IRYNA HOROKHOVA
TETIANA NESTERENKO
NATALIIA DOBROVOLSKA
ANNA OCHKOVSKA
IRYNA TRUTSUNENKO

COMPARATIVE STUDY OF LANGUAGE STRUCTURE AND GRAMMATICAL UNIVERSALS

1. INTRODUCTION

As a language of international communication, English is one of the most widely spoken languages in the world and the second most widely spoken language in the world after Chinese, with approximately 400 million speakers, which is two and a half times more than the number of people who speak other Germanic languages. Most of the world's scientific literature is published in English (Lawrence 2020). Modern trends in social development in Europe contribute to the growing role of German among the world's top ten languages. German is the mother tongue of more than one hundred million people (Germans, Austrians, residents of Liechtenstein, a large part of Switzerland, the Northern Provinces of Italy, and several small territories of Belgium and Luxembourg). The Germans can be proud that the first printed book was the Bible by Johannes Gutenberg, a German printer.

English and German belong to the Proto-Indo-European language. Both languages belong to the West Germanic branch of the language family. English and its ancestral language, Old English, belong to the Anglo-Frisian group, while German belongs to the Proto-Germanic group. German is divided into High and Low German. While High German is the official language of Germany, Low German is seen as a dialect still spoken in the northern part of Germany. Both are important to the history of the language because they gave rise to the languages still spoken today. This affinity is confirmed by the presence of a large number of similar lexemes and at the level of grammatical structures. Old English was once heavily influenced by the Old Norse (Old Scandinavian) language. Later, with the invasion of the Normans, Old French was introduced to Britain. The basis of the English language remained Germanic, but it contains many French, Latin, Celtic and Scandinavian borrowings. German is based on the dialects of the ancient Germanic tribes. Old French did not influence this language, but, like English, it contains many Latin loanwords. English is an analytical language, meaning that

DACOROMANIA, serie nouă, vol. XXX, an 2025, nr. 2, Cluj-Napoca, p. 186–197
DOI 10.33993/dr.2025.2.186.197

grammatical meanings are expressed through word order, prepositions, and auxiliary verbs. This makes English grammar much simpler and less dependent on morphology. German is a synthetic language, with the relationship between words expressed through four cases and conjugation. Significant differences exist between the tenses used in English to convey special meaning and those in German. Christian Ludwig's 1706 Dictionary of English, German and French and his 1716 German-English Dictionary were the first bilingual dictionaries published in response to the growing interest of Germans in learning English (McLelland 2024).

The article aims to compare the linguistic structure and grammatical features of two languages of the Germanic family, English and German, to identify and describe the linguistic universals of these languages. To achieve this goal, the following specific tasks were set:

– to conduct a critical review of the literature that addresses related or related issues in the comparative analysis of Germanic languages;

– to compare the linguistic structure of German and English as languages of the West Germanic branch;

– to describe the grammatical features of German and English through the prism of comparative analysis;

– to identify linguistic universals in German and English.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

The analysis of scientific sources confirms that the issue of evolutionary changes in the grammar and lexical structure of English and German is a topical scientific issue. The issue of genetic and lexical and grammatical features of languages was studied by Bickerton (2016). Biber *et al*. (2020) conducted a holistic analysis of the grammatical features of English in the diachronic development from Old English to Modern English. According to scientists, grammatical changes in English are not a simple linear development; it is a dynamic process influenced by internal linguistic factors and external social pressures (Biber *et al*. 2020). Shan (2021) studied the evolution of grammatical categories during the three main periods of English development (Old English, Middle English, and New English). Special attention is devoted to this scientist's work in studying the role of modal verbs in English.

Hermon (2009), Good (2008), and Haspelmath (2018) studied the issue of linguistic universals in the context of linguistic typology, focusing on the categories of gender, number, and tense of verbs. Good (2008) has studied the influence of linguistic universals on grammatical modifications, particularly the problem of grammatical category reduction, as the simplification of grammatical inflections in English is an example of a broader trend observed in many languages towards analytical structures. The issue of language contacts and borrowings, including among Romance and Germanic languages, was studied by Gardani (2022).

Zwart (2005) and Culicover, Jackendoff (2006) studied the syntax of English in its diachronic development and at different synchronic sections. Schelletter (2000) studied the peculiarities of the structure of negation constructions in English and German in the linguistic environment of bilingualism. The author pays special attention to the expressive syntax of German. The syntactic order of German sentences has undergone significant changes from the more flexible word order in Old High German to the more rigid subject-verb-object order in Modern German. Kortmann (2020) made a typological comparison of German and English using the methodology of contrastive linguistics.

A typological and comparative analysis of the grammatical features of English and German was carried out by Hawkins (2019), Berg (2014), and Brinton (2000), who concluded that although English and German share a common Germanic origin, their morphosyntactic structures have evolved significantly differently, with German retaining a more complex verb system.

Lohse *et al*. (2004) studied the peculiarities of building syntactic constructions in English, and Weyerts *et al*. (2002) studied this issue based on German. Misersky *et al*. (2019) and Braun *et al*. (2005) studied the grammatical category of gender in German in a typological comparison with English. While English has primarily abandoned grammatical gender, German retains a rich system where gender differences heavily influence article and adjective forms.

Despite a considerable number of scientific articles and monographs on the typology of Germanic languages, the least studied issue, in our opinion, is the issue of lexical borrowings, especially at the present stage of language development, because this process is ongoing, so our research attention will focus on the lexical interactions between English and German at the present stage of their development. At the grammatical level of languages, the issue of conformity of verb tenses in these languages remains the least studied, so these two aspects will be the main ones in our further research.

3. RESEARCH METHODS

The empirical material for the research was the lexical structure and grammatical constructions of the English and German languages. The research topic required a comprehensive approach, so the following research methods were applied:

– the method of critical analysis, the method of synthesis and analysis to describe the concepts of “linguistic universality”, “grammatical structure”, “analytical language”, “synthetic language”;

– diachronic and synchronic methods (to study the ways of evolutionary changes in the development of grammatical structures of English and German);

– structural method (for studying the grammatical structure of the compared languages, paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations between different levels of language);

– genetic method (for studying the common origin of languages and the nature of linguistic universals);

– the method of generalization (for formulating theoretical conclusions of the study on the distinctive features and typological similarities in the grammatical structures of English and German).

4. RESULTS

There are many cognates in German and English at the lexical level: *Garten – garden*, *Familie – family*, *helfen – help.* However, in some cases, this similarity in pronunciation and spelling is deceptive; for example, the German *Gift* is not a "gift" as in English, but a "poison or deadly poison". Some words, especially the vocabulary of in-laws, are almost entirely the same in both languages, and some words are very close in sound (Table 1).

Table 1

Examples of identical and similar vocabulary in English and German

Examples of identical vocabulary		*Examples of similar vocabulary*	
English language	*German language*	*English language*	*German language*
Arm	Arm	Milk	Milch
Hand	Hand	Brother	Bruder
House	Haus	Sister	Schwester
Fish	Fisch	Family	Familie
Glass	Glas	Uncle	Onkel
Sun	Sonne	Aunt	Tante
Wind	Wind	Nephew	Neffe
Gold	Gold	Niece	Nichte
Sand	Sand	Table	Tabelle

Source: compiled by the author

However, not all the vocabulary of the kinship sphere has similar roots in the lexicon; some words are completely different in English and German. For example, *grandson – Enkel*, *granddaughter – Enkelin*, *father-in-law – Schwiegervater*, *mother-in-law – Schwiegermutter*, *twins – Zwillinge*, *daughter-in-law – Schwiegertochter*, *son-in-law – Schwiegersohn*, *orphan – Waise.*

English words are so common in spoken German that in the realities of Germany, such a concept as "denglish" (Denglish is a combination of Deutsch "German" and English "English") has emerged. A distinction should be made between anglicisms and denglish. Anglicisms are words borrowed from English, most often nouns and substantive verbs (e-mail, messenger, laptop, workshop), often neutral in stylistic colouring. Denglish is a hybrid of German and English, including so-called pseudo-anglicisms. One of the most apparent examples of denglish is the English word *download*, which in denglish takes the form "Ich habe das downgeloaded" or "Ich habe das gedownloaded".

Lexical borrowings from English became especially active in German in the late twentieth and early twenty-first centuries, particularly in professions. They exclude the possibility of additional, connotative meanings and also have a concise form with informative content, which, in turn, meets the requirements of saving linguistic effort and the law of concentrating information in a minimum number of terminological units. On one of the largest specialised *job* search sites *jobboerse.arbeit sagentur.de*, English job titles are more or less represented in each of the search categories, and in such industries as IT, DV, Computer, job titles consist almost entirely of English variants that can be classified as follows:

– direct borrowings (both the form and the meaning coincide with English as a source of borrowing), for example: *Property Manager*, *Sales Manager*, *Financial Analyst*, *Quality Assurance Manager*, *Office Coordinator*, *Executive Assistant to CEO*, *Customer Service Agent*, *Service Solution Specialist – Agriculture*, *IT Consultant MS Exchange*, *IT Solution Designer*;

– hybrid borrowings (German has adopted only the first or last component): *Projektmanager Anlagen bau*, *Junior Java-Entwickler/in*, *IT Support Mitarbeiter/in*, *IT-Servicetechni ker/in*, *Softwareentwickler/in*, *Fullstack-Entwickler/in*, *IT-Security Specialist*.

Nowadays, it has become more common for many Anglo-American job titles to be adopted into the recipient language without any transformation. However, in order to prevent the excessive and incorrect use of English loanwords, the Gesellschaft für deutsche Sprache (Society for the German Language) and the Verein Deutsche Sprache (Society for the German Language) were established in Germany to classify English-American loanwords and suggest substitutions for them with native German words and to promote the purity of the German language. As a result of their activities, some sites offer German equivalents to Anglicisms and Americanisms in the profession, for example: *customer adviser – Kundenberater/in*; *content manager – Planer*, *Gestalter von (Web-) Inhalten*; *administrative officer – Verwaltungsbeamte/-r*; *account manager – Kundenbetreuer/in*; *information technologist – Informatiker/in*; *insurance broker – Versicherungsmakler/in*; *sales manager – Vertriebsleiter/in*; *real estate broker – Immobillienmakler/in.*

German has also influenced English as a result of language contact. The massive borrowing of German words into English began in the second half of the eighteenth century (*Delicatessen – delicacies*, *Doppelgänger – ghost double*, *Ersatz – surrogate*, *Schadenfreude – gloating*, *Privatdozent – private docent*, *Dachshund – dachshund*). The era of Germany's military and political dominance on the world stage began in the 1930s and 1940s. The XXth century caused a new wave of Germanisms in English, most of which became internationalisms. Most are perceived today as historicisms, for example: *Führer* (*fuhrer*, *leader*), *Gauleiter* (*gauleiter*, *governor of a region*), *Sturmmann* (*corporal*), *Wehrmacht* (*German armed forces of the Second World War*), *Bunker* (*bomb shelter*), *SS-man* (*SS man*), *Hitlerite* (*Hitlerite*), *Blitzkrieg* (*lightning war*), and others. At the present stage of language development, this influence is insignificant.

By identifying similarities and differences between languages, typology emphasizes their semantic uniformity. In any case, it is undeniable that all languages are characterized by universals, i.e. universal properties that reflect the so-called universals of human thinking, or Lingua Mentalis ("language of thought"). Considering temporal parameters, linguistic universals can be actualized as synchronous and diachronic, and according to how they are revealed as deductive or inductive, as well as extralinguistic and linguistic ones. In addition, linguistic universals can be subdivided into universals of language and speech. It should be remembered that universals are manifested at all language levels. The grammatically expressed meanings of time, space (the latter tends to be more weighty in lexical and syntactic ways of its linguistic actualization), type, modality and state form the most essential system-forming categories in the form of a particular functional unity, the cementing force of which is the temporal meaning, which is always present as an obligatory component in any of the mentioned grammatical categories, regardless of the specific linguistic realization.

German is an inflectional language, which means that most parts of speech change according to their function in a sentence. The word remains unchanged in English, which is the primary grammatical difference between the languages under comparison, as it is an analytical language.

In English, there are three articles: *a*, *an* (indefinite) and *the* (definite), while in German, there are five articles: 3 definite (*der/die/das*) and 2 indefinite (*ein/eine*). Specific rules determine their use. There are four cases in German: Nominative, Genitive, Dative, Accusative/Akkusativ. The English language lost its cases during the formation of Middle English (late 11th – late 15th centuries), and this function of cases in English is taken over by prepositions (see Table 2).

Table 2

Correspondence of German cases to certain prepositions in English

Case of the German language	*Compliance in English*	*Example sentence in German*	*Example sentence in English*
Genitive case	It is conveyed by the preposition *of*	Der Beginn des Jahres war warm	The start of the year was warm
Dative case	Corresponds to the prepositions *to*, *for*	Ich schreibe meiner Mutter einen Brief	I'm writing a letter to my mum
		Ich habe diesem Bruder eine Uhr gekauft	
		Ich habe diese Uhr für meinen Bruder gekauft	I bought this watch for my brother

Source: own development of the authors

Some grammatical constructions can be expressed in German both with the help of the case (*Ich habe diesem Bruder eine Uhr gekauft*) and with the preposition *(Ich habe diese Uhr für meinen Bruder gekauft*). In German, some verbs (*helfen*, *danken*, *antworten*) and some fixed expressions (*zu Hause*, *im Garten*, *zum Geburtstag*) require the dative case. The dative case is also used with the verbs of motion such *as gehen*, *fahren*, *laufen*, and in expressions with the pronoun *mit*, which indicates that the action is shared with someone.

At the syntactic level, German has three-word order functions that do not exist in English:

1. The main verb should be the second element in the sentence. This often requires inversion of the subject and verb. For example: *Manchmal komme ich mit dem Bus in die Schule. – Sometimes I come to school by bus.*

2. The main verb should be the last element in the subordinate clause. For example: *Sie fragte me, weil ich zuviel Coffee getrunken habe. – I feel bad because I drank too much coffee.*

3. The past participle should be the last element in the sentence. For example: *Ich habe ihn nicht gesehen. – I have not seen him.*

Significant differences exist between the tenses used in English to convey special meaning and those in German. For example, there is no long tense in German. Another example of a mismatch is the present simple tense in German in contexts where English use the future tense with the auxiliary verb will. Another problem for Germans is choosing the correct tense when talking about the past. When discussing past events, spoken German uses the present perfect tense, e.g. *Sie hat an der Universität Literatur studiert* (*She studied literature at the university*). Using the same grammatical tense in English leads to an error: *She has studied Literature at the university.* Unlike English, German has a more decadent conjugation system (by person, number and tense). Both English and German have regular and irregular verbs. For example, the verb *sein* in German changes to *bin*, *bist*, *ist*, *sind*, or *seid* depending on the person.

The general lexical and grammatical meaning of a verb in English can be successfully used to analyse the meanings of both simple and complex lexical and grammatical structures in English, which will help you understand the internal language processes and peculiarities of foreign language speech and thinking. The English language has an extensive range of meanings of the verb ***be***: ***to be***, *to exist*, *to live*, *to happen*, *to occur*, *to take place*, *to be in any state*, *to have any quality*, *to* ***be*** *equal*, *to be composed*, *to cost*, and also distinguishes the use of this verb as a linking verb, a service word, a modal verb. In German, the verb *sein* has a somewhat more limited range of meanings. It is used as the infinitive of the verb *to be* to express the existence or state of something or someone and is also used as an auxiliary verb to form compound tenses (most often with verbs of motion).

The general meaning of the existential status of the subject is also preserved when used in lexico-grammatical constructions of the passive voice and Continuous.

Based on this provision, in English, the passive voice denotes the existence of the subject (object of action) in the state of action. At the same time, there is no need to name the producer of the action; it fades into the background and can be presented after the base of the sentence in the position of complement. The meaning of existence is conveyed by the verb be in the corresponding form, and the Past Participle expresses the state of being subject to action.

One of the most complicated structural formulas in English is the Perfect Continuous, which is a predicate with the meaning of the fact of a lasting action (active state) at a particular moment of speech. This is the youngest category in the history of the English language. As the name implies, it arose by superimposing the meanings of Perfect (the fact of the action being performed at the time of speech) on Continuous (the existence of a possible long-lasting action). In other words, the Perfect Continuous is used when the speaker wants to communicate that he (or another subject) has been in a state of continuous action for a certain period, and the emphasis is not on the result but on the fact of being in a state of active action for some time.

The meaning of Present Continuous existence in the state of active action allows for the logical use of the compound predicate in the following cases. When it is necessary to indicate that a particular state of affairs is understood as temporary ("People are giving more money to charity these days"); when referring to events that occur frequently and cause irritation or surprise to the speaker (He is always shouting at me).

5. DISCUSSION

The problem of the existence of universal grammatical principles for all languages remains a controversial issue in modern literary studies. Some scholars believe that languages are so diverse that common principles are impossible. Not all languages have the category of gender or the traditional division of speech into parts of speech (Corbett 1991); for example, Chinese has a significant difference in this regard. In English and German, the category of gender is different, so these languages confirm Corbett's position that grammatical gender breaks down into two main aspects: semantic, related to gender and animate, and structural, i.e. as an inflectional classifier (in the organization of types of noun classification). That is, gender is not a purely morphological or purely semantic category but combines both.

The notion of linguistic universals has given rise to the concept of "universal grammar", which faces problems in its application to linguistically diverse languages, as many languages lack features that are considered universal (Chomsky 2020). Another controversial issue is the definition of the boundaries between language types and language universals. Therefore, the researchers Evans, Levinson (2009) ask a pretty logical question: „Typological universals, such as

word order or case system, may reveal linguistic trends, but do they reflect fundamental grammatical categories common to all languages?" (Evans, Levinson, 2009, p. 67). Determining grammatical principles by different types of language structures also requires further discussion. Since languages are divided into synthetic and analytical, we cannot speak of uniform approaches to analysing the grammatical structure of these languages.

We agree with most scholars who note that universal grammatical structures are also subject to change. Most often, changes affect the verb as a part of speech. According to Haspelmath (2020), linguistic universals are not fixed but evolve, with languages showing both convergent and divergent paths in their grammatical development. The morphosyntactic structures of languages do not overlap straightforwardly; the same goes for their phonological and semantic systems. Even with simple verbs such as "to eat", one can see the contrast in the context of the use of this word between English and German. The German *essen*, like the English *eat*, cannot be used for animals (for example, when a horse eats an apple, the verb *fressen* should be used in German).

We agree with the position of Thomason (2001) and Croft (2003) that the most striking example in the modern world is the spread of English outside of traditionally English-speaking countries, as millions of non-English speakers come into contact with English through radio, television, Hollywood films, popular music (Thomason 2001, p. 2). In other words, socio-cultural interaction facilitates lexical borrowing, mainly from English. However, when it comes to borrowing grammatical structures, the process is much more complicated: grammatical interference is limited to features that are typologically consistent with the structure of the recipient language (Thomason 2001, p. 63).

6. CONCLUSION

The study found that during the second half of the twentieth and early twenty-first centuries, the English language had a significant impact on the lexical composition of the German language, in particular, causing the emergence of such a concept as "denglish". A German study of the names of professions showed that lexical borrowing occurred in two ways: direct borrowing (complete preservation of the meaning and form of the word), and hybrid borrowing, when only one component of a complex word was borrowed. However, the struggle of German NGOs and the state itself for the purity of the language has influenced the search for German equivalents, which are actively promoted through the media for active use. German has also influenced English to some extent through language contacts. The massive borrowing of German words into English began in the second half of the 18th century and peaked in the 1930s and 1940s for well-known historical reasons. Most of these Germanisms later became internationalisms, and some are perceived by English speakers today as historicisms.

The grammatical differences between the two languages include the differences between the tenses used in English to convey special meaning and the same tenses in German. For example, there is no long tense in German. Another example of a mismatch is using the present simple tense in German in contexts where English uses the future tense. Unlike German, English has extensive meanings for the verb *to be* and uses it as a linking, service or modal word. The general meaning of the subject's existential status is retained even when used in lexico-grammatical constructions of the passive voice and the Continuous. Based on this position, in English, the passive voice denotes the existence of the subject (object of action) in the state of action.

At the syntactic level, German has three-word order functions in the sentence that do not exist in English: the main verb must be the second element in the sentence, which often requires the inversion of the subject and verb; the main verb must be the last element in the subordinate clause; the past participle must be the last element in the sentence. Thus, the linguistic study of the universals and peculiarities of English and German gives grounds for the statement that there is both convergence and divergence of these languages, and the study of these phenomena requires further research, taking into account systemic factors of influence, in particular in the field of sociolinguistics and sociology of language.

BIBLIOGRAPHICAL ABBREVIATIONS

Berg 2014 = T. Berg, *Boundary permeability: A parameter for linguistic typology*, in "Linguistic Typology", 18, nr. 3, 2014, p. 489–531.

Biber *et al*. 2020 = D. Biber, B. Gray, S. Staples, J. Egbert, *Investigating Grammatical Complexity in L2 English Writing Research: Linguistic Description versus Predictive Measurement*, in "Journal of English for Academic Purposes", nr. 46 (1), 100869.

Bickerton 2016 = D. Bickerton, *Roots of language*, John Benjamins Publishing Company, 2016.

Braun *et al*. 2005 = F. Braun, S. Sczesny, D. Stahlberg, *Cognitive effects of masculine generics in German: An overview of empirical findings*, in "Communications", 30, nr. 1, 2005, p. 1–21.

Brinton 2000 = Brinton, L. J. (2000). *The structure of modern English: A linguistic introduction*, John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Chomsky 2020 = N. Chomsky, *The Architecture of Language*, Oxford, Oxford University Press, 2020.

Corbett 1991 = G. Corbett, *Gender*, Cambridge, Cambridge University Press, 1991.

Croft 2003 = W. Croft, *Typology and Universals*, Cambridge, Cambridge University Press, 2003.

Culicover, Jackendoff 2006 = P. W. Culicover, R. Jackendoff, *The simpler syntax hypothesis*, in "Trends in cognitive sciences", 10, nr. 9, 2006, p. 413–418.

Evans, Levinson 2009 = N. Evans, S. C. Levinson, *The myth of language universals: Language diversity and its importance for cognitive science*, in "Behavioural and Brain Sciences", 32, nr. 5, 2009, p. 429–492.

Gardani 2022 = F. Gardani, *Contact and borrowing*, in A. Ledgeway, M. Maiden (eds.), *The Cambridge handbook of Romance linguistics*, Cambridge, Cambridge University Press, 2022, p. 845–869.

Good 2008 = J. Good (ed.), *Linguistic Universals and Language Change*, Oxford, Oxford Academic, 2008.

Haspelmath 2020 = M. Haspelmath, *The structural uniqueness of languages and the value of comparison for language description*, in "Asian Languages and Linguistics", 1, nr. 2, 2020, p. 346–366.

Hawkins 2019 = J. A. Hawkins, *Word-external properties in a typology of Modern English: a comparison with German*, in "English Language and Linguistics", 23, nr. 3, 2019, p. 701–727.

Hermon 2009 = G. Hermon, *Language typology and universal grammar: A commentary on the paper by Eric Potsdam*, in "Natural Language & Linguistic Theory", 27, nr. 4, 2009, p. 773–787.

Kortmann 2020 = B. Kortmann, *Contrastive Linguistics: English and German*, in *English Linguistics*: Essentials, [2nd revised], J. B. Metzler, Stuttgart, 2020, p. 113–142.

Lawrence 2020 = L. Lawrence, *The discursive construction of "native" and "non-native" speaker English teacher identities in Japan: A linguistic ethnographic investigation*, in "International Journal of Society, Culture & Language", 8, nr. 1, 2020, p. 111–125.

Lohse *et al*. 2004 = B. Lohse, J. A. Hawkins, T. Wasow, *Domain minimisation in English verb-particle constructions*, in "Language", 80, nr. 2, 2004, p. 238–261.

McLelland 2024 = N. McLelland, *Christian Ludwig (1660–1728) and the beginnings of German/English lexicography*, Oxford German Studies, 2024, p. 1–25.

Misersky *et al*. 2019 = Yu. Misersky, A. Majid, T. M. Snijders, *Grammatical Gender in German Influences How Role-Nouns Are Interpreted: Evidence from ERPs*, in "Discourse Processes", 56, nr. 8, 2019, p. 643–654.

Schelletter 2000 = C. Schelletter, *Negation as a Crosslinguistic Structure in a German-English Bilingual Child*, in Susanne Doepke *Cross-Linguistic Structures in Simultaneous Bilingualism*, John Benjamins Publishing Company, 2000, p. 105–121.

Shan 2021 = Y. Shan, *Analysis of a Grammatical Category in English – Modal Verbs*, in "Open Journal of Social Sciences", 9, 2021, p. 271–278.

Thomason 2001 = S. G. Thomason, *Language Contact: An Introduction*, Edinburgh, Edinburgh University Press, 2001.

Weyerts *et al*. 2002 = H. Weyerts, M. Penke, T. F. Münte *et al*., *Word Order in Sentence Processing: An Experimental Study of Verb Placement in German*, in "Journal of Psycholinguistic Research", 31, 2002, p. 211–268.

Zwart 2005 = J.-W. Zwart, *A comparative approach to syntactic change in the history of English*, in "English Language and Linguistics", 9 (01), 2005, p. 157–179.

COMPARATIVE STUDY OF LANGUAGE STRUCTURE AND GRAMMATICAL UNIVERSALS
(*Abstract*)

The article's authors set out to compare the linguistic structure and grammatical features of two languages of the Germanic family – English and German – to identify and describe the linguistic universals of these languages. The article provides a critical review of the literature, which touches upon related or consonant problems of comparative analysis of Germanic languages, conducts a comparative analysis of the linguistic structure of German and English as languages of the West Germanic branch, describes the grammatical features of German and English through the prism of comparative analysis, and identifies linguistic universals in German and English. The article uses various methods: synthesis and analysis, diachronic and synchronic methods, and comparative,

structural, genetic and generalisation methods. The study's novelty lies in the research of lexical interactions between English and German at the present stage of their development, as this process is continuous and requires constant scientific analysis.

Cuvinte-cheie: *nivel lingvistic*, *grup lingvistic germanic*, *engleză*, *germană*, *anglicism*, *germanism*, *ramura vest-germanică a limbilor*, *limbă*, *cultură și societate: sociolingvistică și identitate lingvistică.*

Keywords: *language level*, *Germanic language group*, *English*, *German*, *Anglicism*, *Germanism, West Germanic branch of languages*, *language*, *culture and society: sociolinguistics and linguistic identity.*

Iryna Horokhova
Dragomanov Ukrainian State University
9, Pyrogova Str., Kyiv Ukraine, 01601
karporyna@ukr.net

Tetiana Nesterenko
Volodymyr Vynnychenko Central
Ukrainian State University
1, Shevchenka Str., Kropyvnytskyi, Ukraine, 25000
tetiananesterenko1207@gmail.com

Nataliia Dobrovolska
Odesa Polytechnic National University
8A, Shevchenka Ave., Odesa, Ukraine, 65000
natusikdob@ukr.net

Anna Ochkovska
Zhytomyr Ivan Franko State University
40, Velyka Berdychivska Str., Zhytomyr,
Ukraine, 10001
ochkovska.anna@gmail.com

Iryna Trutsunenko
National Technical University of Ukraine
Igor Sikorsky Kyiv Politechnic Institute
37, Beresteiskyi Ave., Kyiv, Ukraine, 02000
iratru@ukr.net