral semes, which make a pair of words semantically related.

In the comparison of sememes two informational sources are applied:

1. The intuition of the researcher himself, his ability to speak and to understand the language.

2. Dictionary definitions.

The comparison of sememes, which bases itself on the first source is called *logical* or *logical introspective* because the elements of meaning are explicated by the individual logical reasoning.

The second method is called *logical linguistic*. In this case dictionary definitions are being used and their division into immediate constituents allows to obtain words, which indicate common and divergent components [semes]. Divergent [differential] semes are called *distinctive* or *diagnostic* [Klijūnaitė 2004, 32].

The same method is the basis of distinguishing sememes in polysemantic words. The distinguishing of different meanings and the description of word content [the determination of semes] goes together in the process of linguistic analysis. This procedure comprises:

1. The accumulation of comprehensive stock of examples of a word usage.

2. The classification of contexts according to word sintagmatic relations.

3. The determination of semes in the meanings according to seme's syntagmatic relations and the capabilities of a seme to combine with specially selected sememes.

We can take word *to crush*. Its contexts may be divided into five groups and according to semantic sintagmatic relations the following sememes can be found:

1. to press something so hard that it breaks or is damaged

semes: 'to break or damage something by pressing'; 'hard'. *His leg was crushed in the accident.*

2. to press something in order to break it into very small pieces, or into a powder

semes: 'to press in order to make powder or small pieces'; 'purposefully'. *Crush two cloves of garlic.*

3. to use severe methods to stop people from fighting you or opposing you

semes: 'severe behavior'; 'purposeful destruction of an opposition' *The revolution was crushed in few days.*

4. to make someone lose all hopes, confidence etc.

semes: 'to upset somebody'; 'destroy hopes'. *His plans to win the battle were crushed when he saw his opponent.*

5. to make someone feel extremely upset or shocked

semes: 'to shock a person'. *She was crushed by their insults.* (Longman 328)

The most sophisticated procedure is the distinguishing of sememes. There is no absolute objectiveness here since the meanings of the word usually are not clearly distinguished and there are possible transitive zones. It is possible to distinguish word into either bigger or smaller units of meaning because semantically word is integral. If we take several different dictionaries we may notice that they show different amount meanings. If there are fewer meanings then they are more abstract and if there are more meanings [word meaning is subdivided into smaller units] then they are more concrete and there will be more semes in their content.

Though there are no vivid frontiers between sememes in the word, usually meaning differ from each other evidently.

It should be emphasized that the aim of this analysis is not to present the complete definition of a word. Scholars agree that semes indeed can add to our understanding of the meaning of a sememe by providing "points of contrast" with other sememes in the lexico-semantic group. But the intention of semes is to discriminate between meanings of sememes in the same semantic domain rather that to define their meaning [Klijūnaitė 2004, 32].

To sum up, the method of componential analysis contributes to the above mentioned theoretical assumption that language is a system subdivided into semantic fields [lexico-semantic groups] the elements of which [sememe] are regularly interrelated. Componential analysis discloses these interrelations of sememes by comparing them to each other in order to determine their **integral** [common] and **differential features**.

1.6 Paradigmatic and Syntagmatic relations

Language is a system of interdependent linguistic units, which determine each other's place in the system and have no validity [sense] to occur independently of their relations with other units. This is the essence of the general structural principle, that every unit has a certain place in a system because of relationships. The two basic types of relations between units are: **paradigmatic and syntagmatic.** Those relations determine the structural meaning [sense] of sememes and group sememes into lexico-semantic group.

1.6.1. Paradigmatic relations

Maybe a person does not feel it because of the speed our brains work but in the process of communication we first, select certain words and then combine them. The selection and the combining of words are governed by certain rules existing in the language. The communicator choses the necessary word from a limited group of semantically related words.

For example the already earlier mentioned sememes: to glance - *'to look **quickly** at something or someone',*

to stare - *'to look at something or someone for a long time **without moving your eyes'**,*

to gaze - *'to look at something or someone for a long time, **giving it all your attention often without realizing you are doing so'**.*

have the common meaning '**to look**' . It is the nucleus of the given sememes, the archiseme, which unites them. This integral semantic feature allows the verbs to take up one other's place in the same context and form a class.

On the other hand we can see the differences as well [different manner of looking] due to which these sememes stand in opposition to one another, i.e. they are in certain paradigmatic relations with each other.

Thus, paradigmatic relations are non-linear relations of the sememes as elements of the language system related to each other by their common semantic feature [the archiseme] and opposed to each other on the basis of differential features within a paradigm.

Paradigmatic relations can be also referred to as vertical relations between the language units of the same kind because the opposed language units cannot be used in the text side by side to nominate the same thing.

Paradigmatic relations are based on the similarity, the coincidence of certain features of sememes. This coincidence can be of three types:

1. according to the similarity of phonetic form,

2. according to the similarity of content,

3. according to the similarity of both the form and content.

Sememes related only according to their form are called **homonyms**. Sememes related according to their content can be **synonimic, antonymic and hypo-hyperonymic.** Related both to the form and content are of two types:

1. the relations of sememes constituting the semantic structure of the polysemantic word;

2. derivational relations of sememes.

Derivational relations are a part of paradigmatic relations. Like paradigmatic relations they are systemic, i.e. are revealed not in the linear text but within a certain system. The derivational oppositions a relation between two words, one of which bases itself on the other both formally and semantically [a derivative]. The member which "lends" its structure and meaning is called a base. The meaning of a derivative is motivated by a base. The derivational meaning of the word *cook up* 'to make a meal quickly' is perceived by its comparison with the base *cook* 'to prepare food by heating'. The meaning of the derivative can be explained on the basis of the relations between the members of the opposition, thus, the meaning of the derivative has derivational sense.

To sum up, derivational sense can be defined as those features of a sememe, which are revealed by derivational relations between words.

1.6.2. Syntagmatic relations

Syntagmatic relations occur between morphemes in a word, between words in a combination or a sentence, between sentences in a text [speech].Every linguistic unit enters into syntagmatic relations with the other units of the same level with which it co-occurs and which constitute its environment or context.

For example in the sentence *the father smoked out the fox from the cave* the predicate *smoked out* is syntagmatically connected with the subject *the father* and the object *the fox* .

The essence of syntagmatic relations is "occurring together". Syntagmatic relations are horizontal.

Syntagmatic structural meaning [sense] characterizes linear relations of lexical units forming a certain sequence in the text. Such variety of the structural meanings called **valency** [potential combinability in language] or **combinability** [in speech]. Valency indicates typical combinability of a word with other words and shows all the environment [contexts] in which a given lexical unit is used, i.e. the unit's distribution.

Valency depends on two decisive factors:

    1. grammatical rules existing in a language,

    2. the lexical meaning of the words which form a combination.

Lexical combinability is the property of words to combine not with any of the words, but with definite words in the text [flow of speech]. Lexical combinability is determined by the individual meaning of the words, i.e. what each of the words means. Lexical combinability is regulated not only by syntactic rules but also by the law of semantic coordination according to which only those sememes can combine with each other, which have a common syntagmatic seme and no contradictory semes. The sememe *to swim 'to move yourself by water using arms, legs, etc.'* may be presented as an illustration. This sememe tends to combine with sememes having the element of *water* in its meaning. The sememe *to swim* will not combine with such sememes like *the desert* or *wilderness* since water is absent in the wilderness.

Lexical combinability may be defined as filling of valent positions opened by the verb with the noun of certain lexical or semantic classes. For instance, the sentence *he painted a picture* sounds usual as the valents *He [human]* and *picture [inanimate]* are attached to the verb *painted* in

the right combinability positions, whereas the sentence *A picture painted him* sounds absolutely nonsensical and absurd.

Consequently, lexical combinability can be defined as a "qualitative" phenomenon as it is concerned not only with the fact of position occupied by a certain valent but also with the categorical semantic status ["quality"] of a complement.

It is necessary to distinguish the narrow and wide lexical combinability of the verb. The narrow combinability of the verb is a combinability with the limited number of nouns: e.g. the verb *drink up* combines only with the nouns nominating different kinds of liquids in the position of an object. In case of wide combinability the verb can combine with all or most of semantic classes, like the verb *lap up* may combine not only with the names of all liquids, but also with different abstract things like *praise, gossip, news, etc.* in the position of an object.

Paradigmatic and syntagmatic features of sememes are interrelated, i.e. syntagmatic relations of sememes indicate that they are related paradigmatically and, on the contrary, the common paradigmatic seme [i.e. the archiseme] in their componential structures reveals the regularities of their syntagmatic relations.

To sum up: entering the lexico-semantics system its every unit takes a certain position in it being opposed to other similar units [i.e. related with them paradigmatically] and combining with other units in text [related syntagmatically].

2. The Investigation of Derivational Units in the Comparative Aspect

2.1. Derivational Status of English Phrasal Verbs

The treatment of the linguistic status of phrasal verbs is obviously one of the most discussed problems in the study of these verbs in English language. Phrasal verbs have been treated by different linguists from different points of view: as verb - adverb combinations; compound verbs; as items having the status of the word or even as combinations intermediate between phraseological units and compound verbs; etc. However, two main approaches in linguistics are distinguished concerning the status of postverbs and verb plus postverb combinations [Vpv]:

1. The first is **Non - differential Approach**.
2. The second approach is **Differential Approach**. [Klijūnaitė 2000]

Now both approaches will be discussed in a more detailed way:

Non - differential Approach

Postverbs are treated as separate words according to this approach. The Vpv is defined as

- verb + adverb combinations,
- verb + prepositional adverb combinations,

the latter being treated as a grammatical type, including the functions of both the preposition and the adverb.

The supporters of this theory [Kennedy 1920] call all postverbs as the prepositional adverbs, without noticing the unity of lexical meaning in the examples like *work out, think out, farm out, etc.*

Differential Approach

This approach distinguishes the following types of verbal combinations with the homonymous second element:

✓ **verb +adverb** combinations such as *eat out* 'to eat in a restaurant instead of at home', *sleep out* 'to sleep out of doors', *be in* 'to be at home or in one's place of work', etc.;

✓ **verb + postverb** units like *bust up* 'to damage, destroy, spoil', *drink off* 'to drink a large quantity of liquid', *give in* 'to yield';

✓ **verb + element with the meaning of direction** such as *flow in* [of liquid] 'to move in', *lead out* 'to guide or bring [sb] out of place', etc;

✓ **verb +preposition:** *run up the tree, turn off the road, etc.*

All these types will be analyzed further:

Verb +adverb

In such combinations as

wait down 'to wait downstairs';

leave out 'to allow [sb] to remain outside';

both of the components retain their semantic independence, i.e. the meaning of the combinations is the total of the meanings of the component parts. Thus, some kind of a test is worked out to prove the dependence of the second element to the class of adverbs. It works by splitting or substituting the above mentioned units using the adverbs *here* and *there* as the following examples show:

She stopped out → *she stopped + she was outside* [**there**]

He sat out → *he sat + he was outside* [**here**], etc.

OUT as an adverb may mean:

⇒   'outside', e.g.: *place out, stay out, etc*.

⇒   'not at home', e.g.: *eat out, live out, etc*.

Verb +postverb

In such kind of combinations the separate components cannot be distinguished as semantically independent, and the postverb loses its primary lexical meaning, and modifies in one or another way the meaning of the base verb as it can be seen from the following examples:

think out [a plan] 'to consider carefully and in detail';

work out [a scheme] 'to have a result, develop';

Such Vpv-s are treated as functionally equivalent to a word. They possess the status of a word, viz., of the analytical verb, which is a nominative sign equivalent to a word that, unlike the word, is lacking in the integrity of morphemes [Nogina 1977, 2]. The meaning of the postverb cannot be distinguished in the whole meaning of the Vpv.

Verb + element with the meaning of direction

run out 'to go outside by running'

bring out 'to move [something or someone] out of a building or room'.

In this kind of combinations the postverb does not change the meaning of the verb, but specifies it, indicating the direction of the action, e. g. *up, down, out, in, etc.* Retaining their lexical meaning original, these elements are very close to adverbs. However, the viewpoints, towards the second element, of different linguists differ. Some linguists think that this element has something in common with the adverb, while others say that it must be treated as the postverb since both elements in the combination are semantically united.

Thus both sides try to find some evidences to prove their ideas. So they worked out several tests:

Those who think that the second element is similar to the adverb argument like this:

1. If the second element has the meaning of direction, the word combination can be transformed according to such interrogative model **Where VNV?**

e. g.: *He looked **up** and saw the stars -* **Where** *did he look?*

In this example, the postverb UP is the adverb replaced by 'where'.

2. Similarly to the adverb, the second element can be separated from the verb by a pause of any length, e. g.:

She looked. Down. At the moonlit path.

Other linguists that express their attitude towards the second element as the postverb use the following tests to prove their ideas:

1. It is impossible to split the Vpv into separate components, e. g.:

He ran out. ≠ He ran. He is [must be] out.

2. These combinations cannot be transformed into the interrogative constructions, e. g.:

*He figured the problem <u>out</u>. *Out what did he figure? [The postverb]*

*He tossed the ball <u>up</u>. - *Up what did he toss? [The element with spatial meaning]*

Verb + preposition

turn off the road 'suddenly change the course'

speed up the pole 'go up the pole', etc.

The above mentioned material shows that the **Differential Approach** is more convincing and postverbs must be treated as a separate group different from homonymous adverbs and prepositions. They should be viewed as derivational means, which modify the meaning of a base verb.

Though it hasn't been generally accepted yet but according to some researchers working on word building and the status of derivatives in the language, it is possible to include the **Derivation of verbs by adding Postverbs** into the list of derivational means in the system of **Word Formation or Derivation**. This pattern has a number of common features with other ways of verbal derivation, especially with prefixation:

1. Postverbs and prefixes originate from locative [showing the location or place of the thing] adverbs [Anichkov 1961].

2. The function of postverbs in English is identical to Indo-European prefixes, e.g. go **out** - Russ. **вы**йти, Lith. **iš**eiti, Germ. **aus**gehen, Latin. **ex**ire.

3. Both prefixes and postverbs can mark the change of the meaning of the verb.

e.g. *law sb 'to take legal action against sb'. → outlaw 'to declare to be an outlaw'.*

burn 'to blaze or glow with fire' - burn up 'to destroy by fire or strong heat'.

4. Both prefixes and postverbs can change the valency of the verb and its lexical combinability.

e.g. *The king reigned for fifty years → The king outreigned his father.*

They laughed at him → They laughed out his ideas.

Researches E.C. Kubriakova and M. Д. Stepanova admit that postverbs can be included into derivational means since the difference between suffixes and postverbs are purely formal. The difference between them is that suffixes are bound morphemes in a word and postverbs as functional

equivalents of prefixes are free morphemes. They maintain apart from word thus allowing inserting another word between them.

Both prefixes and postverbs combine with the same verbs, thus their distribution nearly coincides. It means that "a prefixal verb and a verb with a postverb may correlate:

⇒ both the derived verbs coincide or are very close in their meaning, cf. the pairs: *outlast sb* *'to endure longer that'* = *last sb out* *'to endure longer than'.* [Klijūnaitė 2000,39].

outbreak *'a sudden or violent breaking out of activity' [of war]* = *break out* *'a violent or forceful breaking from what restrains or imprisons'.*

Though prefixes and postverbs are nearly identical from various aspects, in the majority of cases they differ in the range of their derivational meanings, e.g. the prefix **out** in the overwhelming majority of cases has the meaning 'to surpass', and the postverb **out** does not imply this meaning. The postverb **out** either preserves its locative [i.e. directional] meaning 'from the inside out' or in one way or another modifies the meaning of the base verb when the locative meaning is lost.

Summarizing all pros and cons we are going to treat the derivation of a word by adding postverb as a derivational means.

Although a postverb is not joined with the base verb, it is regarded as one more derivational means that is capable to form new derivatives. Asserting that verb with the postverb is a derivational unit we imply that it is regarded as analytic word defined as a nominative sign equivalent to a word, which unlike the word, is lacking in the integrity of morphemes.

However as we compare English and Lithuanian languages in our work it is important to point out what lexical units in Lithuanian language correspond English postverbs. The following chapter is dedicated to clear this out.

2.2. The Category of Aspect in English and Lithuanian Languages

Comparing these two languages it is important to admit that the category of aspect in Lithuanian [cf. Lith. "veikslo kategorija"] is essentially different from the category of aspect in the English language. In Lithuanian the category of aspect is usually not considered as a grammatical category of the verb at all.

For example, V. Ambrazas, one of the compilers of "A Grammar of Modern Lithuanian" [1996], does not include the category of aspect into the list of morphological categories of

Lithuanian verbs, since he denies the grammatical status of the aspect. His opinion is based on the fact that "the meaning of the perfective and the imperfective aspects [cf. Lith. "įvykio ir eigos veikslas"] are expressed by derivational means [prefixes] and not the paradigm of regular morphological forms" [Ambrazas 1984, 101].

In Lithuanian language the forms of aspect, when they are expressed by means of prefixes are rather words with different lexical meaning then the forms of the same word.

*šalti - **su**šalti - **per**šalti.*

Summing up the above given material the category of aspect in Lithuanian language should be regarded as a lexico-grammatical or lexical [derivational] category of verbs.

Nevertheless, V. Ambrazas states that in Lithuanian there are some verbs that stand in pure aspectual opposition with there prefixed derivatives. This can be stated from the verbs such like:

daryti → padaryti, laidoti → palaidoti, vykdyti → įvykdyti.

In the above given examples we can't find any change in the lexical meaning, therefore it can be stated that the pairs of verbs stand in pure aspectual opposition and can be viewed as marginal cases of the grammatical category of aspect in Lithuanian [DLKG 1996,290].

E. Jakaitienė investigating Lithuanian verbs also point out that "the main means of expressing the aspect in Lithuanian is the prefix, because the opposition of the imperfective and the prefective aspects is principally based on the prefixal derivation of verbs. In approximately 80 per cent of cases the presence of a prefix signals the perfective aspect and its absence - the imperfective" [Jakaitiene 1976, 131]

In this respect it is essential to note that postverbs, unlike its equivalents in Lithuanian, has no effect on the category of aspect in the English language. Vpv and its base [i.e. the verb without a postverb] can develop the same paradigm of aspective forms.

VERB	VERB+PV
*He often **reads** books.*	*He never **reads out** his letters to his family.*
*He **is reading** a book at the moment.*	*He **is reading out** the list of student's names to check who is absent.*
*He **has read** five books this year.*	*He **has read out** only five names yet.*

In Lithuanian languages the relation between the category of aspect and verbal derivation is basically different. The forms of different aspect are made by adding affixes and these forms in dictionaries are viewed as new derivational units, like:

skaityti [imperfective] - perskaityti [perfective],

Summing up the category of aspect in the English language it is possible to assert that it is absolutely different from the Lithuanian language.

Therefore the categorial difference in these languages causes frequent mistakes when translating Vpv-s from English into Lithuanian. Lithuanian translator feels his native language influences his mind, that the prefix should impart the perfective aspect to the verb. Thus Vpv-s are usually translated by perfective verbs, while their bases are translated by corresponding imperfective forms. For example **read → read out** are usually translated as **skaityti → perskaityti** in Lithuanian language. However the translated pairs are not adequate to the original one and the translation should be regarded as the incorrect one. In the English language the meaning imparted by the postverb **out** to the base verb **read** is *'aloud, especially to others'*. Thus the example: *She read out the letter to the whole family* has no perfective aspect. *Both **read** and **read out** can be translated of both the perfective and the imperfective aspect.*

    read *- skaityti / perskaityti,*

    read out *- skaityti garsiai / perskaityti garsiai.*

Thus now after we have investigated all theoretical issues it is appropriate to start analyzing our practical part - **Lexico-semantic group of 'destruction'**.

3. Lexico-semantic group of destruction in the English and Lithuanian languages

3.1. General characteristics of the lexico-semantic group of destruction

Lexico-semantic group of destruction consists of verbs, which have the common seme 'to destroy'. This seme units all destruction verbs into one lexico-semantic group. However, the same seme 'to destroy' at the same time serves as the differential seme, which not only combines the verbs of destruction into one group but also distinguishes them from all other verbs of the language or other lexico-semantic groups. As one might expect, certain distinguishes or diagnostic semes will serve in separating the words within the lexico-semantic group of destruction itself.

The lexico-semantic group with the meaning 'destruction' encompasses approximately 180 English phrasal units and 320 Lithuanian ones. Phrasal units of destruction have been derived from transitive verbs. The definition of this group of sememes is 'X destroys Y', e.g.:

Huge hammers [X] crush up the rocks [Y] (O$_{x\ adv}$ 218).

He [X] wore out shoes [Y].

Gyvuliai [X] sutrypė javus [Y] [DLKŽ 787].

Griaustinis [X] nutrenkė žmogų [Y] [DLKŽ 456].

In the Vup-s and Vout-s denoting destruction the primary locative meaning of the postverb has been lost, what can be perceived in the character of the shift of the meaning of the verb in the process of derivation. Moreover it is necessary to mention that the English postverbs UP and OUT corresponds Lithuanian prefixes UŽ-, IŠ-, NU-, SU-, PRI-, PA-.

Blow **up** - **su**sprogdinti,

Blow **out** -**už**pūsti,

As regards the composition of the lexico-semantic group under analysis, it contains both English Vup-s and Vout-s and Lithuanian verbs with prefixes with the regular shift of meaning as well as metaphoric, metonymic and idiomatic Vup-s , Vout-s and Lithuanian verbs+prefixes, e.g.:

Metaphoric: *Fry 'to cook (food) in fat or oil, usually over direct heat'* → *fry up (the crops) 'to destroy with heat'.*

Metonymic: *Snow up (a farm) 'to cover with the snow so that movement is impossible'.*

Idiomatic: *Send 'to cause something to go from one place to another' - send up 'to destroy something as by fire explosion' e.g. An enemy bomb has sent up the oil stores (Lc 549).*

The motivation of the derivative can be not only direct but also figurative. Alongside with verbs with postverbs with the standard and regular shift in their meaning, another significantly large group of phrasal verbs stands out characteristic of idiomatization of their lexical meaning viewed as peripheral sphere of a semantic field [lexico-semantic group]. Two successive stages of the idiomatization of the analytic verbal meaning can be distinguished first of which, can be related with the phraseological unities and the second - with phraseological fusions. In the first case phrasal verbs are viewed as the result of the semantic derivation [motivation] on the basis of the figurative or non-figurative development of the basic verbal meaning. In the second case the basic meaning changes in such an individual way that the semantic relation with the base can hardly be discerned [Klijūnaitė 2000, 53].

Thus, in the subsequent paragraphs these two stages of idiomatization will be discussed more explicitly.

Semantic motivation causes the appearance of new **metaphoric** or **metonymic** shift of the meaning of the derivative.

Metaphor is a transfer of lexical meaning of a word due to its similarity, i.e. the similarity of one phenomenon, denoted by the word, to another. Metaphor is not the contact of the phenomena of the reality but their comparison, the association of two images. It is the structure of two components:

1. The thing compared.

2. The thing with which the former is compared.

Thus, the metaphor may be called some kind of a 'compact comparison' or hidden simile', in which the theme is not directly named, but implicit, intuitive, guessable [Pikčilingis 1975, 277].

Chew → chew up₁ [meat] 'to crush with your teeth in order to break it into smaller pieces before swallowing' → chew up₂ [paper] 'to destroy by crushing'. E.g.: The printer is chewing the paper up again [L 74].

The action of crushing of the meal, usually by teeth, is compared to the crumpling of the paper by printer.

Metaphor generates when the things that are compared have something in common, i.e. when the theme and the thing with which the former is compared coincide at least by one element. In other words the meanings of the things compared share the common seme, which is called **tertium comparationis**, or **the point of similarity** (Pikčilingis 1975,176).

Tertium comparationis often comes from the similarity of the form, color, sound, state, movement, impression, etc. Sometimes the basis of comparison underlying the metaphor is evident i.e. we can perceive the meaning of figuratively used word and see the point of similarity. However in some cases the perception of the phenomena is very subjective. In these cases often only the authors perceive the point of similarity themselves (Pikčilingis 1975,271).

Metaphoric derivatives occur on the basis of two derivational processes:

1. Word building.

2. Semantic motivation.

In the process of word building (adding the postverb to the base verb) a derivative with the direct meaning is derived. *String → string up (Christmas lights).* In case of semantic motivation an additional or secondary change of meaning occurs. *String up (a criminal) 'to kill by tying a rope around a neck and making him hang from it'.* This additional change of meaning does not depend on the adding of the postverb, but it appears on the basis of the direct meaning of the derivative *string up* (Christmas lights) and is motivated by it.

There also occur metaphoric phrasal verbs that are generated right from their base with the simultaneous metaphorization of their meaning.

It is evident from all the above given information that a metaphor is an intentional violation of the lexical combinability (semantic coordination) (Župerka 1997, 61).

Metaphor is always more expressive than metonymy because metaphor describes the relation of the things that is created by imagination, while metonymy describes the relation of two things that exists in reality.

Metonymy is the transfer of name based on the shift of the name between objects or phenomena due to the association of contiguity. Metonymy is different from metaphor, in which the transfer of the name is based on the similarity of phenomena, while the essence of metonymy is a certain relation between objects or phenomena. These relations can be of place, time, cause, effect, etc.

In the English phrasal verbs the metonymic meaning is imparted by the postverb performing the function of the derivational means, e.g. *dig → dig up (flower gardens) 'to destroy by digging'*.

In addition to metaphors and metonymy there is one more group of phrasal units having figurative meaning - **idiomatic** phrasal verbs. This is a group of verbs which meaning cannot be derived from the regular meanings of the verb and the postverb, i.e. which do not form a semantic opposition with their bases. The shift in their meaning is irregular, individual and therefore quite ambiguous to those who do not know the meanings of such formations.

tuck 'to thrust in the edge of (of a garment, sheet, etc.) so as to hold in place' → tuck up 'to hang (a person)' e.g. The hangman asked the poor creature's pardon and …then calmly tucked up the criminal (D$_{sl}$ 914).

As the semantic non-reversibility is the result of the individual development of the meaning of lexemes it tis possible to assume that in a great majority of cases non-reversible lexemes are individual for every language.

Applying the method of componential analysis we will try to ascertain similarities and differences of verbs combined into lexico-semantic group of destruction. Comparing sememes with close meaning an attempt will be made to find out which part of the meaning does not coincide. The remained part will be treated as a separate diagnostic seme. The analysis of syntagmatic relations of verbs will also be applied in order to find out the regularities of verbs' combinability with other sememes.

Furthermore we will try to compare English and Lithuanian lexico-semantic group of destruction and ascertain the similarities and differences between them. The research shows that Lithuanian lexico-semantic group of destruction is much wider and expressive then the English one. The majority of Lithuanian units with the meaning of destruction belong to the secondary field and thus are especially colourful [metonymic, metaphoric and idiomatic] or have its additional connotational meaning.

It should be emphasised that the notion of destruction is very wide. It includes the destruction of inanimate things as well as animate parts of human body, agreements, activities, etc. Such diversity allows the division of the lexico-semantic group of phrasal verbs denoting destruction into a number of subgroups and lexical groups of sememes. In the process of investigation we decided to distinguish the lexico-semantic group of destruction into subgroups, which further will be analysed thoroughly. As the group of destruction is huge the subgroups were chosen according to the different semes they possess. Though, all the subgroups have the same integral seme 'to destroy' they were distinguished according to some specific or differential semes they possess. For example: 'to destroy by eating', 'destroy by beating', 'to destroy by sinking or hanging', etc. It is important to notice as well that these subgroups are not absolutely integral. Nearly every sememe has its differential seme, that is why they differ from each other and can not be interchanged in the same context (except synonyms, which have the same semes). These differential peculiarities are the most interesting and will be analysed further in the work.

It is worth mentioning, that English phrasal verbs with postverbs **out** and **up** and Lithuanian prefixed verbs were chosen for the investigation since English postverbs and Lithuanian prefixes add the meaning of completeness of the action of the main verb. Thus, phrasal and prefixed verb meaning possesses the seme 'to the end / to the death', which means that after the action is completed the animate thing should be destroyed or killed to the death and inanimate thing should be destroyed without the ability to be fixed.

The componential analysis of the lexico-semantic group of destruction presented in the following chapter will provide us with the precise information about this lexico-semantic group, will help to compare the English verbs with their equivalents in the Lithuanian language and will show their peculiarities.

3.2. COMPONENTIAL ANALYSIS OF THE LEXICO-SEMANTIC GROUP OF DESTRUCTION

Componential analysis [semantic decomposition] is the way of analyses of words decomposing them into their smallest meaningful components [semes].

As it was already indicated the lexico-semantic group of destruction, because of the big amount of differentiating semes, was subdivided into its smaller units - subgroups, which will be further separately investigated.

1. The subgroup of phrasal verbs with the definition 'X destroys Y beyond repair' comprises sememes that fall into three lexical groups:

A) The lexical group of phrasal verbs with the meaning 'destroy by fire, heat, or explosion'

Although this lexical group of phrasal verbs is relatively small, it can be analysed subdividing verbs into ones denoting destruction by explosion and others denoting destruction by fire or heat.

Thus explosion in English language is denoted usually by verbs *blow up* or *bomb out,* which are absolute synonyms since they have the same seme 'using a bomb':

blow → blow up/out [a bridge] 'to destroy using a bomb',

bomb → bomb out [the city] 'to destroy using a bomb'

Besides in the English language there is one more idiomatic phrasal verb with the same meaning:

send 'to cause [something] to go from one place to another' → send up 'to destroy [something], as by fire, explosion' e.g.: An enemy bomb has sent up the oil stores [Lc 549].

Equivalents of the three above-mentioned sememes in the Lithuanian language are:

susprogdinti (tiltą) 'sunaikinti naudojant sprogmenis'.

nuniokoti (ūkį) 'nusiaubti, sunaikinti'.

nusiaubti (kraštą) 'nuniokoti'.

nugriauti (pastatą) 'nuversti, išardyti'.

And some metonymic or metaphoric examples as follow:

suardyti (megztinį) 'išrinkti dalimis' → suardyti (namą) 'sugriauti ardant'.

išgriauti (miestą) 'išardyti, išnaikinti'

The above mentioned verbs may look like synonyms since they belong to the same subgroup. However only s*usprogdinti* may be called close equivalent to *bomb out* or *blow up* since it possesses the same seme 'to destroy using explosive material'.

On the other hand 'nusiaubti' and 'nuniokoti' has the additional seme 'to become miserable'. *Sprogimai nuniokojo miestą (DLKŽ,449).*Besides it is worth mentioning that though these two verbs are often used speaking about war and explosions they do not possess the seme 'using explosive material' and thus can be used speaking not only about bombing and are indirect equivalents, which mean explosion in a particular context but do not possess the direct seme 'using a bomb'.

One more equivalent to *bomb out* is used 'suardyti', which differentiates from *susprogdinti* and *nuniokoti* by the seme 'into parts'. *Sprogimas suardė namą (DLKŽ, 742).* This verb as well is often used speaking about explosions but do not mean explosion itself.

In Lithuanian language there is one more word used speaking about war and in particular about bombing: 'išgriauti', which differential seme is 'many, a lot of'. *Karas išgriovė daug miestų (DLKŽ, 236).*

Thus after precise componential analyses of every verb we may come to the conclusion that English verbs possess the only seme 'using a bomb', while there Lithuanian equivalents have far more semes and differ from each other a lot. English ones have only denotational meanings, whereas Lithuanian *nuniokoti* and *nusiaubti* possess connotational meaning as well.

As it has already been mentioned the subgroup encompasses also verbs denoting destruction by heat or fire and they are worth analyzing as well:

English representatives of this group are:

burn → burn up/out [the crops] 'to destroy by fire,

The subset under investigation contains the metaphoric phrasal verbs from the opposition:

fry 'to cook [food] in fat or oil, usually over direct heat' → fry up [the crops] 'to destroy with heat'.

Lithuanian equivalents of the same lexical subgroup are:

sukūrenti (žabus) 'kūrenant sudeginti'.

iškūrenti (malkas) 'kūrenant sunaudoti'.

išdeginti (žolę) 'išnaikinti ugnimi'.

sudeginti (trobą) 'sunaikinti ugnimi'.

There is an idiom:

nupurkšti (sieną) 'padengti paviršių skysčiu' - nupurkšti (degtukas) 'greitai sudegti' .

It has been observed that though the above given examples are synonymic, verbs have the same seme 'by fire or heat', only few of them can be treated as real synonyms since the rest of them can be distinguished from each other as having some differential semes as well.

The English verbs have only one seme 'by fire or heat', however their Lithuanian equivalents have more differential semes:

For example, comparing 'sudeginti', 'išdeginti', 'sukūrenti', 'iškūrenti' arises the idea that they are not absolutely synonymic since only 'sudeginti' is synonymic with the verb 'sukūrenti' and they are both equivalent to the English one 'to burn up' and has the only seme 'by fire'.

On the other hand the verb 'išdeginti' possesses the additional seme 'in an area'. *E.g. Ūkininkai išdegino pernykštės žolės plotus (DLKŽ, 228).*

One more equivalent to *burn up* is the verb 'iškūrenti', which possesses additional semes 'for a long time' and 'till something finishes'. The latter seme indicates that the verb belongs to the finitive mode of action'.

'Nupurkšti' has the differential seme 'quickly'.

Considering above mentioned facts we may construct a matrix and analyse the semic composition of this subgroup more thoroughly.

The sign "+ (-)" means that the seme is not expressed in the dictionary definition but only implied or the seme is distinguished according to examples found in dictionaries.

	quickly	for a long time	into parts	in the area	to become miserable	using a bomb	by fire or heat	many, a lot of
blow up	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-
bomb out	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-
send up	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-
susprogdinti	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-
nuniokoti	-	-	-	-	+	+(-)	-	-
nusiaubti	-	-	-	-	+	+(-)	-	-
suardyti	-	-	+	-	-	+(-)	-	-
išgriauti	-	-	-	-	-	+(-)	-	+
burn up	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
fry up	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
sukūrenti	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-

sudeginti	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
išdeginti	-	-	-	+	-	-	+	-
iškūrenti	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-
nupurkšti	+	-	-	-	-	-	+	-

The valent of the object of the phrasal verbs 'destroy by explosion' is most frequently expressed by nouns denoting various buildings, e.g.: *The soldiers blew up the enemy **bridge*** [Lc 42], while the verbs with the meaning 'destroy by fire or heat' often combine with names of cultivated plants, as in the sentence: *The unusually hot sun has fried up the **crops*** [Lc 206]. The subject of these phrasal verbs is expressed either by inanimate nouns [bomb, sun, fire] or names of human beings [soldiers].

Componential analysis applied shows that in case of comparison sememes are not adequate to each other. Though all of them possess the same integral seme 'destroy by fire, heat or explosion' the majority of them have some differential semes. For example *nupurkšti* has an intensifier 'quickly', *išardyti* has the additional meaning 'into parts' and *nusiaubti* or *nuniokoti* possess the evaluative seme 'to become miserable'.

The valent of the object of Lithuanian prefixed verbs 'destroy by explosion' is most frequently expressed by nouns denoting various buildings, e.g*.: Sprogimo banga nusiaubė **pastatą***, while the verbs with the meaning 'destroy by fire or heat' often combine with names of cultivated plants or firewood as in the sentence: *Saulės išdeginti smėlynai* (DLKŽ, 228). The subject of these phrasal verbs is expressed either by inanimate nouns [bomb, sun, fire] or names of human beings [soldiers].

B) The lexical group of phrasal verbs with the meaning 'destroy by a physical action'

This lexical group of phrasal verbs composed of verbal units characterised by combinability with nouns denoting various inanimate things [furniture, car, etc.] and human beings [criminal], e.g.: *She took revenge on him for leaving her by smashing up his car* [Lc 478].

The group under examination involves phrasal verbs representing the pattern in which the postverb is preferable. These are phrasal verbs from the opposition:

smash → smash up [a car] 'to destroy very badly by hitting it violently',

crush → crush up [rocks] 'to break into small pieces or into powder by pressing',

hack → hack up [furniture] 'to destroy roughly, usually with a knife or other sharp instrument' e.g.: Not content with stealing the jewels the thieves hacked up some valuable furniture and left the pieces all over the room [Lc 271].

Though all the above mentioned phrasal units belong to the same subgroup not all of their semes coincide as it can be observed from their definitions. For example *smash up* possess the seme 'by hitting', and its Lithuanian equivalents with the same seme 'by hitting' would be *sudaužyti, suknežinti, sugurinti.*

Whereas *to crush up* possesses its differential seme 'by pressing' and its Lithuanian equivalents would be *sutrėkšti, suspausti, priploti, sutrinti.* It should be emphasised that though Lithuanian examples possess the seme 'by pressing' some of them have even more semes and thus differ from the rest. For example *priploti* has the additional seme 'by one stroke' and *sutrinti* possess the seme 'by pressing one thing grinding into another' which is absent in the word *suspausti.*

It should be also mentioned that *sutrėkšti* and priploti may possess connotational 'sneering' seme like in the sentences:

Sutrėškei savo priešininką, kad net syvai ištekėjo.

Pagavęs priplosiu niekšą kaip musę.

Of cause in both cases verbs are used in its metaphoric or indirect meaning since usually these words are used speaking about insects like:

Priploti musę.

Sutrėkšti kirmėlę.

 The third phrasal unit belonging to this subgroup is *hack up*, which differs from *smash up* and *crush up* by the seme 'with a knife or any sharp thing' and its Lithuanian equivalents are: *supjaustyti* and *subraižyti,* which differ from each other because *supjaustyti* possess the seme 'with a knife' and can not be used with any other instrument, while *subraižyti* may be used with a lot of sharp instruments.

Besides some metonymic phrasal verbs also depend to the same subset:

dig → dig up [flower gardens] 'to destroy by digging'

Its Lithuanian substitutes are:

iškasinėti (gėlyną) 'išnaikinti kasant'. Darbininkai iškasinėjo gėlyną.

išrausyti 'išnaikinti rausiant'. Kurmiai išrausė daržą.

The group includes metaphoric phrasal verbs such as:

chew → chew up₁ [meat] 'to crush with your teeth in order to break it into smaller pieces before swallowing' → chew up₂ [paper] 'to destroy by crushing', e.g.: The printer is chewing the paper up again [Lc 74];

In Lithuanian language we do not have the corresponding word to this English metaphor.

One more metaphoric English word of this subset is *string → string up₁ [Christmas lights] 'to fasten in a high position' → string up₂ [bomber] 'to kill by tying a rope around the neck and making him hang from it'.*

And idiomatic phrasal verb with the same meaning as *string up* (synonymic):

tuck 'to thrust in the edge of [a garment, sheet, etc.] so as to hold in place' → tuck up 'to hang [a person]', e.g.: The hangman asked the poor creature's pardon and … then calmly tucked up the criminal [D$_{sl}$ 914].

The corresponding metaphoric Lithuanian verbs are: *pakabinti*. Though its direct meaning is to 'fasten something high so that it could not reach the surface' and is usually used speaking about laundry, it possesses an indirect meaning 'to hang somebody', e.g.: *Pakabino nabagą ant šakos ir paliko kaboti.* And one more equivalent can be found which is usually used speaking about laundry but sometimes it may be used with the meaning to 'hang somebody' and possess the connotational 'sneering' seme: *padžiauti*, e.g.: *Padžiovė vagį, kaip šunį ant šakos.*

Thus now we may make a table showing the componential structure of all the above mentioned examples:

	sneering connotation	by one stroke	by pressing one thing grinding into another	by knife	by any sharp thing	by hitting	by pressing
smash up	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
sugurinti	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
suknežinti	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
sudaužyti	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
crush up	-	-	-	-	-	-	+
sutrinti	-	-	+	-	-	-	+
priploti	+(-)	+	-	-	-	+	+

suspausti	-	-	-	-	-	-	+
sutrėkšti	+(-)	-	-	-	-	-	+
hack up	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
subraižyti	-	-	-	-	+	-	-
supjaustyti	-	-	-	+	-	-	-
dig up	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
iškasinėti	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
išrausyti	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
chew up	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
glamžyti	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
string up	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
padžiauti	+(-)	-	-	-	-	-	-
pakabinti	+(-)	-	-	-	-	-	-
tuck up	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Also it is important to mention that this Lithuanian group is much bigger than the English one and can be further subdivided into even smaller subgroups, which will be further analysed in detail. We decided to distinguish this group into even smaller subgroups since in Lithuanian the group 'of destruction by a physical action' is huge and there are even more words with the meanings, which have very few equivalents in English language. Thus we may come to the conclusion that in the English language this subgroup is not so big and words with different semes are not so numerous that they could form more subgroups, however in Lithuanian there is a lot of words, which may form more subgroups and these are to be discussed more thoroughly.

Destruction by biting somebody up until his death:

This group of words combine with nouns, which denote alive beings (usually predators), and which go in the sentence as subjects, and objects - also nouns, which usually denote their victims. Thus the group consists of the following examples:

išpjauti (avis) 'išžudyti daugelį kandant' *Ūkininkui išpjovė visas avis.*

užpjauti 'kandant nužudyti' *Vilkas ožką užpjovė.*

užkandžioti 'labai ar negyvai užkandžioti' *Užkandžios arklį tie bimbalai.*

suplėšyti 'sudraskyti dantimis į gabalus' *Vilkai suplėšė ėriuką.*

The above given examples are not synonymic since *išpjauti* has the additional seme 'a lot of', whereas metonymy *užpjauti* possesses seme 'one particular' and metaphor *suplėšyti* can be distinguished with its differential seme 'into pieces'.

Thus *išpjauti* and *užpjauti* depend to the same lexico-semantic group and oppose to each other in the sense that *užpjauti* is used speaking about one particular victim, whereas *išpjauti* is used speaking about a lot of victims. The verb *suplėšyti* distinguishes from the rest two since it can be used speaking about either singular or a lot of victims, moreover it possesses its exclusive feature, which is absent in the meanings of the rest two - 'into pieces'.

	a lot of	one particular	into pieces
išpjauti	+	-	-
užpjauti	-	+	-
suplėšyti	+(-)	+(-)	+

Destruction by sticking or cutting somebody [a pig]:

This subgroup of verbs denoting destruction by physical action and in particular 'by sticking or cutting somebody' is especially numerous in Lithuanian language and is worth to be discussed separately. The most neutral and usually used representatives of this group are:

paskersti 'papjauti'. *Paskersti kiaulę.*

papjauti 'atimti gyvybę aštriu įrankiu'.*Papjovė avį.*

These two words are absolutely synonymic and usually used speaking about the sticking of domestic animals like pigs, sheep and cows. Though sometimes they may be used figuratively speaking about human. But in such cases these two words develop some connotational (negative evaluation) meaning: *Susipyko galvažudžiai ir paskerdė kits kitą kaip paršą.*

Moreover this group consists of:

sukapoti 'kapojant užmušti'.*Kardu sukapojo*

This verb differs from the two above mentioned because it has the seme 'by cutting' and usually another seme 'into pieces'. This word usually goes with the subject, which denotes some sharp things like: knife, sword, etc. and the object may be a both animate and inanimate thing.

One more representative of this group would be: nudurti 'nužudyti duriant' . *Rado peiliu nudurtą.*

This verb also has the seme 'by sticking' but differs from *paskersti* and *papjauti* since the above mentioned verbs are used speaking more about domestic animals and this one about human

beings. Moreover when we use word *nudurti* we usually mean 'by singular deadly movement'. And this seme also distinguishes this word from the rest of this group since when sticking with a lot of movements kills a person we usually use another word *subadyti*.

nurėžti 'aštriu įrankiu atidalyti'. *Nurėžė virvės galą.*

It should be distinguished as well since it possesses one more seme 'to cut a part from the whole'. It should be mentioned that in some contexts this word may not have destructive meaning but would mean only damage.: e.g. *Nurėžti vergui ausį.* In this example the idea is that the slave was punished by cutting his ear. So the slave was damaged but he did not die. However in other cases this verb may mean the destruction.: e.g. *Kaune buvo rastas lavonas su nurėžta galva.* So now the word has a destructive meaning since cutting girl's head had to be the cause of her death.

This group also consists of some metaphors:

nugnybti 'papjauti'. *Šventėms paršelį nugnybėme.*

užgnybti 'papjauti'. *Užgnybo meitelį ir turės mėsos.*

These two words are colloquial. They are very expressive and are used speaking usually about pigs: *Nugnybėme praeitą sekmadienį paršelį.*

pamauti 'pasmeigti'. *Ant smeigo pamauta žuvis.*

This verb differs from the rest because it has a seme 'to impale' and usually when somebody or something is impaled a stick goes through him and he or it is hanging above the surface.

Metonymies: subadyti 'ragais sužeisti ir nužudyti'. *Jį jautis subadė.* Possesses the seme 'by a lot of movements'.

užadurti 'nudurti, paskersti'. *Susipyko kaliniai ir uždūrė vienas kitą*

padurti 'papjauti duriant'. *Padūrė paršą.*

These two words are absolute synonyms just *padurti* is more often used and *uždurti* not so often. Besides it is worth mentioning that these words are used more speaking about animates and in particular about human beings but not about inanimate things.

nukirsti 'nupjauti(dalgiu)'. *Nukirsti rugius.*

Actually this word is quite neutral as well and mean cutting. It is used more speaking about inanimate things, e.g.: trees, rye, etc.

It should be emphasised that some units of this subgroup are absolutely synonymic, however their equivalents depend to colloquial speech and thus differ from each other in the way of usage (used either in standard language or colloquial speech), e.g. papjauti, paskersti (standard language) - and their colloquial equivalents: užgnybti, nugnybti, uždurti.

On the other hand some units can be noticed that possess differential semes: *subadyti* differs from the rest units with the meaning 'by sticking many times'. Whereas *pamauti* provides with the idea that somebody was sticked and left being impaled.

Sukapoti has the seme 'to cut into parts', *nurėžti* 'to cut a part from'.

	anim ate	human being	inanimate thing	by one stroke	by a lot of strokes	take a part from the whole	by sticking	by cutting	to impale
nukirsti	-	-	+	+(-)	+(-)	+	-	+	-
padurti	+	+	-	+	-	-	+	-	-
subadyti	+	+	+	-	+	-	+	-	-
pamauti	+	+	+	-	-	-	+	-	+
nugnybti	+	-	-	+	-	-	+	-	-
nurėžti	-	-	+	+	-	+	-	+	-
nudurti	+	+	-	+	-	-	+	-	-
paskersti	+	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-
papjauti	+	+	-	-	-	-	+	-	-
sukapoti	-	-	+	-	+	-	-	+	-

Thus after looking at the table we may come to a conclusion that majority of verbs of this subgroup denote killing animate beings more then destruction of inanimate things.

Destruction by shooting somebody

This semantic subgroup consists almost of metaphors except *nušauti* (the neutral one) and *numušti* (metonymy).

Nušauti 'šūviu nužudyti'. *Nusišovė kiškį ir turi ko valgyti.* has the meaning to shoot and is very neutral. However the rest verbs of this group belong to the expressive lexis. They are as follow:

numušti 'užmušti, pašauti'. *Jis numušo lapę.*

This verb is derived from the verb *mušti* - to beat. This metonymy means 'to shoot' and forasmuch the word is derived from the verb to beat it possess some indirect meaning or seme 'by

beating'. Somehow the word reminds us that the bullet beat somebody or something down like with a stroke.

išguldyti 'daugelį iššaudyti'. *Kulkosvaidininkai išguldė daug pėstininkų.*

Is also an expressive unit since it has the additional seme 'a lot of'. Usually this word in its direct meaning is used speaking about cornfield, which is flatten by strong wind. So here in its figurative meaning the word reminds that for examples so many soldiers were shot that they can be compared corn.

nukepti 'nušauti, užmušti'. *Nukepė jį kaip šunį.*

nutėkšti 'nušauti'. *Vilką nutėškė.*

nutrinkinti 'su trenksmu nušauti'. *Nušovė žvirblelį, nutrinkino.*

These three words are very colloquial and quit rear. They can be found more either in poetry or speaking somewhere in villages with older people.

pakirsti 'šūviu ar smūgiu nužudyti'. *Krito kulkos pakirstas.*

This word is derived from the verb *kirsti* - to cut and means to shoot. The word remind us that when a person is shot he or she falls down onto the ground like a tree for example falls down when it is chopped.

Most of units are absolutely synonymic just they are colloquial and thus very expressive. Only *išguldyti* stands out as the unit possessing additional seme 'a lot of'.

From point of view of combinability verbs with the meaning 'to destruct somebody by shooting' combine with nouns denoting animate beings. Thus the subject (soldier, hunter, criminal) and the object (animal, bird or human being) are always animate in such sentences. E.g. *Medžiotojas (subject) nutėškė vilką (object).*

	a lot of	*one particular*	*expressive / colloquial*	*neutral*
nušauti	-	+	-	+
numušti	-	+	+	-
išguldyti	+	-	+	-
nukepti	-	+	+	-
pakirsti	-	+	+	-
nutėkšti	-	+	+	-
nutrinkinti	-	+	+	-

Thus we may come to a conclusion that majority of verb, which belong to this subgroup belong to the expressive lexis and of course all of them are used speaking about animate beings.

Destruction by sinking somebody or something:

This subgroup is not very numerous. The most usually used either in spoken or in written language is:

paskandinti 'žūti nugrimzdus'. *Paskandino priešo laivą.*

This verb is neutral and should understood directly 'to be drown'. However there are few metonymies, which are not so often used especially *numurdyti.*

prigirdyti 'nuskandinti'. *Prigirdė žmogų ežere.*

numurdyti 'nuskandinti'. *Numurdė šuniuką kūdroje*.

It is worth mentioning that *prigirdyti* nowadays is more often used in its figurative meaning 'to give somebody to drink alcohol until he or she becomes drunk'. And *numurdyti* is used more speaking about domestic animals (just born kittens or pups). However all of these three words are synonymic and differ from each other just frequency people use them.

Destruction by beating somebody:

This group describes the way of killing alive beings by beating them until death and consists mostly of metonymies except užmušti 'nužudyti (smūgiu)' *Gyvatę užmušiau.*

uždaužyti 'daužant užmušti'. *Galėjo visai uždaužyti, taip bedaužydamas.*

užtrankyti 'trankant nugalabyti'. *Pasibaidę arkliai vos neužtrankė.*

užkulti 'užmušti'. *Tuoj mes tave užkulsim.*

užbakinti 'užmušti bakinant'. B*ebakindamas ir užbakinsi tą šunelį.*

užlupti 'užmušti'. *Galėjo ir užlupti girti būdami.*

užplakti 'plakant nužudyti'. *Rykštėmis vargšą užplakė.*

užperti 'užmušti'. *Kad būtų radę, būtų užpėrę.*

uždundinti 'užmušti dundinant'. *Užmušė žvirblelį, uždundino.*

užbubinti 'užmušti'. *Užbubino šunį.*

užplampinti 'užmušti'. *Užmušti vilką.*

užplumpinti 'užmušti'. *Užmušė žvirblelį, užplumpino.*

užbambinti 'užmušti daužant'. *Prigėrė valkatos ir užbambino vienas kitą.*

užpampinti 'užmušti'. *Vaikai užpampino varlę.*

All the above given examples are synonymic just they are very expressive, colourful since majority of them belong to the colloquial speech. Each of them represents in itself the action of

beating and are colourful because they sound like beating: e.g. *uždundinti, užbubinti* - remind us the sound dun-dun-dun or bum-bum-bum. Except two examples *užperti* and *užplakti,* which may be pointed out as having differential seme 'with a whip or switch'.

All units belonging to this group combine with animates therefore both subject and object mean animate beings.

Destruction by eating something:

This subgroup is very numerous and very differentiated thus it should be investigated separately and thoroughly. The most neutral and most usual unit of this subgroup is *suvalgyti* 'viską suvartoti valgant'. *Suvalgyti sūrį.* and it means 'to eat something or somebody'.

However there are more at first sight synonymic and at the same time having a lot of differential semes words. At first we may look at: s*uėsti* (žolę) 'ėdant suvartoti'. *Galvijai dobilus nuėdė.* The verb *ėsti* is usually used speaking about animals since when this word is used speaking about humans it has the additional connotational meaning ' not prettily' and shows the idea that a person is eating unmannerly like an animal (a pig).

The same negative connotational meaning possess the word: *suryti* 'godžiai suėsti'. *Karvės burokus surijo.* It also has the idea that a person is eating unmannerly but the difference is that a person likes this not because he does not know good manners but because he is in hurry. Thus there is one more additional seme 'hungrily'.

One more verb of this subgroup is*: sulesti* '. Vištos g*rūdus sulesė.* It does not have any negative connotational meaning just this word is used either speaking about birds or sometimes about humans having in mind that somebody is eating in small mouthfuls (like a bird).

This group is full of metonymies as well as it can be seen from the following examples:

sučiulpti 'suvalyti čiulpiant, išsiurbiant'. *Sučiulpė saldainį.*

This word differs from the rest because it possess the seme 'by swallowing'.

sučiaumoti 'negražiai, dideliais kąsniais suvalgyti'. *Sučiaumojo gabalą lašinių.*

It also has negative connotational meaning and is used speaking either about animals or people who does not know good eating manners. However it possesses one more seme 'in big mouthfuls' and thus differs from the rest.

sulaižyti 'laižant suvalgyti'. *Sulaižė visą medų.* has one more seme 'by licking'. This word is used speaking either about domestic animals (cats and dogs), who lick or humans when they eat confectionarry (honney, jam, sweets, etc.).

nugraužti 'suėsti'. *Gyvuliai visai nugraužė ganyklą.* Is used usually speaking about animals and has a seme 'by scranching'.

suragauti 'ragaujant suvalgyti'. *Tik nesuragaukit visų saldainių.* This word is used speaking about humans and has the seme 'by tasting' and has the idea that somebody wanted just to taste something but it was so delicious that he or she ate something completely.

sušveisti 'greitai suvalgyti'. *Jis sušveitė lašinius.* As it can be seen from the definition this word possesses its additional seme 'quickly'.

sužlebenti 'pamažu, lyg be dantų sukramtyti'. *Sužlebenti duonos plutą.* This word though depend to the same subgroup since it has the meaning to eat but on the other hand it is opposite to the above mentioned *sušveisti* because it has the seme 'slowly like having no teeth'.

	unmannerly	hungrily	in small mouthfuls	in big mouthfuls	by swallowing	quickly	by licking
sulažyti	-	-	-	-	-	-	+
sulesti	-	-	+	-	-	-	-
suvalgyti	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
suėsti	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
suryti	+	+	-	+	-	+	-
sučiulpti	-	-	-	-	+	-	-
sučiaumoti	+	-	-	+	-	-	-
sužlebenti	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
sušveisti	+	+	-	+	-	+	-
suragauti	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
sulaižyti	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

It is essential to notice that Lithuanian group of destruction by eating something is very wide and colourful and thus contains a lot of verbs having different semes or differentiating from each other in the 'way of eating'.

E.g. *Sužlebenti* has the differentiating seme 'slowly as if without teeth', while *sušveisti* has a seme 'quickly'. *Suragauti* differs from the rest with the seme 'by trying', *sulaižyti* - 'by licking', *sučiaumoti* -'impolitely', *sučiulpti* - 'by swallowing' and *suryti* - 'hungrily'.

The combinability of this group is very simple and easily predictable. Subject is always animal, bird or human and object - meal: e.g. *Galvijai nukrimto metūglius (DLKŽ,438).*

Destruction by breaking something fragile (window, glass):

This semantic group is very numerous and here are presented only the most expressive examples. Although from the first sight it looks like all the units are very similar since they have common/integral seme 'to break something fragile', they differ from each other in their differential semes. It is essential to notice that English equivalents (to smash up) concentrate more on the result (the action which caused the break up of a fragile thing). Lithuanian equivalents on the other hand express this particular action, the way of breaking (quickly, slowly, accurately, violently) or the sound, which followed the break up.

išdaužti 'su trenksmu suskaldyti'. *Išdaužyti langus.* So as we may see from the definition this word possesses the seme 'with a bang' since usually the sound follows the break up of a fragile thing.

sudaužyti 'sumušti į gabalus,suskaldyti'. *Vaikas puoduką suskaldė.* Here the definitions say that the word has the seme 'into parts' and in this way it differs from the previous example.

išpliekti 'smarkiai ką padaryti (išdaužyti)'. *Išpliekė jam visus langus.* The seme 'violently' or 'severely' distinguishes this word from the previous ones.

išbubinti 'bubinant išdaužti'. *Išbubinti langą.*

išburbinti 'burbinant išdaužti'. *Išburbinti langą.*

išbildinti 'bildinant išdaužti'. *Išbildinti langą.* These three examples are quite synonymic. They all express the sound of breaking glass or anything else fragile when it is being broken. They are colloquial. Their differential semes are: *'bubinant',' burbinant',' bildinant'.* These semes remind us such sound: bur-r-r-r, bu-bu-bu, bilst.

suaižyti 'sudaužyti, suskaldyti'. *Perkūnas beržą į šipulius suaižė.* This one is very similar to *sudaužyti* since it also possesses the seme 'into parts'.

The verb *išbelsti* 'beldžiant išdaužti'. *Išbelsti langą.* is derived from the word *belstis*, which means 'to knock'. However this word depends to the lexico-semantic group or destruction because *išbelsti* means 'to knock so hard that something breaks'.

išbarškinti 'barškinant išdaužti'. *Išbarškinti langą.* This word is synonymic to *išbelsti.* It also possesses the seme 'to knock so hard that something breaks.

Thus now it is appropriate to make a table, which would show more clearly the differences and similarities between the above mentioned examples:

	neutral	expressive / colloquial	into parts	with a bang	violently	to knock too hard
išbarškinti	-	+	-	+	-	+
suaižyti	+	-	+	-	-	-
išbelsti	-	+	-	+	-	+
išburbinti	-	+	-	+	-	-
išbildinti	-	+	-	+	-	-
išdaužti	+	-	-	+	-	-
sudaužyti	+	-	+	+	-	-
išpliekti	-	+	-	-	+	-
išbubinti	-	+	-	+	-	-

The group consists mostly of metonymies, which depend to the expressive lexis since they possess the differential semes showing not only the result that something was broken but also the way of breaking. In the majority of above given examples the sound, which follow the break up is the only meaningful unit, which makes the verb to stand up in opposition with the rest verbs in the lexico-semantic group: burbinant, bubinant, bildinant, barškinant, beldžiant.

As it can be seen from the examples *išdaužti* has the additional seme 'with the bang'. Whereas *išpliekti* differentiates from other verbs with its seme 'violently' and *suaižyti* possesses the seme 'into pieces'. These entire verbs combine with nouns denoting fragile, breakable things and the subject, who breaks something can be both animate (child, animal, etc.) and inanimate (lightning, stone, ball).

Lithuanian subgroup of destruction by physical action is especially numerous and thus it was subdivided into smaller groups, which was not done with the same English subgroup. Actually this group is so wide that somebody may distinguished even more groups than we did but the rest units are more or less unitary and thus we considered that it is not worth to distinguish them into separate subgroups.

It is worth noticing that Lithuanian equivalents of the group 'destruction by physical action' were fare more expressive than English ones and they belong to the secondary field, periphery of the lexico-semantic group of destruction. Furthermore Lithuanian subgroup is much wider than English and it is essential to mention that there are more Lithuanian verbs meaning the destruction by physical action of animate things/alive beings (nutrinkinti paukštelį; nutėkšti vilką; sutrėkšti vabalą;

uždvasinti viščiukus) while the majority of English verbs deal with destruction by physical action of inanimate things (crash up a car; smash up a window; shoot out the window; bomb up a bridge).

C) The lexical group of phrasal verbs with the meaning 'break a relationship or a contract':

This lexical group contains the following metaphoric phrasal verbs, the last two of which are synonymic:

break → break up$_1$ [old cars] 'to cause to be destroyed' → break up$_2$ [a marriage] 'to destroy or end',

bust → bust up$_1$ [chairs] 'to destroy, damage' → bust up$_2$ [a marriage] 'to separate or cause to end', as exemplified: It was money troubles that bust up their marriage [Lc 61],

rip → rip up$_1$ [a newspaper] 'to destroy by pulling' → rip up$_2$ [a contract] 'to break or completely disregard',

tear → tear up$_1$ [letters] 'to destroy by pulling roughly' → tear up$_2$ [a contract] to break', e.g.: He can't be trusted; he's been known to tear up a contract before the ink was dry where it had been signed [Lc 664].

The same Lithuanian subgroup is relatively small and consists of metaphors as well as the English one.

traukti → nutraukti$_1$ (siūlą) 'traukiant padalinti į dvi dalis' → nutraukti$_2$ (santuoką, sutartį) 'panaikinti galiojimą'. *Teismo sprendimu sutartis buvo nutraukta.*

naikinti → panaikinti$_1$ (dėmę) 'nustoti būti' → panaikinti$_2$ (sutartį) 'nutraukti įgaliojimus'.*Abiem šalims sutinkant,* s*utartis buvo panaikinta.*

laužyti → sulaužyti$_1$ (žaislą) 'padaryti nebetinkamu' → sulaužyti$_2$ (santuokos įžadus) 'nebesilaikyti sutarties'. *Vyriškis sulaužė santuokos įžadus.*

ardyti → išardyti$_1$ (dalis) 'padalinti dalimis' → išardyti$_2$ (santuoką) 'panaikinti galiojimą'. *Tėvai išardė jaunųjų santuoką.*

The above given examples are synonymic and thus can be interchanged in the same context.

As evident from the illustrative sentences, the phrasal verbs as well as their Lithuanian equivalents of the group under analysis tend to combine with nouns denoting some relationships, usually marriage or agreement [contract].

2. The subgroup of phrasal verbs with the definition 'X defeats Y' is composed of two lexical groups of sememes:

A) The lexical group of phrasal verbs with the meaning 'defeat an enemy at war'

This lexical group is relatively small. It comprises phrasal verbs that require nouns denoting enemy forces for the valent of the object, as exemplified in: *It's a small **enemy force,** we should be able to wipe it up in no time* [Lc 722].

It is worth noticing that this Lithuanian subgroup is not so clearly subdivided into two parts: 'defeat an enemy at war' and 'defeat an opposition or weaker competitor'. The subgroup 'defeat an enemy' is clearer and can be defined more precisely. It means that there are some specific words meaning only the defeat of an enemy and can not be used speaking about the competitor:

Here belong three metaphors, which are very similar and can be used in the same context:

wipe → wipe up$_1$ [milk] 'to remove from a surface, as with a cloth' → wipe up$_2$ [enemy force] 'to deal with or defeat',

clean → clean up$_1$ [the broken glass] 'to remove and leave the place clean' → clean up$_2$ [enemy positions] 'to finish defeating',

mop → mop up$_1$ [a pool of water] 'to clean, remove with a mop' → mop up$_2$ [the opposition] 'to kill the remaining soldiers from an enemy army, or to take them as prisoners', e.g.: Residents were refused access to the town as the Serbian - dominated army mopped up Muslim opposition [L 335].

Their Lithuanian equivalents are:

išskersti (priešus) 'daugelį išpjauti' *Abšalomo kariuomenė buvo išskersta (*Bibl.2 Sam. 17:9).

išpjauti (priešus) 'daugelį nužudyti pjaunant' *Priešų kariuomenės išpjovė vienas kitą.*

However these two Lithuanian examples have some more semes then English ones. These words *išpjauti* and *išskersti* remind us animals, usually domestic, and are used speaking about killing a lot of helpless creatures. In other words the meaning would be 'to slaughter' or 'to massacre'.

Here belong several similar metaphors:

šluoti → nušluoti$_1$ (dulkes) 'nuvalyti nuo paviršiaus šluojant' → nušluoti$_2$ (priešą) 'visiškai sunaikinti' *Pralaimėjusieji buvo visiškai nušluoti nuo žemės paviršiaus.* This word is used in its

figurative meaning since the direct meaning is 'to sweep'. Here the word means that the enemy was 'definitely or completely defeated by killing every soldier'.

skinti → išskinti[1] (gėles) 'išrinkti skinant' → išskinti[2] (priešus) 'daugelį sunaikinti' *Kulkosvaidininkai išskynė visą priešo kariuomenę.* This word is also used in its figurative meaning since the direct meaning is to 'pick up' and is usually used speaking about picking up flowers, mushrooms or berries. That's why in its figurative meaning there is a seme 'a lot of'.

B) The lexical group of phrasal verbs with the meaning 'defeat the opposition or weaker competitors'

This lexical group includes phrasal verbs that tend to combine with nouns denoting usually human beings [opponent, competitor, etc.] in the position of the object.

The subset under examination involves metaphoric phrasal verbs from the following oppositions:

gobble → gobble up[1] [something] 'to eat all of it very quickly and eagerly' → gobble up[2] [helpless countries] 'to overpower, defeat',

eat → eat up[1] [something] 'to eat all of it' → eat up[2] [somebody] 'to defeat, ruin', as in the sentence: You shouldn't have put the new teacher in charge of that troublesome class, they'll eat him up [Lc 159].

Other sememes ascribed to this lexical group are idiomatic phrasal verbs, which are as follow:

snarl 'to catch in a snare or noose' → snarl up [the opposition] 'to confuse so as to defeat', It is worth mentioning that this idiomatic verb has an additional seme 'to confuse' and thus differs from the two mentioned above.

rack 'to cause physical or mental pain, or trouble to' → rack up [the other team] 'to defeat completely', Here the definitions say that the verb has a seme 'completely'.

do 'to carry out an activity' → do up [competitors] 'to ruin',

crumple 'to press or twist into folds or wrinkles' → crumple up [the opposition] 'to cause to be defeated or lowered in health or spirits',

chaw 'to grind with the teeth, chew' → chaw up [the opponent] ' to defeat completely', e.g.: The speaker chawed up his opponent with some well-chosen words [Lc 74].

Speaking about the same Lithuanian subgroup it is important to mention that there is only one verb meaning the defeat of a competitor (which can be used speaking only about competitors

and can not be used speaking about enemies). It is important to mention it because in Lithuanian we have one more group of words, which can be used speaking about both enemies and competitors):

nurungti (varžovą) 'nugalėti' *Čempionas turi nurungti visus varžovus.* This word is neutral and has the semes 'to defeat', 'competitor'.

However there is one more relatively big group of words, which may be used both speaking about the defeat of an enemy and a competitor and thus they can not be assigned to any subgroup:

nugalėti (priešą, varžovą) 'įveikti' *Beliko tik nugalėti priešą arba mirti kovos lauke (A. Vienuolis).* This word is quite neutral however is important to us because it can be used both with enemies and competitors.

sudoroti (priešą, varžovą) 'įveikti'

sunaikinti (priešą, varžovą) 'nugalėti' *Nenakvok prie perėjų į dykumą, bet tuoj pat pereik. Antraip karalius ir su juo esantys žmonės bus sunaikinti (*Bibl. 2 Sam 17:16).

įveikti (priešą, varžovą) 'nugalėti'

pribaigti (priešą, varžovą) 'įveikti'

It can be noticed from the above given examples that verbs denoting both the defeat of an enemy and a competitor are synonyms, possess the only integral seme 'to defeat' and thus can be used in the same context.

However verbs denoting only the defeat of an enemy are not integral. Majority of them have one more differential seme 'many, a lot' (*išskersti, išpjauti, išskinti, iškirsti*) and *nušluoti* possesses the seme 'completely, definitely, everybody'.

Thus we may make a table, which would show everything more clearly:

	enemy	competitor
wipe up	+	-
clean up	+	-
mop up	+	-
išskersti	+	-
išplauti	+	-
nušluoti	+	-
išskinti	+	-
gobble up	-	+
eat up	-	+
snarl up	-	+

chaw up	-	+
crumple up	-	+
do up	-	+
rack up	-	+
nurungti	-	+
nugalėti	+	+
sudoroti	+	+
sunaikinti	+	+
įveikti	+	+
pribaigti	+	+

This group of verbs combine only with alive beings (enemies and competitors) and the subject is always human being as well.

3. The subgroup of phrasal words with the definition 'X blocks Y'

This subgroup contains verbal units that show tendency to combine with nouns denoting some space or opening (most often *road, well, hole, pipe* also *ears*) in the position of the object, whereas the subject is expressed by names of human beings or inanimate nouns like *leaves, snow, mud*, e.g. *The **leaves** bunged up the **hole** (Lc 59).*

Or Lithuanian example*: Nuvirtęs medis užtvėrė kelią (DLKŽ).*

Here belong a number of phrasal verbs derived according to the model in which the postverb only makes the meaning of the base verb more explicit. And it is essential to mention that Lithuanian equivalents possess only prefix **už**. These are sememes from the following oppositions:

block → block up (a pipe) 'to close, prevent movement through',

bung → bung up (a hole) ' to close or block',

close → close up (a well) 'to block or shut', e.g. We must close up the old well, it's dangerous (Lc 84),

clog → clog up 'to block (something)',

It should be mentioned that the above given examples are synonyms and can be used in the same context that is why there is no need to describe each of them separately. They have the same seme 'to block or close something'.

Their Lithuanian equivalents are:

uždaryti (duris) 'užverti' *Ir duris uždarius laikas bėga (tts.).* This is the most neutral one, which has only one meaning 'to close'.

užverti (dangtį) 'uždaryti' *Iš pradžių ji nieko negalėjo įžiūrėti, nes užlangės buvo užvertos (J. Balčytis).* This example as well possesses the meaning to close, however it is used speaking about doors, windows, etc. something that has hinges and thus can be shut or closed. In this way the sememe can be distincted from the rest as having the seme 'something with hinges'.

uždengti (audiniu) 'uždėti kažką ant viršaus, kad nesimatytų' *Krovinys buvo uždengtas specialiu audiniu nuo lietaus (DLKŽ).* This word also differs from the rest since it has the seme to cover (with snow, dust, fabric, etc.).

užtrenkti (duris) 'su trenksmu uždaryti' *Užtrenk duris, kad vėjas nedarinėtų (DLKŽ).* As it is seen from the definition this verb has the additional seme 'with a burst', which represents the energy, which was used to close something and the sound, which followed it.

 On the other hand *užstumti* (durų velkę) 'stumiant uždaryti ar užversti' *Mašina užgeso ir ją reikėjo užstumti ant duobės (DLKŽ).* has the seme 'by pushing'.

užgulti (duris) 'užblokuoti spaudžiant savo svoriu' *Kiaulė užgulė savo paršiukus (DLKŽ).* As the definition also says this verb possesses semes 'to press' and 'with your body' and is used either with animate nouns, as it can be perceived from the above given example, or with inanimate things: e.g. *Sunkus akmuo užgulė išėjimo angą.*

However the following two English examples have one more additional seme comparing with the above given 'with something solid': *plug → plug up (ears) 'to block with something solid',* as in: *If you play that loud music, I shall have to plug up my ears (Lc 434),*

stop →stop up 'to block (a hole) with something solid'.

The best and the closest Lithuanian equivalent is *užkimšti* (ausis) 'užkišti kažkuo angą ar skylę' *Kas užsikemša ausis vargšo šauksmui, tas pats šauksis ir nebus išgirstas (*Bibl. Pat21:13).

The following two examples have one more, not mentioned yet, seme 'with boards of wood'.

board → board up (windows) 'to close with boards of wood',

box → box up (the doorway) 'to close with boards of wood' e.g. You'd better box up the doorway until we can get a new door (Lc 46).

Their Lithuanian equivalent is: *užkalti* (langus) 'užblokuoti kalant lentomis' *Namo langai buvo užkalti lentomis (DLKŽ).*

užritinti (angą) 'užverti ar uždaryti ridenant kažką sunkaus' *Išėjimas buvo užritintas akmeniu (DLKŽ).* This word differs from the rest by the seme 'with something round' and is used usually speaking about huge round stones, balls, etc.

užtvenkti (upeliuką) 'užtverti vandens pratekėjimą' *Bebras užtvenkė upeliuką.* etc. This is a unique example since only this word and none else can be used speaking about water and this word has only one meaning 'to stop the flow of water'. Its differenti

al seme is 'water'.

This subgroup also contains metonymic phrasal verb such as:

brick → brick up (a well) 'to close or block with bricks',

In Lithuanian language there is one verb expressing the action of blocking the entrance by laying bricks and has the same seme as the English one 'by bricks': *užmūryti* (įėjimą) 'užblokuoti mūrijant plytomis' *Name buvo du įėjimai, tad vieną teko užmūryti (DLKŽ).*

snow → snow up (a farm) 'to cover with snow so that movement is impossible',

Lithuanian equivalent of this verb is *užsnigti* and possesses the same seme 'to cover with snow so that movement is impossible'.

Thus the following table may be drawn up in order to easy the comparison of English and Lithuanian subgroups of verbs with the definition 'X blocks Y'.

	to cover	by bricks	water	by wood	with smth. round	with a burst	by pushing	with its body
užsnigti	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
snow up	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
užmūryti	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
brick up	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
užtvenkti	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-
užritinti	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-
užkalti	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-
box up	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-
board up	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-
stop up	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
plug up	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
užgulti	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+

užstumti	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
uždengti	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
užtrenkti	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-
užverti	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
uždaryti	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
block up	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
close up	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
bung up	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
clog up	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

As it can be seen from the above given examples the group of verbs either English or Lithuanian differ from each other according to some differential semes. *Užverti, uždaryti, užtrenkti* are usually used speaking about doors the same as English *close up*, whereas *užkimšti* is used speaking about ears and correlates with the English one *to plug up*. Moreover *užtrenkti* possesses the seme 'with a bang', *užtvenkti* is used speaking only about water or other liquids, *užkalti* equivalents *to hammer up* and has the seme 'with a hammer', *užritinti* has the seme 'with a round thing', *užstumti* - 'by pushing', *užmūryti* - 'by laying bricks', *užgulti* - 'to press something with your body'.

It should be also mentioned that verbs belonging to this subgroup are used in their direct meanings and are not expressive though it also should be noticed that Lithuanian subgroup has more differential semes and is more diversed.

4. The subgroup of phrasal words with the definition 'X extinguishes Y'

This subgroup is relatively small (only about 30 units) and phrasal or prefixed verbs usually mean the extinguishing of fire or any burning or hot phenomena. After this kind of phrasal or prefixed verbs usually go such words as: fire, flame light, candle, cigarette.

The following examples form this subgroup: *He beat the flames (with a stick) → He beat out ('extinguished by beating') the flames (with a stick).* It should be pointed out that this word possesses its differential seme 'by beating'.

> *He blew at the candle → He blew out ('extinguish by blowing') the candle.*
>
> *snuff → snuff out (the candle),*
>
> *puff → puff out (a candle),*

These three examples possess one common seme, which distinguishes them from other verbs of this group, however these three verbs are synonymic comparing with each other and can be used in the same context. Their Lithuanian equivalent is: *užpūsti* 'pučiant panaikinti', *Jis užpūtė žvakę (DLKŽ).* all these verbs have their common seme 'by blowing'.

The following examples are synonymic as well and thus do not need to be analysed separately.

He smashed the cup (* the cigarette) → He smashed out the cigarette (*the cup),

crush → crush out (a cigarette),

stab → stab out (a cigarette),

jam → jam out (a cigarette),

rub → rub out (a cigarette),

All the above given examples mean extinguish of fire and in particular a cigarette and have their common seme 'by smashing it'.

The following three synonymic examples differ from the earlier mentioned ones because they have the seme 'by tramping with your feet': stamp → *stamp out* (the fire),

tread → tread out (the flames), etc.

trample → trample out (the fire),

Their Lithuanian equivalent is: užtrypti 'trypiant užgesinti', *Užtrypti žarijas (DLKŽ).*

And the last couple of verbs, which are usually used speaking about lights and thus differ from the rest are: *switch → switch out* (the lights),

click → click out (the lights),

And their Lithuanian equivalents are:

užgesinti 'nustoti degti, šviesti', *Židiny plakas silpna liepsnelė, bet tuojau vėjas ją užgesins (H. Nagys).*

išjungti 'užgesinti', *Tėvas išjungė šviesą (DLKŽ).*

It is worth mentioning that in Lithuanian language there is one more verb, which possesses one more seme, which is absent in English language:

užtroškinti 'užslopinti neduodant oro', *Užmetėme ant ugnies paklodę ir užtroškinome gaisro židinį (DLKŽ).*

We may notice from the above given definition that the word *užtroškinti* has its differential seme 'by not giving air'. This word is used speaking about fire and not lights since only fire needs air in order to burn.

Now we may conclude the investigation of this subgroup by providing readers with the table, which will clear the things out.

	by beating	by blowing	by tramping	by smashing	by not giving air	lights
beat out	+	-	-	-	-	-
blow out	-	+	-	-	-	-
snuff out	-	+	-	-	-	-
puff out	-	+	-	-	-	-
užpūsti	-	+	-	-	-	-
smash out	-	-	-	+	-	-
crush out	-	-	-	+	-	-
stab out	-	-	-	+	-	-
jam out	-	-	-	+	-	-
rub out	-	-	-	+	-	-
stamp out	-	-	+	-	-	-
trample out	-	-	+	-	-	-
tread out	-	-	+	-	-	-
užtrypti	-	-	+	-	-	-
switch out	-	-	-	-	-	+
click out	-	-	-	-	-	+
užgesinti	-	-	-	-	-	+
išjungti	-	-	-	-	-	+
užtroškinti	-	-	-	-	+	-

As it can be noticed from the table this subgroup is exceptional since here are more English examples when Lithuanian ones. This English subgroup is more developed and possesses more differential semes.

5. The subgroup of phrasal verbs with the definition 'X obliterates Y'

About 30 units belong to this lexical subgroup of phrasal verbs. These verbs mean the action after which sharp, bright and easily seen colours or inscriptions fade out and become unseen or unable to read as can be seen from the following examples:

He painted the wall → He painted out ('obliterated by painting') spots on the wall.

pencil → pencil out (a detail in a picture),

Here is the differential seme 'by painting'.

Its Lithuanian equivalents with the same seme 'by painting' are: *spalvinti → užspalvinti (ženklus),*

tušuoti → užtušuoti (užrašą),

dažyti → uždažyti (dėmes),

teplioti → užteplioti (užrašą),

Just it should be mentioned that the last Lithuanian example has some negative connotational / evaluative meaning. It says that something was obliterated by painting on but the action was done in bad taste and absently.

He scribbled a few words → He scribbled out the words ('obliterated by writing on'). Here can be noticed one more seme 'by writing on'. And its Lithuanian equivalent is:

keverzoti → užkeverzoti (raides), It also possesses some negative connotational meaning, says that something was written upside-down and it is impossible to read it.

One more exceptional seme 'by scrubbing' can be noticed from the following examples:

brush → brush out (the spots),

score → score out (a name),

scratch → scratch out (a name),

	by painting	by writing	by scrubbing	negative evaluation
paint out	+	-	-	-
pencil out	+	-	-	-
užspalvinti	+	-	-	-
užtušuoti	+	-	-	-
uždažyti	+	-	-	-
užteplioti	+	-	-	+
scribble out	-	+	-	-
užkeverzoti	-	+	-	+

brush out	-	-	-	-
score out	-	-	+	-
scratch out	-	-	+	-

Thus the table shows that only Lithuanian units of this group may have connotational / evaluative meaning apart of its denotative meaning. This group combines only with inanimate things (spots, colors, writings, etc.), which go in the sentence as objects and the subject is always animate, alive being.

6.The subgroup of phrasal verbs with the definition 'X removes Y'

This subgroup is very diverse. Although all the units possess the same integral seme 'to remove', each of them has some additional / differential semes, which explain the manner of removing as will be seen from the following examples. These additional semes are so numerous that there is no point even to group them somehow into the table since every word of this subgroup has its own differential seme:

bleach (linen) → bleach out (stains, colour) 'to remove by whitening with a chemical substance (bleach)'. As we see from the definition here the differential seme is 'with a chemical substance'.

boil → boil out spots 'to remove by boiling'. Its additional seme is 'by boiling'.

rub (something) → rub out 'to remove by rubbing, as with a piece of rubber'. - 'by rubbing'.

soak (something) → soak out (the dirt) 'to remove by soaking'. - 'by soaking'.

soap (something) → soap out (stains) 'to remove with soap'. - 'with a soap'.

wash (something) → wash out (spots) 'to remove by washing' . - 'by washing', etc.

The same thing happens with Lithuanian subgroup. Every word possesses its own differential seme, as we will see from the following Lithuanian examples:

braukti → išbraukti (žodį) 'panaikinti braukiant'. - 'The differential seme here is: braukiant'.

valyti → nuvalyti (formulę) 'panaikinti valant'. - 'valant'.

grandyti → nugrandyti (dažus) 'panaikinti grandant'. - 'grandant'.

gremžti → nugremžti (purvą) 'panaikinti gremžiant'. - 'gremžiant.

krapštyti → nukrapštyti (apnašas) 'panaikinti krapštant'. - 'krapštant'.

dilinti → išdilinti (užrašą) 'panaikinti dilinant'. - dilinant'.

trinti → nutrinti (purvą) 'panaikinti trinant'. - 'trinant'.

tirpdyti → ištirpdyti (druską) 'panaikinti tirpdant', Aplinkui krūmuose ir slėniuose saulė tirpdė paskutinį sniegą (P. Mašiotas). - 'tirpdant'.

kirpti → iškirpti (paveiksliuką) 'panaikinti kerpant'. - 'kerpant'.

It can be noticed from the above given examples that this lexical group of phrasal verbs means destruction - removal of an object (the dirt, spots, etc.). All the examples differ from each other in the manner something is being removed: 'by cleaning', 'by scrubbing', 'by melting', etc.

The analysis of about 500 units, which combine into the lexico-semantic group of destruction, was carried out applying componential analysis and the information provided by dictionary entries. An attempt has been made to divide this lexico-semantic group into subgroups. The seme 'to destroy' common to all verbs of this lexico-semantic group and helps to distinguish the verbs in the lexico-semantic group from other verbs in English. This seme was also relevant in connecting the related sememes into this lexico-semantic group. The aim of the analysis was to find both similarities and differences between verb meanings and thus to characterise the meanings of verbs of this lexico-semantic group.

The componential analysis applied shows that a number of verbs from different lexical groups contain the same semes due to which these lexical groups intersect and form a semantic continuum. The componential analysis of verbs of lexico-semantic group of destruction shows that the major differences between sememes denoting destruction are semes showing the manner of destruction ('quickly', 'slowly', 'cruelly', 'violently', 'in big quantities', 'one particular', 'with a knife, fire or hammer', etc.).

It is worth mentioning that a lot of metonymic, metaphoric and idiomatic verbs form this lexico-semantic group, which are used in the transferred meaning, contain various stylistic semes in their componential structure due to which they can be ascribed to the periphery of the lexico-semantic group.

Verbs with the meaning of destruction can combine with either animate or inanimate nouns, some verbs of this lexico-semantic group can combine with both of the referred types of objects, however, there are a lot of verbs combinability of which is restricted. E.g. *uždažyti* may be used only with inanimate things, *užbakinti* only with animate things and *užtroškinti* can be used with both (*užtroškinti žmogų, užtroškinti ugnį*). In the position of the subject verbs with the meaning of destruction may require alive beings or inanimate things as well (*medis užblokavo kelią, erelis užkapojo vištą*)

Having examined syntagmatic features of the verbs of the lexico-semantic group of destruction the conclusion can be drawn that about half of verbs require alive beings in the position of the subject and another half require inanimate things. The same thing happens with the object: about half of them describe the destruction of an alive being (object) and another half - an inanimate thing. Consequently, the conclusion can be drawn that verbs combined into the lexico-semantic group of destruction are interrelated both syntagmatically and paradigmatically.

As it has been already indicated, each lexico-semantic group consists of the centre and periphery. From the stylistic point of view, the centre of lexico-semantic group, first of all, includes stylistically neutral elements used in their direct (denotative) meaning in typical contexts: *Bomb up (a bridge), close up (the hole).*

Periphery, conversely, is filled with uncommon units: individual words or words used in the figurative meaning, such as metonymies *dig → dig up (flower gardens)* and metaphors *chew up (paper), string up (criminal).*
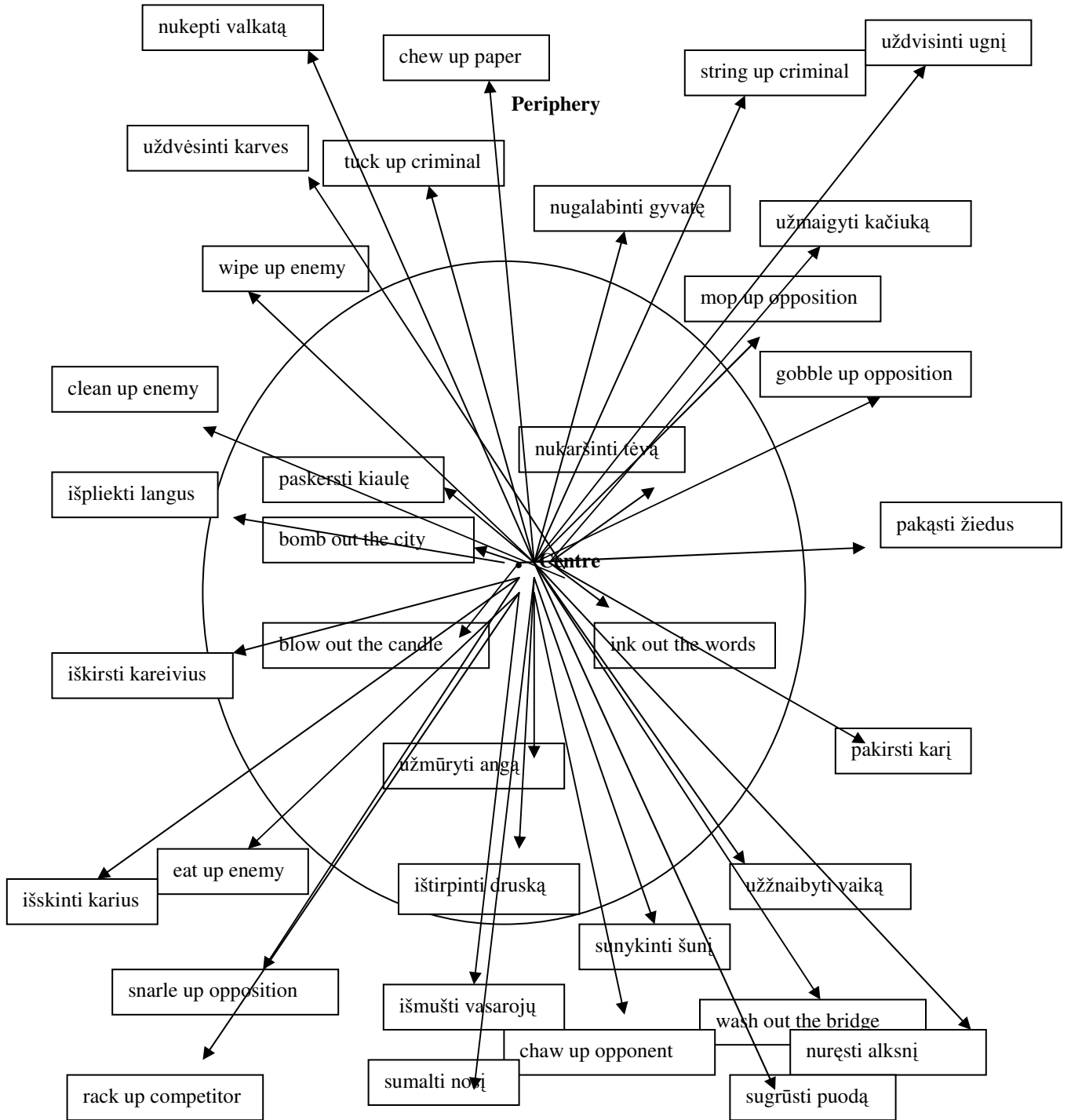
In distinguishing centre and periphery the attention should be paid to the stylistic neutrality of words. If in the word estimation, stylistic dependence is expressed, such lexical unit is attributed to the lexico-semantic group periphery.

Central or peripheral position of the meaning is closely linked with its expressiveness, i.e. in comparison with the central units peripheral units are always more expressive and bear bizarreness that effects our imagination. The expressiveness of peripheral meanings is determined by the richness of the meaning and peripheral position itself. The expressiveness of meaning depends upon the richness of semes: additional semes arose more associations and images in our mind (Gudavičius 1983, 294).

Thus, peripheral meanings are more expressive because they are unusual, attract our intention and act upon our imagination arousing positive or negative emotional reactions.

Having examined centre and periphery of lexico-semantic group of destruction of verbs it is possible to observe that in the centre there is a very insignificant number of verbs, i.e. verbs stylistically neutral, used in the primary meaning in typical contexts such as: *burn up (crops), smash up (car), crush up (rocks), užmušti (senelę), sutraiškyti (kirmėlę), etc.* The absolute majority of verbs include stylistic evaluative or intensification semes as well as semes indicating informal or formal register, are idiomatic or used in the transferred meaning: *send up (the oil stores), sukrušti (kiaušinius), nugnybti (paršelį), išgurinti (langą).* Consequently, the conclusion can be drawn that lexico-semantic group of verbs denoting destruction can be qualified as a secondary (peripheral).

Further the scheme of lexico-semantic group of destruction, i.e. its centre and periphery is presented:

nukepti valkatą

chew up paper

uždvisinti ugnį

string up criminal

Periphery

uždvėsinti karves

tuck up criminal

nugalabinti gyvatę

užmaigyti kačiuką

wipe up enemy

mop up opposition

clean up enemy

gobble up opposition

nukaršinti tėvą

paskersti kiaulę

išpliekti langus

bomb out the city

pakąsti žiedus

Centre

blow out the candle

ink out the words

iškirsti kareivius

užmūryti angą

pakirsti karį

eat up enemy

ištirpinti druską

užžnaibyti vaiką

išskinti karius

sunykinti šunį

snarle up opposition

išmušti vasarojų

wash out the bridge

chaw up opponent

nuręsti alksnį

rack up competitor

sumalti novį

sugrūsti puodą

It is also worth mentioning that looking from the point of quantity English and Lithuanian lexico-semantic groups of destruction are not equal. From more than five hundred units, which were found during the investigation of this lexico-semantic group only 180 were English ones and the rest ones Lithuanian. The below given diagram shows how it would look like in percentages:

The comparison of Lithuanian and English lexico-semantic group of destruction

- 36% English
- 64% Lithuanian
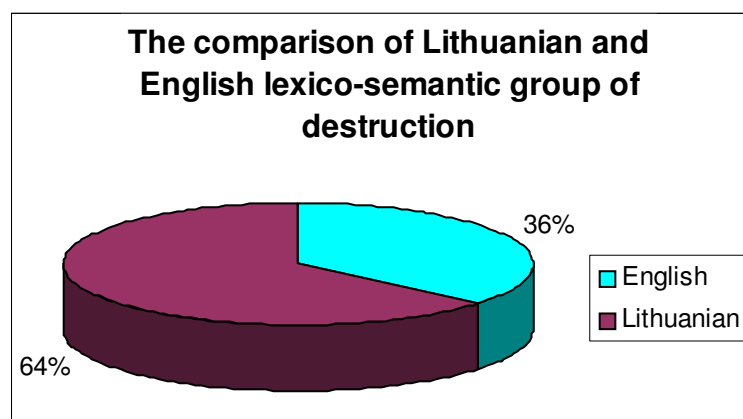
Besides there are more English verbs, which combine with inanimate things, whereas more Lithuanian verbs denote the destruction of animate or alive beings.

The subsequent chapter will describe the relations of lexico-semantic group of destruction with other lexico-semantic groups what shows that the group is not isolated and is a part of language or interrelates with other parts of language.

3.3. SYSTEMIC RELATIONS OF THE LEXICO-SEMANTIC GROUP OF DESTRUCTION WITH OTHER LEXICO-SEMANTIC GROUPS

As it has been already mentioned in the previous paragraphs language consists of lexico-semantic groups, which are not isolated from each other. As within the same lexico-semantic group various lexical groups interrelate with each other according to common semes in their componential structure or according to their similar syntagmatic relations and thus form the semantic continuum. Various investigations show that the same interrelation can be seen when examining relations between various lexico-semantic groups. In this section this phenomenon is discussed more thoroughly and in a broader context.

Language consists of semantic fields, which are further subdivided into subsystem - lexico-semantic groups, which actually have no strict boundaries. Lexico-semantic system should not be conceived like a mosaic set up from isolated lexico-semantic groups but as a whole, which coincide

with each other partly and where one lexico-semantic group can intersect with other. The intersection is based on similar componential structure of the members of several lexico-semantic groups, the same syntactical valency, etc. And the same rule is applicable to all: synonymic groups, lexical groups, lexico-semantic groups and semantic fields. This phenomenon can be explained by the structure of lexico-semantic group - its centre and periphery. The farther sememe stands from the centre to the periphery the more specific features (additional features, which are absent in the componential structure of central sememes) it possesses. Therefore such peripheral sememes may enter other lexico-semantic groups since they possess semes common to several lexico-semantic groups.

In this way the semantic continuum of lexico-semantic groups is formed, which depends on:

1. The structure of the sememe.

2. The semantic structure of a word. (Gudavičius 1994, 33)

Further these factors are discussed more thoroughly on the basis of the lexico-semantic group of destruction and its systemic ties with other lexico-semantic groups.

1. As it has been already mentioned a lot of (usually peripheral) sememes from different lexico-semantic groups possess the same seme and thus become members of several lexico-semantic groups at once. Thus lexico-semantic groups make a continuum. As we have been investigating the lexico-semantic group of destruction, it is necessary to show the continuum of this lexico-semantic group with other groups.

The lexico-semantic group of destruction is interconnected with the lexico-semantic group of change of state and creation. They form the semantic continuum which can be illustrated in the following way: *smash up the table* (destruction) - *scratch up the table* (change of state) - *fix up the table* (creation).

Wash out (spots); boil out (spots); rub out (ink); soak out (the dirt) - these phrasal verbs at the same time depend not only to the lexico-semantic group of destruction but also to the lexico-semantic group of cleaning since the remove of spots or dirt at the same time implicates the meaning of cleaning of the object from which the spots or dirt was removed.

More systemic ties between lexico-semantic groups there usually occur because of polysemy of a word. The meanings of a polysemantic word form a certain hierarchy: the main meaning is the semantic centre, while the periphery is constituted by secondary meanings. Peripheral sememes, i.e. sememes used in figurative meaning, often belong to different lexico-semantic groups. For instance, the verb *mess up* in its direct meaning 'to make something dirty or

untidy' is attached to the lexico-semantic group of phrasal verbs denoting change of state. Used in the figurative meaning 'to spoil (arrangements, etc.) carelessly' this unit becomes a member of the lexico-semantic group of destruction.

Relations between separate lexico-semantic groups can be manifested in the following ways: 1) lexico-semantic group includes figurative meanings from other lexico-semantic groups - centripetal activity. 2) figurative meanings of lexico-semantic group become the members of other lexico-semantic group - centrifugal activity.

The lexico-semantic group of destruction is characteristic of the centripetal type of relations, i.e. the major part of the meanings in this lexico-semantic group are figurative meanings of the words that belong to other lexico-semantic groups. The lexico-semantic group of destruction includes figurative meanings from the lexico-semantic groups such as:

1) Lexico-semantic group of distribution: *box up (bottles)* 'to put into boxes' (distribution) → *box up (a doorway)* 'to close with boards of wood' (destruction);

2) Lexico-semantic group of cleaning: *wipe up (a liquid)* 'to remove from a surface using a cloth' (cleaning) → *wipe up (an enemy force)* 'to destroy';

3) Lexico-semantic group of change of state *muck up (the floor)* 'to make dirty' (change of state) → *muck up (chances)* 'to spoil' (destruction), etc.

2. Polysemy of the word is another source of systemic ties between lexico-semantic groups. The meanings of the polysemantic word constituting its semantic structure are characterized by a certain hierarchy of meanings: the semantic centre of the main meaning and a wider or narrower periphery of secondary meanings. Since peripheral sememes are used in figurative meanings or contain connotative semes in their componential structure, they also belong to different lexico-semantic groups. E.g.: *string up (Christmas lights)* has the meaning 'to fasten in a high position' and does not depend to the group of destruction. However when it is used in its figurative meaning *string up (criminal)* has the meaning 'to kill by tying a rope around the neck making somebody hang from it' and now this word already belongs to the group of destruction.

The investigation of the systemic relations of the lexico-semantic group of destruction enables us to assert that this group intersects with other lexico-semantic groups such as: **lexico-semantic group of distribution, lexico-semantic group of cleaning, lexico-semantic group of change of state,** etc.

Below the systemic relations of lexico-semantic group of destruction are presented:

LSG of change of state

LSG of distribution

LSG of DESTRUCTION

LSG of cleaning
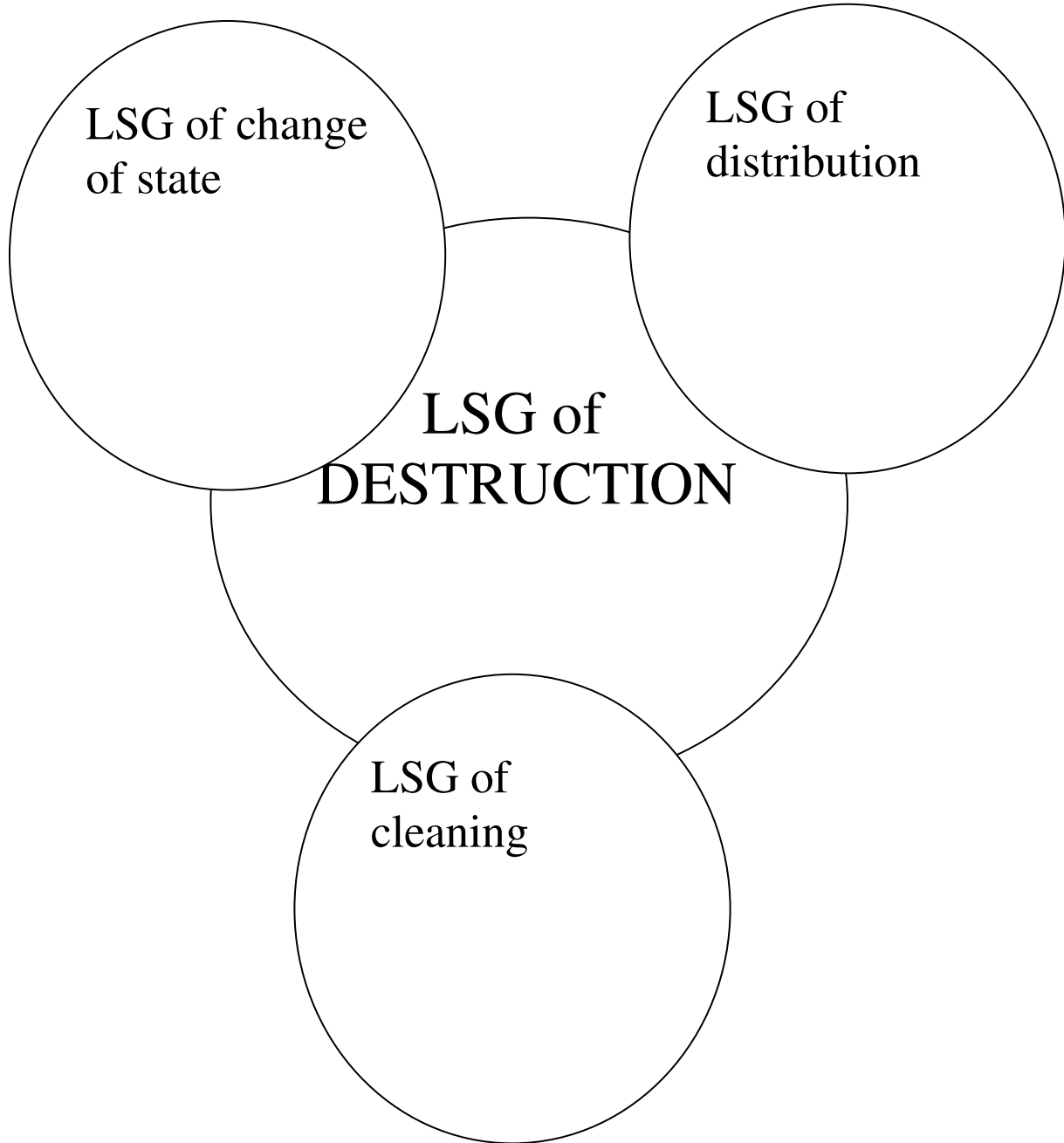
Conclusions

The purpose of this work was to investigate what phrasal verbs comprise the English lexico-semantic group of destruction and to compare these verbs with their equivalents in the Lithuanian language.

As it was indicated in the work phrasal verbs are composed of base verbs and postverbs, which in the present paper were treated as derivational formants. The method of opposition helped to prove it by opposing base verbs from which the derivational units are derived with their derivatives. The investigation also showed that English postverbs correspond Lithuanian and other Indo-European prefixes.

Lexico-semantic group of destruction has been formed according to paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations. The analysis of syntagmatic relations is the main way to reveal the componential structure of the sememe. Paradigmatic relations are the relations between elements in language as a system. Their basis is a certain similarity, the coincidence of certain features. In other words paradigmatic relations are non-linear relations between sememes interrelated according to the integral feature and opposed according to the differential features in one paradigm. Paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations of sememes form the structural meaning of sememes, which is the basis for grouping sememes into lexico-semantic group.

In order to indicate systemic relations between sememes, we have applied the method of componential analysis (division of sememe into semes). Here we used a relative definition formula 'X destroys Y', which is a formalised way of reflecting semantic or structural similarity of sememes and which is acquired by comparing definitions of the sememes under analysis.

The comparison of definitions also pointed out that apart from the integral seme 'to destroy smth / smb' common to all verbs of lexico-semantic group of destruction sememes possess a lot of other semes. Moreover, the research has showed that some semes are common to a group of verbs and thus according to it sememes were grouped into smaller lexical subgroups. However, in the process of investigation a lot of semes have been pointed out, which are found in the meaning of only one or two verbs.

Besides, as the pie diagram from the previous chapter showed, Lithuanian lexico-semantic group of destruction is nearly twice bigger than the English one. We can assert that we have distinguished more semes in the meanings of the Lithuanian verbs than in the meanings of the

English verbs. Thus it brings us to the conclusion that the componential structure of sememes in the Lithuanian language is more complicated than in the English language.

Furthermore, we have distinguished centre and periphery in lexico-semantic group of destruction. Stylistically neutral units with the denotative content used in the primary meaning comprise the centre of the lexico-semantic group of destruction. The periphery is composed of unusual, individual words or words used in the figurative meaning (metaphors, metonymies and idioms). The investigation also showed that there are far more words that can be ascribed to the periphery of the lexico-semantic group of destruction in both English and Lithuanian languages than to the centre. Moreover, in the periphery of the analysed lexico-semantic group of the Lithuanian language there are considerably more words than in the periphery of the English language.

Besides, in the work we showed that lexico-semantic groups are not isolated and intersect with each other. The results have shown that lexico-semantic group of destruction is not an isolated system and thus it has no strict boundaries with such lexico-semantic groups as: lexico-semantic group of distribution, lexico-semantic group of cleaning, lexico-semantic group of change of state. Thus, from the standpoint of structural linguistics lexis of the language is regarded as the sum total of relations among its elements - sememe.

Thus, to sum up, the comparison of Lithuanian and English lexico-semantic group of destruction showed that Lithuanian language is richer because there are considerably more sememes with the meaning of destruction.

Santrauka

Darbo tikslas buvo palyginti anglų bei lietuvių kalbų leksinę-semantinę sunaikinimo grupę. Tam tikslui įgyvendinti buvo iškelti tokie uždaviniai:

1. Surinkti visus angliškuosius bei lietuviškuosius veiksmažodius, reiškiančius sunaikinimą.

2. Sugrupuoti juos į smulkesnius pogrupius, remiantis žodžio semine struktūra.

3. Palyginti anglų bei lietuvių kalbų veiksmažodžius ir atrasti panašumus bei skirtumus.

Darbe laikomasi požiūrio, kad fraziniai veiksmažodžiai yra žodžių darybos vienetai, kurių derivacijos formantas yra postverbas. Frazinių veiksmažodžių atitikmenys lietuvių kalboje yra priešdėliniai veiksmažodžiai.

Darbe tyrinėjami fraziniai ir priešdėliniai veiksmažodžiai buvo sugrupuoti į leksinę-semantinę sunaikinimo grupę remiantis žodžio sintagminiais bei paradigminiais ryšiais, kurie jungia žodžius į leksinę-semantinę grupę pagal bendrą semą ir tuo pat metu supriešina vieną su kitu pagal jų individualias diferencines semas.

Tyrimas parodė, kad be visiems žodžiams bendros sunaikinimo semos, daugelis jų turi ir kitokių semų, be to kai kurios semos dažnai kartojasi, todėl jų pagrindu žodžiai buvo grupuojami į smulkesnius pogrupius. Darbe pastebėta ir retų semų, kurios pasitaikė tik viename ar keliuose žodžiuose.

Ankstesniame skyriuje pavaizduota skritulinė diagrama parodo, jog lietuvių kalbos leksinė-semantinė sunaikinimo grupė yra vos ne du kartus platesnė už angliškąją. Tyrimai rodo, kad lietuvių kalbos veiksmažodžiai turi daugiau papildomų semų nei angliškieji, tad galima daryti išvadą, kad lietuvių kalbos leksinė-semantinė sunaikinimo grupė yra daug sudėtingesnė nei anglų kalbos.

Darbe buvo nustatyti leksinės-semantinės sunaikinimo grupės centras ir periferija. Centrui priklauso neutralūs, tiesiogine reikšme vartojami žodžiai, o periferijai - ekspresyvi leksika, vartojama perkeltinėmis reikšmėmis.

Pastebėjome, kad leksinė-semantinė sunaikinimo grupė nėra uždaras kalbos vienetas, bet kertasi su kitomis leksinėmis-semantinėmis grupėmis.

Viską ištyrinėjus paaiškėjo, kad lietuvių kalbos leksinė-semantinė sunaikinimo grupė yra daug platesnė ir turtingesnė semomis nei angliškoji.

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