PATTERNS OF COMPOUNDING IN ENGLISH AND LITHUANIAN: STRUCTURE AND SEMANTICS

MA Paper

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I declare that this study is my own and does not contain any unacknowledged work from any source.

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to find out the patterns of derivation of English and Lithuanian compounds and to analyse structural features and semantic relations within the compounds.

14 compositional patterns of compound nouns and 14 compositional patterns of compound adjectives in the English and Lithuanian languages were subjected to the analysis in order to illustrate the similarities and differences between the comparable languages. The comparative, analytic and descriptive methods were applied in the study. From the structural point of view, the research revealed that only three patterns of compound nouns coincide in the comparable languages. It also demonstrated that the English and Lithuanian patterns coincide when the two comparable compounds belong to different parts of speech (the same pattern can be applied to English compound nouns and to Lithuanian compound adjectives). Furthermore, one word or complex phrases in Lithuanian can substitute for the English compounds. The findings of the analysis also disclosed that Lithuanian compounds are mostly merged with the vowel –a–, while no constituents of English compounds, that were taken from the two novels “Saturday” by Ian McEwan and its translation into Lithuanian “Šeštadienis”, are joined with any linking element. The most frequent semantic relations in English and Lithuanian compounds are purpose and instrumental. Purpose relations are expressed by the preposition ‘for’ in English, while in Lithuanian the pronoun ‘kuris (kuri)’ or the adjective ‘skirtas (skirta)’ can convey purpose. Instrumental relations are expressed with the help of the prepositions ‘with’ and ‘su’ in English and Lithuanian.
INTRODUCTION

Compounding in the English and Lithuanian languages has been studied for many years. Various studies and investigations have been made and are still in the process of development in this field of lexicology. The scholars such as Jackson (2005), Katamba (2006), Brinton (2010), Jakaitienė (2005), Ambrazas (2005), Urbutis (2009) are especially focused on this area, and each of them has made a huge contribution to the studies of compounds. Brinton views compound as “the combination of two or more free roots” (Brinton, 2010, 103). Jackson and Zé Amvela regard compounds as “stems consisting of more than one root” (Jackson & Zé Amvela, 2005, 79). Plag considers compound as “the combination of two words to form a new word” (Plag, 2003, 133). Indeed, the significant impact on the development of theories of compounds was Williams’s ‘Right-Hand Head Rule’ (Katamba & Stonham, 2006, 324). It was a relevant step made in order to explain the nature of compounds in English. This rule revealed how compounds are composed, and how this rule could help to recognize to what part of speech a compound belongs. In this rule Williams also introduced the key term – right-hand member. The appearance of this rule testifies the fact that compounds are really complex words, having the kernel part – the right member. However, in Lithuanian none of the mentioned scientists has still ascertained why Lithuanian compounds do not possess similar compositional features those of English compounds. Nevertheless, Ambrazas (2005) and Jakaitienė (2005) proposed a large number of compositional patterns separately for compound nouns and for compound adjectives. The patterns clarify the peculiarities of Lithuanian compounds and make them distinct in structure and meaning (semantics) from compounds of other languages.

The research question that is to be answered in the present paper is the following: in what ways structural and semantic features of English and Lithuanian compounds are different or similar?

The significance of the research is verified by the fact that this research provides the investigation and comparison of structural and semantic features of English and Lithuanian compounds which was not compared before. Therefore, it will be very useful to explore and find out in what ways the English and Lithuanian languages differ from the perspective of word-building (compounding). This study, especially the practical part, will be the most important data for the students who will further be doing researches in this area as well as for those students who are interested in word-building in both languages, and also for the students of Lithuanian Philology who might be carrying out researches on compounds in
Lithuanian for their term papers or MA papers. In addition, this research will also provide possible implications for further investigations in which more different methods or instruments can be used and applied in the studies of compounds in English and Lithuanian.

In order to find out in what ways English and Lithuanian compounds are different, it was necessary to clearly formulate the purpose of the research which aimed not to find out the matches or mismatches of translation but find out the patterns of derivation and semantic features of compounds in English and Lithuanian.

To serve this purpose, the following objectives of the research were set:

1. to describe the general characteristics of compounding;
2. to describe and analyse structural and semantic features of English and Lithuanian compounds;
3. to find differences and similarities of structural and semantic features of English and Lithuanian compounds;
4. to compare and analyse the structure of the compositional patterns and semantic aspects of English and Lithuanian compounds.

The research methods used in the study were: the descriptive and analytic methods were employed for observation and analysis of compounds. The comparative method was used as a means to compare and contrast the structure and semantic features of English and Lithuanian compound nouns and compound adjectives.

The scope of the research

Due to a limited scope of the present paper, the two main aspects were selected for analysis, namely the structural and the semantic classifications of compounds. The number chosen for the raw data which were compound nouns and compound adjectives was random samples of 83 compounds. The two novels “Saturday” by Ian McEwan and its translation into Lithuanian “Šeštadienis” (the translator – Mėta Žukaitė) were chosen as the source for obtaining the data. The number of samples of compound nouns was in total – 45 and 38 of compound adjectives. The samples of compound nouns and compound adjectives were selected randomly according to the structural patterns, i.e. collection of compounds was based on the division into the compositional patterns. Compound nouns were divided into 14 compositional patterns, while compound adjectives were divided into 14 compositional patterns.
1. ON THE CONCEPT OF COMPOUND

1.1 Compounding as the process of concatenative morphology

According to Jackson and Zé Amvela, compounds are “stems consisting of more than one root” (Jackson & Zé Amvela, 2005, 79).

Arnold (1986, 112) claims that the orthography is equally relevant as the spoken representation of the language. The orthographic form differs in various dictionaries as well as among various or the same writers. Thus, English compounds can be written in three possible ways. They can be open or spaced where a space intervenes between the constituents of the compound, e.g. diving board, toy store. Compounds can be hyphenated (the hyphen separates the constituents of the compound, e.g. air-brake, he-pony (Zapata, 2007, 4). Hyphens can also serve in order to opt out lexemes that might appear quite longish. In this way constituent parts are clearly observed as well (e.g. peace-loving nations, old-fashioned ideas) (Arnold, 1986, 113). Compounds can also be hyphenated if they include affixes or particles as in house-builder, mother-of-pearl. Finally, compounds can be solid or closed in which two components function as one unit, e.g. washroom, pickpocket. Solid compounds mostly contain monosyllabic lexical items that already exist in the language, e.g. lawsuit, wallpaper (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/English_compound). By contrast, all the Lithuanian compounds are only closed.

The stress is thought to be very important in compounds. Compound adjectives, as a rule, have a double stress as in e.g. 'gray-'green, 'easy-'going (Arnold, 1986, 113). In addition, the stress helps to separate the complex words that have the same second components (e.g. 'dining table and 'writing table). In this case such stress serves to contrast and distinguish the complex lexeme from those that are alike (e.g. 'passenger train, ex'press train) (Arnold, 1986, 113). The phonological stress is crucial in differentiating the meaning of compounds (e.g. “'overwork – extra work, 'over 'work – hard work injuring one’ s health”) (Arnold, 1986, 113).

Ambrazas (2005, 150) states that in Lithuanian compounds the second constituent member (in Lithuanian “sandas”) is the most important element. Nouns as second components are the feature of most compound nouns, however, verbs are less frequent appearing as second constituent members of the compound. All the rest parts of speech are very rare in such a case (e.g. pusšimtis: pusė + šimtas; juodbėris: juodai + bėras) (Keinys, 1999, 69). When the second member is the noun or the adjective, the first one normally marks or narrows the meaning of the second one (e.g. baltmargis: baltai margas; apskritaveidis:
The other important feature of Lithuanian compound is stress shift. Compounds of metaphorical meaning are often stressed in the syllable which stands before the last syllable of the word (“tvirtagalė priegaidė”) or can be stressed in a short syllable. In such a case “tvirtapradė priegaidė (accent)” of the second component of the word changes (e.g. bendraam žis, -ė but ūmžius; savamokslis, -ė but mokslas) (Keinys, 1999, 73). Furthermore, the stress can also shift frequently from the first syllable to the syllable which stands next to it in compound words consisting of several syllables (e.g. vasárvietė but vásara; apýnkartė but apynys, įpynį) (Keinys, 1999, 74).

1.2 The result of compounding

The distinct feature of compounds is their headedness. The majority of English compounds possess a head. The head occurs as the “right-hand-most component” in the compound. The category of the whole compound is marked by the head (i.e. noun, adjective, etc.), e.g. wind(n) + screen(n) = n; blue(adj) + black(adj) = adj (Katamba & Stonham, 2006, 324). The data that have already been described are based on Williams’s Right-Hand Head Rule which says that morphologically “the head of a complex word is the right-hand member of that particular word” (Katamba & Stonham, 2006, 324). It is important to notice that the ending governs the compound as an entire unit as there are two processes involved: composition + affixation (e.g. airports).

Basically, if the head takes irregular endings like mice, men as in field mice, firemen, then any single inflectional affix does not appear, as a result, the ending belongs to the non-head component (Katamba & Stonham, 2006, 326).

The head of compounds also indicates some other grammatical categories, e.g. if the head of the compound is a countable noun, accordingly, the compound itself must be a countable noun; if the head has masculine gender, the compound is also of masculine gender (e.g. head waiter) (Plag, 2003, 135).

English compounds possess other important characteristics as well. In the 2010 study by Brinton (2010), the term “external mobility” was introduced to support the statement
that compounds can be treated from grammatical and semantic point of views (Brinton, 2010, 103). Therefore, compound can shift as the entire unit in the sentence. In the sentence compounds are treated as separate lexical items, and they function as a particular part of speech. For instance, such compound as cross-examination does shift as a separate lexical item (The lawyer conducted the cross-examination. The cross-examination was conducted by the lawyer.) (Brinton, 2010, 103).

In addition, compounds are indivisible units, it means that compound can not add other lexical item (lexeme, affix or particle) or word-group between its constituents (e.g. in the case of sunbeam, the two separate components sun and beam are considered as morphemes, therefore, there is no possibility for the occurrence of other words.) (Arnold, 1986, 108).

In Lithuanian composition frequently the suffix serves as a modifier of the meaning. Compounds of masculine gender are formed with the suffixes like –is or –ys, feminine gender – with –ė or –a as in the examples: kailiadirbys, lovatiesė (Keinys, 1999, 73). In compounds in which the second constituent is verbal, gender mostly depends on the named object, e.g. words that name tools or instruments often belong to masculine gender and have the suffix –is (e.g. kamščiatraukis, veidrodės), the names of different machines belong to feminine gender and have the suffix –ė (e.g. mėsmalė, šienpjovė) (Keinys, 1999, 73). Some of the compounds which describe persons have the suffix –a and have dual gender (e.g. akiplėša, daugnora) (Keinys, 1999, 73). However, there are very few compounds in which the suffix of the second constituent remains unchanged.

In Lithuanian, compounds are isolated from so-called in Lithuanian ‘grown/knitted together (suaugtiniai)’ words. Barauskaitė (1985, 44) regards these specific words as two (or sometimes more) elements of a word phrase which grow into the one. Usually, the first component remains unchanged or it can merely change, while the second constituent loses its suffix (e.g. anuo metu → anuomet, kitą kartą → kitańį). Thus, it is not a true composition because two stems are not combined according to the particular established principles in the language but the elements of the phrase grow into one separate word (Barauskaitė, 1985, 44).

The pattern ‘cutting + composition’ is also separated from compounds. Compounds of this pattern are of two types:

1. the beginning of the first word and the whole second constituent in the following examples: komjaunimas: kom[unistinis] + jaunimas; profsąjunga: prof[esinė] + sąjunga (Barauskaitė, 1985, 44);

In shortenings bases are not combined together but instead convenient beginnings of words are combined, and suffixes are preserved. Shortenings also do not belong to the system of composition (Barauskaitė, 1985, 44).

1.3 Historical development of compounds

Compounds have been used in all periods of the English language. This type of word-building is especially evident in Germanic languages. Compounds of the pattern the noun + the noun come back to Old English (e.g. ME manslaughter → OE mannslaht as well as ME headache, rainbow, etc.) (Arnold, 1966, 131).

In the course of the English language development, the English grammarian J.C. Nesfield introduced the term disguised compounds, but the term itself appears to be ambiguous. The other important term in historical development of English compounds is demotivation. Arnold (1986, 132) views demotivation as a phenomenon when the word loses connection with other lexemes, becomes no longer understandable and eventually it gives up existing.

The following instances illustrate how demotivation becomes complete, and how disguised compounds remain incomplete. Such compound as breakfast has no longer the same meaning and phonetic pattern but the orthographic form clearly indicates its etymological background and indentifies that it is a compound. This compound was derived from the verb break ‘interrupt’ and the noun fast ‘going without food’. It was pronounced as ['breɪkfaːst], while now as ['brekfəst]. The vowels have been modified, therefore, the compound becomes disguised. The former meaning of the word is out of use: now breakfast means ‘the first meal of the day’ (Arnold, 1986, 133).

In the 7th decade of the 20th century, an unusual compositional pattern appeared in the English language. This pattern had influence on word-building and on the development of vocabulary (e.g. the compounds like camp-in, teach-in, etc.) (Arnold, 1986, 133). Compounds of such composition are related to the 60s, naming various mass meetings of disaffection (Arnold, 1986, 133). The meaning of newly-coined compounds highlighted the societal discontent.
In addition, there were more invented compounds for similar occasions. For instance, the compounds *lie-in, die-in* were used for mass meetings to cease the traffic (Arnold, 1986, 133). The reason of the use of the compound *teach-in* was to criticise and debate political affairs (Arnold, 1986, 133).

Lithuanian compounds go back to the 16-19th centuries which begin with a first written Lithuanian book by M. Mažvydas. A great number of newly-invented words were proposed by Lithuanian writers and some words have been preserved and used nowadays. Some of them went out of use and only remained in the writings of one or several Lithuanian writers. Today these words show the historical development of word-building.

In the writings of K. Sirvydas a large number of compounds can be observed: *kurpdirkis* – cobbler (now: *batsiuvys* – shoemaker), *teisėdarys* – law-maker (now: *teisėjas* – judge), *vaikavedys* – the one who guides a child (pedagogas – pedagogue), etc. (Barauskaitė et al, 1995, 42). An illustrious writer I. Šeinius used quite interesting compounds in his writings such as *sostapilis* (the castle of the crown) – *sostinė* (capital), *vaizdkraštis* (a picturesque land) – *gamtovaizdis* (landscape) (Barauskaitė et al, 1995, 42).


In the end of the 7th decade and in the beginning of the 8th decade of the 20th century, two types of new words were made up: systematic and stylistic. They were formed when it was the need to name a certain thing or object. Systematic words are defined as those that are of a typical word-building. In the 70s there were found such compounds as *benzovežis* – a vehicle carrying petrol, *gamtosauga* – conservation, *riedlentė* – skateboard, *sulčiaspaudė* – juicer (Barauskaitė et al, 1995, 43). The other type of newly-composed words is stylistic words. Stylistic words can be found in literature, pottery and prose. An outstanding Lithuanian poet S. Nėris coined the following compounds: *baltaskariai, linažiedis, ugniažiedė.* (Barauskaitė et al, 1995, 44).
2. STRUCTURAL CLASSIFICATION OF COMPOUNDS

2.1 According to the parts of speech

2.1.1 Compound nouns

Provided that the elements of the compound coincide as the same part of speech (i.e. the noun + the noun), accordingly, the result of composition corresponds to the same part of speech (Jackson & Zé Amvela, 2005, 82). It is said that compound nouns comprise the largest group of all compounds in the English language. Most of the compound nouns are “right-headed” (Plag, 2003, 145). Thus, Quirk et al (1995, 1570) distinguishes the following patterns of compound nouns in English:

1. **the noun + the verb.** Compounds are extremely productive (e.g. *nightfall, sound change*). The second constituent of the compound is viewed as a noun which is actually the result of conversion as it is formed from the respective verb, as in *property damage*: damage(v) → damage(n); *haircut*: cut(v) → cut(n) (Szymanek, 1989, 46).

2. **The verb + the noun.** Such type of compound nouns is not highly productive, e.g. *flashlight, tugboat*.

3. **The verbal noun in –ing + the noun.** These compounds are very productive (e.g. *flying machine, wading bird*). In such compounds “the syntactic paraphrase obscures the purpose relationship” (e.g. the gum is *for* someone to chew as in *chewing gum*) (Quirk et al, 1995, 1572).

4. **The noun + the deverbal noun.** These compound nouns are modestly productive. The first element *self* is typical in such compounds. These compounds can convey an activity, e.g. *handshake*, the result of an action as in *book review*, and some can be of both cases, e.g. *book review* (Quirk et al, 1995, 1571).

5. **The noun + the verbal noun in –ing.** These compounds are highly productive. In compounds the number is weakened. Abstract compounds belong to this type and usually refer to particular activities performed by human beings (e.g. *dressmaking, letter-writing*) (Quirk et al, 1980, 1022).

6. **The noun + the agential noun in –er.** Compounds of this type are prolific, e.g. *language teacher, songwriter*. It marks concrete, frequently human beings. The number can also be weakened (e.g. *cigar smoker* but *somebody smokes cigars*) (Quirk et al, 1980, 1022).

7. **The verbal noun in –ing + the adverbial (consisting of a prepositional phrase).** These compound nouns are very productive. In such compounds some adverbial relations prevail:
place, e.g. diving board, drinking cup; instrumental, e.g. baking powder, sewing machine (Quirk et al, 1995, 1572).

8. **The adverbial + the abstract verbal noun in –ing.** Such compounds are not very prolific. Adverbial relations also exist here: place, e.g. churchgoing, horse riding; instrumental, e.g. fly-fishing, handwriting; time, e.g. sleepwalking; other, e.g. shadow-boxing (Quirk et al, 1980, 1023).

9. **The adverbial + the agential noun in –er.** Compounds are modestly productive. The possible adverbial relations are the following: place, e.g. sun-bather, teatre-goer; time, e.g. daydreamer (Quirk et al, 1995, 1573). In such compounds, forms in –er serve as second constituents and function as simple forms (in the whole compound). The noun of the second base is derived form the respective verb, i.e. “verb base + derivation” (Jackson & Zë Amvela, 2005, 82).

10. **The adverbial + the deverbal noun.** Such compound nouns are not very prolific. Compounds reveal adverbial relations such as: place, e.g. table talk, moon walk; instrumental, e.g. knife fight; time, e.g. night flight; other, e.g. telephone call (Quirk et al, 1995, 1573). As can be seen from these examples, the majority of them are countable compounds.

11. **The verb + the adverbial.** The following adverbial relations dominate in these compounds such as: place, e.g. dance hall, workbench; instrumental, e.g. grindstone. In such cases the purpose relationship is obscure as in the following: swimming pool, search light, cf. “The pool is for somebody to swim in; The light is for somebody to search with” (Quirk et al, 1995, 1573).

12. **The noun + the noun.** The construction can be transformed into a simpler one: “noun₁ powers/operates noun₂”, e.g. cable car, steam engine. Another possible transformations include “noun₂ produces/yields noun₁”, e.g. honey-bee, power plant; or “noun₁ produces/yields noun₂”, e.g. cane sugar, hay fever. Also, “noun₁ has noun₂”, e.g. piano keys, table leg. Such compounds are highly productive. Usually noun₁ consists of inanimate nouns and in this case the genitive phrase (with –s) is to be used, cf. the table leg and the boy’s leg (Quirk et al, 1995, 1574). The other type is as such: “noun₂ controls/works in connection with noun₁”, e.g. chairperson, police-officer. These compounds are prolific. The second element in these compounds is used to denote, as a rule, a person (Quirk et al, 1995, 1574). Since man has often served as “human adult”, as a result, a weak vowel [mən] occurs in compounds like fireman, businessman. This lexeme and its variant “person” can be regarded as a suffix. On the contrary, the stressed form of man in the compound handyman is not based on an occupational position (Quirk et al, 1995, 1574). The other transformation comprises the
structure: “noun₂ is/like noun₁”, e.g. drummer boy, pine tree, goldfish, catfish (Quirk et al, 1995, 1574). The pattern can also be transformed into the phrase “noun₂ is of/consists of noun₁”, e.g. sand dune, soap flake. Also, it can be transformed into the phrase “noun₂ is for noun₁”. Such compounds are extremely productive and denote purpose, e.g. fish-pond, safety belt (Quirk et al, 1995, 1575).

13. **The adjective + the noun**. “Phrasal prosody” occurs in this type as in fancy dress, ill wind (cf. He suffers from ill health. Here ill does not serve as a premodifier in such “noun-phrase structures”.) (Quirk et al, 1995, 1575). The pattern can be changed into the following phrase: “noun is adjective”, e.g. madman, blueprint (Quirk et al, 1980, 1025).

14. **The verb + the adverb (derivation)**. Interestingly, only this group of compounds does not correspond to the general rules of English. These compounds contain two bases that belong to the distinct parts of speech. Thus, such words as blast-off, drive-in are viewed as nouns (Jackson & Zé Amvela, 2005, 83). Such compounds also contain phrasal verbs. These compounds usually belong to the informal style and can occur in the press, e.g. There was a break-out from the local prison. Many of the problems were caused by a breakdown in communications (http://www.xtec.cat/~ogodoy/sac/wordbuilding/compounds.htm).

15. **The particle + the verb**. In these compounds the second constituent can be treated as the result of “verb-to-noun conversion”, e.g. backset (to set back but not to back set), income (to come in but not to income). Phrases, whole sentences can be included and treated as the prehead in such compounds, e.g. a never-to-be-forgotten occasion, an introduction-to-linguistics handbook (Szymanek, 1989, 47).

The following patterns are distinguished in Lithuanian: compound nouns in which

**a) the second constituent is the noun.** Ambrazas and Jakaitienė (2005, 151) made a huge contribution to examination of the patterns of this type of compounds. Compound nouns can be built with:

1. **the noun + the noun**. The meaning of certain components can be abstract like the first element of the compound pus- which usually denotes unauthenticity or lack of fullness of a particular object (e.g. pusbrolis, pusšventė) (Ambrazas, 2005, 152). Compound nouns can be formed of two independent words, i.e. vidurnaktis → vidurys nakties; and also from prepositional constructions (e.g. vidur nakties, tarp durų). Remys (2001, 84) proposed other possible elements that can be combined like kryž-, dien-, vais- (e.g. kryžkelė, dienraštis, vaismedis). Most of compounds of this type acquire the following suffixes: –is is used to denote male objects, while –ė – of feminine gender (e.g. gandralizdis, šunuogė) (Ambrazas, 2005, 154).
2. **The adjective + the noun.** The first (adjective) element denotes a characteristic of the object (e.g. *minkštaprotystė*). Compound nouns which name human beings and the relationship between a lexical meaning and their formation are various (e.g. *dykaduonis* – the one who is unemployed and lazy; *šaltanosiai* – a sort of dumplings) (Ambrazas, 2005, 152).

3. **The numeral + the noun.** The first element of the compound is a cardinal number, or it is an ordinal number. The first element of the compound always modifies the second element (e.g. *trečdalis*) (Ambrazas, 2005, 156). Cardinal numbers are often combined with the nouns that mark time and names of money (e.g. *tūkstantmetis, trigrašis*). Ordinal numbers are often joined with nouns like *dalis* (e.g. *ketvirtadalis*), the names of days (e.g. *pentadienis*) (Ambrazas, 2005, 156).

4. **The verb + the noun** where the Active Participle, the Passive Participle or the verb or its certain form serves as the first element, and the noun – as the second element. Mostly such compounds name individuals who are mocked (in such compounds the second constituent describes a particular part of body, and the first component marks the feature of that part of body (e.g. *nuleistapetis, -ė, išverstagerklis, -ė*) (Ambrazas, 2005, 158). Sometimes the second part of the compound can also indicate clothing or other thing (e.g. *nusmuktikelnis, -ė, pragaištdienis, -ė*) (Ambrazas, 2005, 158).

5. **The adverb + the noun.** Some adverbs normally preserve their form, and it is not changed at all in cases when adverbs serve as first constituents (e.g. *aplinkraštis, pusiauvasaris*) (Ambrazas, 2005, 160).

6. **The pronoun + the noun.** The lexical meaning of these compounds is commonly direct like in the examples: *savimeilė, šiokiadienis*. Compounds, in which lexical meaning carries a figurative meaning, designate names of human beings (e.g. *kitautis, savanoris*) (Ambrazas, 2005, 161).

b) Compound nouns in which the verb functions as the second constituent. In most of such compounds the first component is the noun. The patterns of this group of compound nouns are as follows:

1. **the noun + the verb** where the noun is used to denote the object and the action expressed by the verb (e.g. *aludaris → alų daryti*). The noun can also denote the subject of the action (e.g. *saulėtekis → saulė teka*) (Ambrazas, 2005, 161).

2. **The adjective (or adjectival adverb) + the verb.** In some cases it is unclear whether the first base is derived from the adjective or from the adjectival adverb (e.g. *piktižiugis, šlapdriba*) (Ambrazas, 2005, 164). When the first part of the compound is referred to the adverb, then it characterises the action denoted by the second element (e.g. *aiškiaregys, garsiakalbis*). When
the first component is related to the adjective, it can indicate the feature of a person who is the
doer of the action (e.g. gernora, piktadarys) (Ambrazas, 2005, 164).

3. **The numeral + the verb.** The first component of these compounds can be made up of the
following numerals: vienas, pirmas, etc. Cardinal numbers like du and trys as the first
components of the compound always preserve the same form: dvi– and tri– (Ambrazas, 2005,
165).

4. **The pronoun + the verb.** The first component typically indicates the object of the activity
which is expressed by the second element, and these compounds have an abstract meaning
(e.g. savigyna, savitvarda) (Ambrazas, 2005, 165).

5. **The adverb + the verb.** These compounds signify persons and are close to the names of
objects having verbal characteristics (e.g. daugnora, veltkleidys) (Ambrazas, 2005, 166).

To sum up, English and Lithuanian compound nouns possess both common and
distinct features. Although some of the compositional patterns coincide in both languages, the
features of that patterns clearly differ. The pattern *the noun + the verb* is common for both
languages, however in English the second element results from conversion (from the
respective verb), while in Lithuanian the first element (the noun) denotes the object, the
activity is expressed by the verb (the second component). *The verb + the noun* is another
pattern found both in English and Lithuanian. This pattern is not productive in English,
whereas in Lithuanian it is quite productive. In such Lithuanian compounds the second
component describes a certain part of body or clothing, e.g. nusmuktkelnis. Moreover, the
pattern *the noun + the noun* is the most frequent in both languages. In English this pattern can
be converted into several constructions in which the second element is used to produce
something being as the first element. On the contrary, in Lithuanian the first elements convey
lack of fullness of an object or can also express a negative meaning. Furthermore, English
compound nouns are similar to Lithuanian compounds in a way that compounds of both
languages can express the relations of time and place, e.g. sleepwalking, viktrasa. In addition,
English and Lithuanian compound nouns can be used to convey the outcome of the process,
e.g. kurmiarausis, book review.
2.1.2 Compound adjectives

As for Szymanek (1989, 56), compound adjectives in English frequently can be involved in the structure such as “Determiner – Noun, i.e. they serve as attributes in noun phrases”, and are “distinguished from modifiers in noun-noun compounds” (e.g. flower(n)-
growing competition is a compound noun, while fast(adj)-growing flowers comprises a compound adjective) (Szymanek, 1989, 56). The linguist argues that “the meaning of most compound adjectives is predictable and compositional” rather than it is “the case with compound nouns” (Szymanek, 1989, 57). Quirk et al (1995, 1576) made a huge contribution to the classification of compound adjectives into the following patterns in English:

1. **the noun + -ing participle.** These compounds are quite productive. Self usually serves as a common first component (e.g. record-breaking, self-defeating). In such compounds the noun is considered as the object of the second element (verbal base) (e.g. “a hair-raising experience is an experience that raises one’s hair”) (Plag, 2003, 154). These compounds have the secondary stress. In such compound as mouth-watering one can observe a “causative relation: somebody makes the mouth water” (Quirk et al, 1995, 1576).

2. **The adverbial + -ing participle/-ed participle.** E.g. law-abiding, fist-fighting. Self appears in such compounds where it serves as a first element and is of agential meaning, e.g. self-styled, self-taught (cf. “a self-addressed envelope is the one that is addressed to oneself”) (Quirk et al, 1995, 1577).

3. **The adverb/adjective + -ing participle/-ed participle.** E.g. everlasting, new-laid (Quirk et al, 1995, 1577). Such compound adjectives as well-meant and well-behaved differ with regard to voice. The compounds of these two types possess phrasal stress (Quirk et al, 1995, 1577). This group of compound adjectives is also used to delineate appearance (e.g. curly-haired, tight-fitting) or character of persons (e.g. easy-going, two-faced) (http://www.xtec.cat/~ogodoy/sac/wordbuilding/compounds.htm).

4. **The noun-based adverbial (of respect) + the adjective.** Such compounds are extremely productive, even those that possess “prepositional complementation, e.g. duty-free – free (from), dustproof – proof (against), war-weary – weary (of)”. The phrasal stress appears in such compound adjectives as stereophonic, class-conscious (Quirk et al, 1995, 1578).

5. **The noun (denoting basis of comparison) + the adjective.** These compounds are modestly productive. The construction can be transformed into the phrase: “as adjective as noun” (as blonde as ash, as blue as midnight) or “adjective like noun” (blonde like ash, blue like midnight). Such lexemes can serve as nouns as well. Stress is shifting, while phrasal stress is not shifting (e.g. ash-blonde, midnight blue) (Quirk et al, 1995, 1578).
6. The adjective + the adjective (in a coordinating relation). In such compounds the first constituent can possess the linking vowel –o– (Quirk et al, 1980, 1028). These compounds are also used when they refer to relations between several countries in which equality is overriding, e.g. A Japanese-American trade pact is about to be signed. The first constituent acquires a combining form in such compounds. Furthermore, the compounds that contain the word dictionary are treated as premodifiers. The phrasal stress is put on the first component which can have the thematic vowel (e.g. an English-French dictionary deals with translation from English into French, a French-English dictionary has to do with translation from French into English, however, an Anglo-French dictionary can be created by a collaborative Anglo-French dealership) (Quirk et al, 1995, 1578).

7. The adjective + the noun + -ed. In this type of compound adjectives, elements with the suffix –ed serve as second elements. Such elements determine the entire construction (e.g. in left-handed, left modifies hand and the whole lexeme is marked by –ed).

8. The noun + the adjective. In this pattern the noun functions as a modifier or as an argument of the adjective (the head of the compound). Such compounds as knee-deep, dog-lean include “a comparison: lean as a dog, deep like knee”. The first constituent of these compounds functions as an intensifier, thus, dog-lean, dog-tired can be turned into the phrases like “very lean, very tired” (Plag, 2003, 152). The non-head (the noun) also performs the role of an argument (of the head of a compound). In some constructions the non-head can be preceded by a preposition, e.g. “sugar-free – free of sugar, class-conscious – conscious of class” (Plag, 2003, 152).

9. The noun + -ed participle. The first element modifies the past participle that serves as an adjective (e.g. in university-controlled, the participle controlled is modified by the noun university). In compounds in which adjectives serve as heads and function as past participles, as a rule, the meaning is passive (e.g. controlled by the university). The noun indicates “the agent argument” of the head (Plag, 2003, 153).

10. The verb + the adjective. Bauer (1983, 209) assumes that this particular type is rare, and probably current. It still has not fully being investigated (e.g. fail safe).

11. The adverb + the adjective. Such type of compound adjectives is not frequent, but it is more usually found with second constituents serving as participles (e.g. cross-modal, where cross is treated as an adverb; cf. in over-qualified, over is a particle) (Bauer, 1983, 210).

12. The particle + the noun. In this pattern, word-groups with prepositions being as head-words are converted to modifiers, e.g. before-tax, in depth.

13. The verb + the verb. This type is considered as a fresh one, and might be increasing (e.g. go-go, stop-go) (Bauer, 1983, 211).
14. **The adjective/adverb + the verb.** Concerning these compounds, it appears that the first constituent of the compound is a true adjective, but from the semantic point of view, it serves as an adverb (e.g. *high-rise, quick-change*).

15. **The verb + the particle.** Compounds of this group are numerous. In these compound adjectives word-groups, containing verbs with prepositions, are converted, e.g. *see-through, wrap-around* (Bauer, 1983, 212).

16. **The proper noun + the proper noun.** In this pattern compound adjectives are built with proper names, usually starting with capital letters (e.g. Have you got the *Billy Elliot* tickets?) (http://www.grammar-monster.com/lessons/adjectives_compound_adjectives.htm). Another possible alternative to merge lexemes is the use of quotation marks, italics or either (e.g. <...>, Harry convinced that he had belonged to the ‘Mary Celeste’ crew <...>.) (http://www.grammar-monster.com/lessons/adjectives_compound_adjectives.htm).

Lithuanian compound adjectives are composed in the same way as compound nouns since they are built according to the similar patterns and acquire the similar suffixes. Compounds can attach the suffixes: –as, –a, –us, –i (e.g. *keturgubas, -a, lygiagretus, -i*) (Ambrazas, 2005, 228). Sometimes the suffixes: –as, –a of the second base of the compound remain in order to avoid coincidence of the meaning like in the following instances: *tamsžalas* ‘tamsiai žalas’ is separated from *tamsžalis* ‘tamsiai žalias’ (Ambrazas, 2005, 228). Ambrazas and Jakaitienè (2005, 229) suggest two groups of compound adjectives that can be distinguished according to the composition of bases and their relation: compounds whose second element is a) the nominal, b) the adjective and c) the verb.

a) **The nominal** as a second element:

1. **the adjective + the noun.** This type of compounds contains formation features which distinguish things from others:
   i) to show the part of a thing which is determined by the second component (e.g. *aukštakulniai batai* ‘aukštais kulnais’) (Ambrazas, 2005, 229).
   ii) The first element describes what the second element shows (e.g. *aukštaigiai krepšininkai, geranoriai žmogus* (Ambrazas, 2005, 230).

2. **The noun + the noun.** In these compounds the second element shows the part of a thing which is described by the first element; or the second element shows characteristic which is described by the first element (e.g. *auksaširdis žmogus – aukso širdies, geras*) (Ambrazas, 2005, 231).

3. **The numeral + the noun.** In these compounds cardinal numbers function as first elements. Compounds in which the first component is the cardinal number, have the following meanings:
1) the first element determines the number of those parts (e.g. keturkampis stalas, dvimotoris lėktuvas) (Ambrazas, 2005, 231);

2) the names of parts are denoted by the second constituent, and their number – by the first element (e.g. keturlapis dobilas, dviženklis skaičius) (Ambrazas, 2005, 232);

3) having or being characteristic of that which is indicated by the second element, while the first element marks the number of that object (e.g. dviprasmis pasakymas, dviošalis susitarimas) (Ambrazas, 2005, 232).

Compounds that are built of ordinal numbers signify the sequence of years, kinds, classes or recurring objects. The words like metai, klasė, eilė constitute the second element of the compound (e.g. antrametis kumeliukas, trečiarūšiai grūdai) (Ambrazas, 2005, 232).

4. **The pronoun + the noun.** The following pronouns serve as first components of the compound: keli-, vienas (Ambrazas, 2005, 232). Compounds of this type can denote a special feature of a thing (e.g. savašknės rožės ‘sadas šaknis išleidusios’) (Ambrazas, 2005, 232).

5. **The adverb + the noun.** These compounds have particular meanings related to their formation where:

   1) the second element denotes concepts of time (e.g. daugadienės lenktynės) (Ambrazas, 2005, 233);
   2) place, space where something/somebody is or is going on or referred to (e.g. netolpišnis puodas – netoli pilno) (Ambrazas, 2005, 233).
   3) Tools (e.g. daugianytis audeklas) (Ambrazas, 2005, 233);
   4) material from which the thing is made (e.g. pusiašilkės skaros) (Ambrazas, 2005, 233).

b) Compounds in which the adjective serves as the second element. Adverbs are usually found as first elements which join the adjective, and in such a way adverbs provide new shades of meaning to the adjective (Ambrazas, 2005, 234).

c) The verb as a second element. They can be grouped into:

   1. **The noun + the verb.** In these compounds the action is expressed by the second element (e.g. avikirpės žirklės, duonkepė krosnis) (Ambrazas, 2005, 235).
   2. **The adjective + the verb.** These compounds are composed of such phrases as the verb in the Present tense and the adjective in the accusative case (e.g. éda gyvą → gyvaėdžiai paukščiai) (Ambrazas, 2005, 235).
   3. **The numeral + the verb.** In these compounds cardinal numbers or ordinal nubers serve as first components. Such compounds can show the number of doers of the action that are marked by the second component (e.g. vienstypė liepa – viena, atsiskyrusi auganti) (Ambrazas, 2005, 235).
4. **The pronoun + the verb.** The second element denotes the action, while the first base conveys its object (e.g. *visagalis, visażinis*) (Ambrazas, 2005, 236).

5. **The adverb + the verb.** The adverb *pus(iau)* usually serves as the first base. The second base shows the action, whereas the first base – the manner or degree of that action (e.g. *pusvirės bulvės, pusiausirpiai obuoliai*) (Ambrazas, 2005, 236).

In conclusion, English and Lithuanian compound adjectives have some identical compositional patterns, yet the peculiarities of that patterns remarkably differ. The pattern *the adjective + the verb* is common for both languages, in English the first element is a true adjective which semantically serves as an adverb; whereas in Lithuanian such compounds consist of the following phrases: the verb in the Present tense and the adjective in the accusative case, e.g. ėda gyvą → *gyvaėdžiai*. There are also two similar patterns in both languages: *the noun + the noun* in Lithuanian and *the proper noun + the proper noun* in English. The difference between the patterns lies in the fact that English compound adjectives are built with proper names using quotation marks, italics or both of them. By contrast, Lithuanian compound adjectives are built with two nouns where the first element refers to the material from which the second element is made, or the first element can also indicate place or direction denoted by the second component. Furthermore, both English and Lithuanian compounds are used to delineate appearance and character, e.g. *ilgaplaukė, easy-going*. In addition, compound adjectives of both languages show an object’s similarity to a certain thing, e.g. *ash-blonde, auksaplaukis*. In contrast to English compounds, Lithuanian compound adjectives can be built with pronouns or with cardinal, ordinal numbers.

### 2.2 According to the derivational pattern

#### 2.2.1 Compounds proper

Ginzburg et al (1966, 174) considers compounds proper those that are composed after a compositional pattern. Indeed, bases of compounds proper, that are merged, exist in the language. Each base is recurrent in separate lexemes, e.g. *door, age, etc.* They can be concatenated either with or without linking elements as in *door-step, age-long* (Ginzburg et al, 1966, 174). These compounds are numerous in the English lexis, and they belong to most of the parts of speech as well as involve prolific and non-prolific distributional formulas. Such compound as *threadbare* is connected with the word-group ‘bare to the thread’, some compounds may also denote comparison as in *snow-white* (‘as white as snow’), *stone-deaf*
One can come across compounds in scientific lexis (e.g. social-economic) (Arnold, 1986, 125). In the following compounds freedoom-loving, good-looking, the elements loving, looking are not treated as single adjectives for it is unclear if these elements are adjectives or adverbs (Arnold, 1986, 126). The latter lexemes have a concrete status when they are parts of compounds. Compounds can also signify the relations between the doer (of the action) and the activity, e.g. man-made ‘made by man’, or they can denote instrumental relations, e.g. moss-grown ‘covered with moss’ (Arnold, 1986, 126).

2.2.2 Derivational compounds

Derivational compounds can be defined as those that combine two types of word-building, namely composition and derivation. It is obvious that they totally differ from compounds proper from the perspective of their elements and the distributional formulas. For instance, long-legged → long leg + –ed; three-cornered → three corner + –ed; these instances show that the combination e.g. in long-legged (long leg) can not be regarded as the base of a lexeme that is available in the language, instead it is simply an independent phrase (Ginzburg et al, 1966, 175). As a result of composition, two separate lexemes are merged. Therefore, they become grammatically unindependent and bases become weakened. The suffix –ed makes the word-group become a separate lexeme, thus the suffix is the essential part (i.e. the kernel) of the lexeme in a grammatical sense. The suffix determines to what part of speech that word belongs (in this case it is an adjective). Both the compound long-legged and the combination ‘somebody/something is with long legs’ have the common meaning. It is possible to compare the meaning of the particle with and the meaning of the given suffix. This suffix is connected with the entire complex word-group (i.e. long leg) and, indeed, to the base leg– since the meaning of the compound is ‘somebody/something possesses long legs’ (Ginzburg et al, 1966, 175).

Derivational compounds can be grouped into two types “according to the derivational means used and to the nature of the first element, i.e. type of free phrases that serves as its basis” (Ginzburg et al, 1966, 175):

1. derivational compound adjectives that are built with an extremely prolific “adjective-building suffix –ed”, the first element is related to the independent word-groups and made up according to such distributional formulas (Ginzburg et al, 1966, 176):
Adj + N (e.g. with a snub nose); Num + N (e.g. with two sides); N + N or N of N (e.g. with a doll face) (Ginzburg et al, 1966, 176). Compound adjectives are made up according to the formulas as follows:

(Adj + N) + –ed (e.g. blue-eyed); (Num + N) + –ed (e.g. two-sided); (N + N) + –ed (e.g. doll-faced) (Ginzburg et al, 1966, 176).

2. Derivational compound nouns that are built by *conversion*. As for Ginzburg et al (1966, 176), “verb-adverb” word-groups such as “(to) break down – to fail to act, become useless; to hold up – to stop, to delay” are based on the first constituent of noun derivatives: a break down – ‘an occasion when a vehicle or machine stops working’ (Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary); “a hold up – a delay in traffic” (Ginzburg et al, 1966, 176). Word-building is not modified, nouns are built after conversion that causes “the verb-adverb” word-groups to become lexemes (Ginzburg et al, 1966, 176). Lexical meanings, that are characteristic of the former and the latter words, are found among compound nouns and the equivalent word-groups. The pattern of such compounds is as follows: “V + Adv + conversion” (Ginzburg et al, 1966, 176). However, in Lithuanian neither compounds proper nor derivational compounds are found.

2.3 According to the components joined

2.3.1 Compounds with linking elements

In English the components of compounds can be concatenated with a linking element (e.g. speedometer, Afro-Asian). Such compounds can serve as nouns or adjectives but they comprise a little set of lexemes which is influenced by the character of the constituents (Ginzburg et al, 1966, 173). The most frequent linking elements are vowels – o or i. First elements usually consist of “a bound root” (e.g. Anglo-Saxon, Sino-Japanese, handiwork) (Ginzburg et al, 1966, 174). However, such compounds refer only to nationalities and scholarly lexis.

The other common linking element in English is the consonant – s (e.g. sportsman, saleswoman) (Ginzburg et al, 1966, 174). Such compounds are not so numerous and limited by a semi-suffix (i.e. man–, woman–, people–, the most frequent is man–) (Ginzburg et al, 1966, 174). “Preposition or conjunction bases” can also serve as linking elements (e.g. matter-of-fact, up-to-date, pepper-and-salt) (Arnold, 1986, 123).
The two components of Lithuanian compounds can be joined with linking elements as in English. Some linking elements are identified with thematic vowels, others – with suffixes. Urbutis (2009, 280) states that there are no clear attitudes towards linking elements and their roles in word-building. He claims that linking elements are treated as separate morphemes which express connection and remind that of coordinate conjunctions. Linking elements are also considered as parts of first components, also as a special suffix used for formation of first elements (Urbutis, 2009, 281).

A noticeable difference in meaning can appear between two compounds whose only difference lies in having or not having a linking element (e.g. *dienoraštis* – ‘notes of day’s works or events’; ‘personal notes taken daily’; and *dienraštis* – ‘a daily paper’. The formation meaning in these compounds can be generalized by the phrase: ‘dienos raštas’ – a writing of the day. It is possible to assume that the vowel –*o*– is a phoneme in the former compound because it performs a distinctive function – it differentiates these two compounds) (Urbutis, 2009, 282). As for Urbutis (2009, 282), the use and absence of linking elements is usually a matter of convention in compounds. The most frequent and typical linking elements in Lithuanian are *vowels*, namely: -a-(*sidabrąžolė*), -ia-(*arkliadėlė*), -o-(*vasarošiltis*), -u-(*viršukalnė*), -i-(*avitaukiai*), -é-(*saulėkaita*), -y-(*brangymetis*), -ū-(*galvūgalis*), -io-(*pečiomontė*), -iu-(*basiugalis*), -iū-(*akīūmojis*), -uo-(*galuodenis*) (Urbutis, 2009, 280).

Ambrazas (2005, 155) argues that the use of linking elements is determined by not only the analogy of other compounds but also by a phonetic factor. This factor is evident when the linking vowel is inserted so that too many consonants following or preceding vowels and that are difficult to pronounce could be avoided (e.g. *ilgašvarkis, minkštaširdis*) (Ambrazas, 2005, 155).

The other aspect that governs the use of linking vowel is the length of the components of the compound. Compounds having longer bases are not linked with a vowel (e.g. *geltonplaukis* but *gélaplaukis*) (Ambrazas, 2005, 155). When two same consonants occur (those of the end of the first base and those of the beginning of the second base), a compound adjective acquires a linking vowel (e.g. *aštriagaragis* but *vandenėnis*). In a similar case the closing diphthong of the adverb *pusiau* is usually maintained (e.g. *pusiausirpis, pusiauskiltis*) (Ambrazas, 2005, 228).
2.3.2 Compounds without linking elements

According to “the means by which the components are joined together”, in English compounds can be grouped into lexemes in which both members of the compound are combined together, i.e. without linking elements (e.g. door-handle, rain-driven) (Ginzburg et al, 1966, 173). Such type of joining constituents is common to the Present-day English compounds for all word-classes.

In Lithuanian compounds without linking elements (i.e. those whose bases are not joined with any linking vowel) are not so numerous as those with linking elements (e.g. sienlaikraštis, ledkalnis). Compound nouns are not joined by any linking elements which belong to the ‘ia’ and ‘ė’ stems (e.g. dvarponis, pudsaktaris) (Ambrazas, 2005, 154). Compounds in which the numeral serves as a first base do not have linking vowels in the following stems:

a) ‘a’ stem (e.g. vienkiemis, šimtmetis) (Ambrazas, 2005, 157);

b) in the ‘ia’ stem the cardinal numbers such as keturi...devyni, tūkstantis (e.g. keturšakė, devyndarbis) (Ambrazas, 2005, 157);

c) the numeral dešimtis (when used separately or as a second base of the compound attaches a vowel) used as a first base does not attach any linking element (e.g. trisdešimtmetis but dešimtadienis) (Ambrazas, 2005, 157).

Linking elements can also not occur in compound adjectives which are uneasy to utter because of ‘crowded’ consonants that follow or precede other consonants (e.g. juodplaukis but juodaplaukis; vienaukštis but vienaaukštis). Keinys (1999) notes that linking vowels do not prevail when the first component leans upon polysyllabic words (e.g. geltonmargis) (Keinys, 1999, 81).

In conclusion, the most frequent linking elements in English are vowels –o– and –i–, likewise, the bases of Lithuanian compounds are joined with these same linking vowels. On the one hand, the first element of English compounds usually contains a bound root; on the other hand, Lithuanian linking elements are treated as parts of first constituents and as a special suffix used for formation of first components. In English the constituents of compounds can also be joined with the linking consonant –s–, whereas in Lithuanian there is no such linking element. However, the components of Lithuanian compounds can also be merged with such vowels as –a–, –u–, –ė–, etc. Unlike in Lithuanian, in English the components of compounds can be concatenated with preposition or conjunction bases as well. In contrast to English, in Lithuanian compounds the linking vowel can occur when many consonants follow or precede vowels, or if those consonants are difficult to utter, e.g.
Unlike in English, in Lithuanian compounds the linking element is inserted if two same consonants appear at the end of the first element and at the beginning of the second element, e.g. *aštirargas*. In rarer cases, the bases of English and Lithuanian compounds are not joined by any linking elements. This kind of joining elements is common to various parts of speech in both languages. English is dissimilar to Lithuanian in a way that in Lithuanian compounds the linking element does not appear when too many consonants follow or precede other consonants, e.g. *juodplaukis*.

**3. SEMANTIC CLASSIFICATION OF COMPOUNDS**

Meaning can be analyzed according to motivation and interrelation between lexical meanings of compounds. Motivation in English compounds is realized by means of distinctive lexical meanings of constituents and the meaning of their composition. Compounds differ in the extent of motivation since some compounds are *absolutely* motivated (“the lexical meaning is apparent and determined by the lexical meanings of their bases and the meaning of their patterns”) (e.g. *foot-step, bottle-opener*) (Ginzburg et al, 1966, 187).

Compounds can be *partially* motivated depending on the degree which may differ (e.g. the meanings of *hand-bag* and *handcuffs* are obvious but at the same time they differ: the former is “a bag which is carried in the hand”, cf. *handcuffs* hold for alikeness to cuff and, in general, acquire the meaning of ‘metal loops that can be locked around the wrists of a criminal’) (Ginzburg et al, 1966, 187).

Motivated or non-idiomatic compounds can be motivated completely as well. For instance, as the compound noun *airman* came into use, it acquired such a meaning: “a person who is related to air from the perspective of occupation” (Arnold, 1986, 109). In such a way the compounds *aircraft* and *airship* were formed. They call the machines that are created for travelling in the air, and so being distinct from e.g. “*sea-going* craft” (Arnold, 1986, 109).

In Lithuanian word-building, compounds are only *motivated*. Motivated words name things as well as they point out their relation with other words. Motivation of words with the same meanings can coincide or differ. According to Paulauskienė (1994, 47), motivation can also be described as determination of the relation between the bound root and independent base.

Things, plants or animals have many features, therefore, motivation is suitable for their names. A few vivid illustrations of this aspect are presented by Urbutis (2009, 70)
who provides the following instances: the mushroom *Boletus scaber* *Bull* was named according to its growing place and, mostly important, it indicates its relation with a tree – the birch (Lith. *beržas* and the mushroom – *paberžis*); according to a low value grouping to the ‘animal’ mushrooms (e.g. *ož(ka)grybis*). The other example is concerned with motivation of a bird’s name - *Jynx torquilla* *L* (Urbutis, 2009, 71). The bird is also distinct from other birds in a way that it has a striking feature – a strange wriggling of its head. Thus, according to this feature, the bird was called in many ways in Lithuanian, some of more interesting names are the following: *grąž(i)agalvė*, *kreivagalvė*, *sukigalvė*, *griebgalvis*, *sukitgalva*, etc. (In English this bird is called a *wryneck.*) (Urbutis, 2009, 71).

The lexical meaning of compounds is rendered in the same way as that of simple words and conveys what word means as a whole lexical unit. While uttering sounds, motivation is violated and ‘forgotten’, thus, the communication becomes more natural and convenient. Motivation also concerns semantics as the structure of word-formation indicates the usage of the motivated word (e.g. a non-motivated word *tvartas* can be defined as a barn for cows, poultry and other animals; while the use of the motivated compounds *kiaul(i)atvartis*, *kiaultvartis* does not have such freedom since they are restricted to one meaning) (Urbutis, 2009, 79).

In consideration of the role of word-formation, the evident fact comes out that the tendency of non-motivation, simplification of words and conversely, maintenance of motivation lead to appearance of limitless coinages. These factors also help to retain balance between motivated and non-motivated words (Urbutis, 2009, 80).

Motivated words are regarded more vivid, expressive and more emotional, as a result, less expressive unmotivated words are replaced by motivated ones in the lexis of the language (Urbutis, 2009, 80).

In *non-motivated* compounds in English there is no clear relation regarding “the meaning of formation and the meanings of the bases”, as a result, “the lexical meaning” is not derived (Ginzburg et al, 1966, 188). Compounds such as *eye-wash* – ‘(old-fashioned, informal) words, promises, etc. that are not true or sincere’; *wall-flower* – ‘a person who does not dance at a party because they do not have somebody to dance with or because they are too shy’ (Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary) serve as illustrations for non-motivated compounds.

Ginzburg et al (1966) comes up for discussion with a possible source of absence of motivation which is connected with “unexpected semantic relations” that are consolidated in compounds (e.g. *dog-days* – ‘the hot period between early July and early September’) (Ginzburg et al, 1966, 188).
Arnold (1986, 109) also introduces another prediction of non-motivation: he states that a certain component of the compound is no longer available now, and does not carry the identical meaning (e.g. *blackmail* is not related to ‘mail ‘post’” now (Arnold, 1986, 109); the other component goes back to the 16th century to mean ‘tribute’ or ‘rent’). This compound was used to denote ‘protection money levied by Scottish chiefs’ (Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary). The motivation did not remain, therefore, this compound became non-motivated.

In addition, lexical meanings in the particular compound can be treated as *homonyms* (Ginzburg et al, 1966, 188) (e.g. *night-cap* is ‘a soft cap worn in bed/a drink, usually containing alcohol, taken before going to bed’) (Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary). In Lithuanian, however, there are no non-motivated words.

In conclusion, English compounds can be both motivated and non-motivated, while Lithuanian compounds are only motivated. In English compounds motivation is realized by means of unique lexical meanings of elements. However, in Lithuanian compounds the lexical meaning denotes what a lexeme means as a whole lexical unit. The extent of motivation in English is variable as compounds can be absolutely motivated, i.e. the meaning is governed by the lexical meanings of the components or patterns; while in Lithuanian motivated lexemes name objects (things) and mark their relation with other words. Furthermore, English compounds can also be motivated completely, i.e. motivation of one word can be applied to form other words having the same element as the former word and a similar meaning. By contrast, in Lithuanian the names of things, animals or plants can diversely be motivated, e.g. a mushroom can be named according to the place it grows in or according to its relation to a particular tree like in the word *paberžis*. Moreover, English compounds may be motivated partially, e.g. the meanings of such compounds as *hand-bag, handcuffs* are rather different since the former expresses purpose, the latter expresses likeness. Similarly, in Lithuanian the compositional pattern identifies in what way the motivated word can be used comparing with the use of the unmotivated word, e.g. the unmotivated word like *tvartas* has a broader meaning and usage, while the motivated word *kiaultvartis* has only one meaning which is narrower than the meaning of the unmotivated word.
4. SIMILARITIES AND DISCREPANCIES OF ENGLISH AND LITHUANIAN COMPOUND PATTERNS (based on “Saturday” by I. McEwan and its Lithuanian translation “Šeštdienis”)

4.1 Structural and semantic similarities and differences of compound nouns

Due to the limited scope of the research, the two main aspects are selected for analysis, namely the structural and the semantic features of compounds. Thus, collection of compounds focused on the division into the compositional patterns. Specific features of English and Lithuanian compound nouns and compound adjectives are examined and compared. The basis of this study is the English language; while the Lithuanian language serves as the second source since we searched for Lithuanian equivalents of English compounds. Furthermore, it should be emphasized that matches or mismatches of English and Lithuanian translation was not taken into consideration as this aspect is not related to the current study.

Compound nouns built in English according to the structural pattern the noun + the noun are found in the following examples:

“*The overfull litter baskets suggest abundance rather than squalor; <...>”* (McEwan, 2006, 5).

“*Kaupinos šiukšlaidėžės byloja veikiau gausą nei varganą netvarką; <...>”* (McEwan, 2007, 13).

Structurally, both litter baskets and its equivalent compound šiukšliaidėžės belong to the same compound noun-building pattern: the noun + the noun. These compounds have the common meaning: a container for people to put rubbish in, in the street or in a public building (Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary and Dabartinės Lietuvių Kalbos Žodynas, further in the text abbreviations OALD and DLKŽ will be used). Both compounds are used in plural, their bases contain inanimate nouns, i.e. litter and basket, šiukšlės and dėžė. Both compounds can be transformed into such phrases as basket is for litter (dėžė, skirta šiukšlėms). Thus, these phrases suggest purpose relations in these compounds. The components of the English compound litter baskets are not joined by any linking element, whereas the components of the Lithuanian compound šiukšliaidėžės are joined with the linking vowels –ia–. Plurality of the compounds is signaled by the common suffix –s. Consider the following examples such as:

“*<...>, she reproved him on a postcard, <...>”* (McEwan, 2006, 68).

“*<...>– papriekaištavo ji atvirlaiškyje, <...>”* (McEwan, 2007, 78).
These two compound nouns are ascribed to the different patterns: *postcard* – to the pattern *the noun + the noun*, while *atvirlaiškyje* – to the pattern *the adjective + the noun*. These compounds possess the common meaning: a card used for sending messages by post without an envelope, especially one that has a picture on one side (OALD and DLKŽ). In the Lithuanian compound *atvirlaiškyje*, the adjectival (first) component denotes a common characteristic of the named object, as a consequence, the compound can be paraphrased as such: *atviras* + *laiškas* + *-is* → *atvirlaiškis*. The latter compound is of masculine gender that is indicated by the suffix *-is*. The components of the compound *postcard* are not joined with any linking element, in the same way, the components of its Lithuanian equivalent are also not merged with a linking element. By contrast, in the compound *postcard* purpose relation is found as the compound can be turned into the following phrase: *card is for posting*, however, it is not characteristic for the Lithuanian compound of the mentioned type. Compare the following examples:

“<...> he hears the squeal of *seagulls* come inland for the city’s good pickings” (McEwan, 2006, 71).

“<...> jo ausis pagauna *žuvėdrų* klyksma: jos skrenda sausumon tikėdamosi gero grobio, kurį netrukus paliks miestas” (McEwan, 2007, 82).

Both compounds have the common meaning: a bird with long wings and usually white and grey or black feathers that lives near the sea (OALD and DLKŽ). Thus, both compounds convey the meaning – a type of the bird. However, these compounds differ in the way they are built since the compound *seagulls* is made up according the pattern *the noun + the noun* (sea + gull → seagull), whereas the compositional pattern of the compound *žuvėdrų* (from *žuvis ėsti*) is *the noun + the verb*. In the case of the compound *žuvėdrų*, the noun (the first component) denotes the object, the verb (the second element) expresses the action, i.e. *žuvėdra* → *žuvis ėsti*. The constituents of the compound *žuvėdrų* are not concatenated with any linking element like the English equivalent *seagulls*. Both *seagulls* and *žuvėdrų* are used in the plural forms, and they are also countable nouns. The following example matches this pattern as well:

“<...> in remembering the square at its best – *weekday* lunchtimes, in warm weather, <...>” (McEwan, 2006, 272).

“<...> taip pat prisimena, kada aikštė jam labiausiai patinka – *šiokiadieniais* pietyt metų, <...>” (McEwan, 2007, 296).

Compound noun-building patterns of these compounds are different, since *weekday* belong to the pattern *the noun + the noun*, whereas *šiokiadieniais* is built after the pattern *the pronoun + the noun*. The two compounds possess the same meaning: any day
except Saturday and Sunday (OALD and DLKŻ). In addition, the lexical meaning of these compounds is direct, i.e. \textit{weekday} → week + day, šiokiadienis → šiokia + diena. The former compound is used in the singular form, yet the latter compound occurs in the plural which is signalled by the suffix –\textit{iais}. The following example also illustrates this pattern:

❝<<...>>; a tennis championship in Florida disrupted by woman with a \textit{breadknife}...❞ (McEwan, 2006, 29).

❝<<...>>; teniso čempionatą Floridoje sutrikdė moteris, ginkluota \textit{duonriekiu peiliu}...❞ (McEwan, 2007, 39).

The Lithuanian phrase is analogous with the compound \textit{breadknife}. In addition, the adjectival phrase contains a compound adjective \textit{duonriekiu} which can be paralleled with the constituent \textit{bread} of the compound \textit{breadknife}. The noun \textit{peiliu} is analogous with the element -\textit{knife}. The compounds \textit{breadknife} and \textit{duonriekiu} belong to the different compositional patterns, i.e. \textit{breadknife} is built after the pattern \textit{the noun + the noun}, while \textit{duonriekiu} is made up according to the pattern \textit{the noun + the verb}. Furthermore, the second component of the compound \textit{duonriekiu} expresses the action which is performed on the first element (\textit{duonriekis} → duoną riekti). This compound adjective also modifies the noun \textit{peiliu} and refers to a particular kind of the knife. In this context, it is interpreted as a weapon. Thus, both compounds acquire the same lexical meaning: a knife used to cut bread (OALD and DLKŻ). Obvious purpose relations are observed in these compounds which can be paraphrased as follows: knife is for bread (to cut). Compare the following sentences:

❝First, pictures from a \textit{motorway} bridge of scores of coaches bringing marchers <<...>>❞ (McEwan, 2006, 69).

❝Iš pradžių eina kadrai, kuriuose \textit{greitkelio} viaduku tūkstančiai autobusų gabena demonstrantus <<...>>❞ (McEwan, 2007, 80).

The compound noun \textit{greitkelio} is not a direct equivalent of the English compound. Both of them possess the same lexical meaning: a wide road, with at least two lanes in each direction, where traffic can travel fast for long distances between large towns. You can only enter and leave motorways at special junctions (OALD and DLKŻ). Unlike \textit{motorway}, the compound noun \textit{greitkelio} is made up after the pattern \textit{the adjective + the noun}. The two elements coincide in both compounds: \textit{way} and \textit{kelias}. However, it is not possible to parallel the components \textit{motor}, which stands for an engine or a car, with \textit{greitas} which refers to the road designed for high-speed traffic. The Lithuanian compound can be transformed into the following structure: \textit{greitkelis} → greitas + kelias + -is. Thus, the adjectival element signifies a particular characteristic of that object. In addition, in these compounds apparent purpose relations can be found which are accentuated by the preposition \textit{for} and the pronoun \textit{skirtas}.
respectively, i.e the way is for motor(s) (to move), in Lithuanian – ‘automobilių kelias’ (kelias, skirtas automobiliams važiuoti).

Compound nouns that are built in English after the pattern the noun + the verb are found in the examples as follows:

“Sunrise – generally a rural event, <...>” (McEwan, 2006, 48).

“Iki saulėtekio – apskritai kaimiško reiškinio reiškinio, <...>” (McEwan, 2007, 59).

Both sunrise and saulėtekio are made up according to the same compositional pattern. The second component (the verb) of the compound sunrise is treated as a noun and derived by conversion from the verb ‘rise’, i.e. sunrise: rise (v) → rise (n). In the case of the Lithuanian equivalent saulėtekio, the noun (the first component) denotes the subject or the doer of the action: saulėtekis → saulė teka. In the given context the two compounds acquire the following meaning: the time when the sun first appears in the sky in the morning (OALD and DLKŽ). The compound saulėtekio is used in the genitive case, on the contrary, sunrise is used in the nominative case and functions as a subject in the sentence. Consider the following sentences:

“<...>, the topmost faces gazing blankly skywards, ghastly white in the sunshine” (McEwan, 2006, 61).

“<...> viršutiniųjų veidai bukai spokso į dangų, ryškioje saulėje vaiduokliškai blyškūs” (McEwan, 2007, 72).

In this particular case, only in the English example the compound prevails which is built after the pattern the noun + the verb. Like in the previous instance above, the second element performs the role of the noun which is derived by conversion from the respective verb ‘shine’ (sunshine: shine (v) → shine (n). In contrary to the English variant, the Lithuanian one does not appear as a compound but as a phrase. The adjectival phrase ryškioje saulėje consist of two members: the adjective ryškioje functions as a determiner of the second member – the noun saulėje. In addition, the case of the adjective coincides with that of the noun, both of them are used in the locative case, being a morphological characteristic common for the Lithuanian language. The lexical meaning of the compound is similar to the Lithuanian equivalent: the light and heat of the sun (OALD and DLKŽ), whereas the phrase ryškioje saulėje is used to mean – in the bright light of the sun.

Compound nouns that are made up according to the pattern the noun + the deverbal noun appear in the following instances:

“Its claying self-regard suggests a bright new world of protest, <...>” (McEwan, 2006, 72).
“Persisotinusi šio šūkio savimeilė byloja apie ryškiaspalvį naują protesto pasaulį, <...>” (McEwan, 2007, 83).

Differently from the compound self-regard, savimeilė is composed according to the pattern the pronoun + the noun. The lexical meaning of the compound savimeilė is quite direct, meaning self-love or egoism, and can be turned into the phrase ‘save mylėti’. On the other hand, self-regard is a good opinion of yourself, which is considered negative if you have too little or too much (OALD). The components of the compound savimeilė are merged with the linking vowel –i–, by contrast, the constituents of self-regard are not concatenated with any linking element. The following example also suits this pattern:

“<...>; it can be quite an affront to parental self-regard, <...>” (McEwan, 2006, 25).

“<...>, gali mesti nemenką iššūkį tėvų savigarbai” (McEwan, 2007, 35).

The two compounds differ in the way they are built, i.e. self-regard belongs to the pattern the noun + the deverbal noun, while savigarbai appertains to the pattern the pronoun + the verb. As has already been mentioned, self-regard is a good opinion of yourself. The compound savigarba has an abstract meaning – self-respect, and can be paraphrased as such ‘save gerbti’. As can be seen, the first element of the compound is related to the pronoun savęs (save), yet, in this case it has a form savi-. The pronoun as a first component conveys the object of the activity, the verb (the second element) expresses that activity. It is worth noticing that if one English word is turned into the Lithuanian language, one can discover even several equivalent Lithuanian words with different shades of meaning like in the case of savimeilė and savigarba. These two latter compounds possess only one common form savi-, however, their lexical meanings are totally different, as a result, these compounds can be used in different contexts. This leads to the fact that the Lithuanian language, differently from English, is rich in such lexemes that can be substituted for one word in English, yet in different context. Consider the following examples:

“Our handshake is light and brief” (McEwan, 2006, 87).

“Rankos spaudžiamos lengvai ir trumpai” (McEwan, 2007, 99).

The compound and the noun phrase can be used to convey the same meaning: an act of shaking somebody’s hand with your own, used specially to say hello or goodbye or when you have made an agreement (OALD and DLKŽ). The compound handshake can be turned into the verbal phrase such as: (to) shake a hand. Thus, both compounds denote an activity which is especially emphasized in the noun phrase by the adjective spaudžiamos. In this case, the noun modifies the adjective where the former is the object of the action. The noun and the adjective also agree in gender, number and case as both lexemes occur in the
plural form, and are of feminine gender. The element of the compound hand- is analogous with the noun rankos, -shake can be paralleled with the adjective spaudžiamos.

Compound nouns built according to the pattern the noun + the agential noun in \( -er \) occur in the following instances:

“\(<...>\) from just up the street, they can hear the tramping and tribal drums of the peace mongers” (McEwan, 2006, 87).

“\(<...>\) čia pat skersgatvio gale girdėti taikdarių kojų trypimas ir gentiniai būgnai” (McEwan, 2007, 99).

Differently from the English compound, taikdarių is made up of the two bases: the noun and the verb where the first element denotes the object of the action which is presented by the verb, i.e. taikdarys → taiką daryti. Both compounds are viewed as human agents or the doers of a particular action. Compare the following instances:

“She got control of her voice and, gesturing towards a fire extinguisher, \(<...>\)” (McEwan, 2006, 43).

“Šiaip ne taip suvaldžiusi balsą ir ranka rodydama į gaisro gesintuvą \(<...>\)” (McEwan, 2007, 53).

The compound fire extinguisher and its equivalent – the noun phrase gaisro gesintuvq have the same lexical meaning: a metal container with water or chemicals inside for putting out small fires (OALD and DLKŽ). The noun phrase and the compound consists of the two nouns – gaisras (used in the genitive case) and gesintuvas (used in the accusative case) where gaisro functions as an attribute of the noun gesintuvas. The element fire is paralleled with the noun gaisro which are abstract countable nouns, while extinguisher is paralleled with the noun gesintuvq that are concrete countable nouns. The following example illustrates this pattern as well:

“He wakes, or he thinks he does, to the sound of her hairdryer \(<...>\)” (McEwan, 2006, 55).


The Lithuanian equivalent of the compound hairdryer is the noun phrase containing the two nouns, namely plaukų and džiovintuvo. The compound and its equivalent possess the common lexical meaning: a small machine used for drying your hair by blowing hot air over it (OALD and DLKŽ). Both the compound and the two nouns are concrete objects. Purpose relations are also expressed in these words: the dryer is for hair (to dry), džiovintuvas, skirtas plaukams (džiovinti). The component hair- can be paralleled with the noun plaukų which is used in the plural form, -dryer is analogous with the noun džiovintuvo.
Compounds belonging to the noun-building pattern \textit{the adverbial + the deverbal noun} are found in the following instances:

“\textit{<...> she would have admired the niceties, the clean headwear, <...>}”

(McEwan, 2006, 155).

“\textit{<...> būtų žavėjusis skrupulingumu, švariais galvos apdangalais, <...>}”

(McEwan, 2007, 172).

The equivalent of the compound \textit{headwear} in Lithuanian is regarded as a noun phrase which consists of the two nouns – \textit{galva} and the plural noun \textit{apdangalai}. In the Lithuanian noun phrase, the element \textit{galvos} is regarded as an attribute of the noun \textit{apdangalais} marking a type of the wear. Thus, both \textit{headwear} and the phrase \textit{galvos apdangalais} acquire the same lexical meaning: clothes worn for a particular purpose or occasion (OALD and DLKŽ). In the case of \textit{headwear}, adverbial relations of place can be found as well, since the compound can be paraphrased as such: a wear worn on smb’s head. The following instances also correspond to this pattern:

“\textit{But the bruise on his sternum suggests he’d lose a knife fight in seconds}”

(McEwan, 2006, 208).

“\textit{Tačiau mėlynė ant krūtinkaulio byloja, kad kovą su peiliais pralaimėtų per kelias sekundes}”


The phrase \textit{kovą su peiliais} is the Lithuanian variant of the compound \textit{knife fight}. The phrase comprises three members, namely the noun \textit{kovą} (used in the accusative case), the preposition \textit{su} and the noun \textit{peilias} (used in the instrumental case). The noun \textit{kovą} is used in the singular form like its equivalent \textit{fight}. The noun \textit{peilias} takes the plural form but its equivalent \textit{knife} is used in the singular form. Instrumentality is the common property of the compound and the phrase, however, it is expressed in a different way. In the case of \textit{knife fight}, instrumental relation prevails, i.e. the compound can be turned into the phrase \textit{fight with knives}. Similarly, in the Lithuanian phrase instrumentality is also signaled by the prepositional phrase (\textit{kovą} \textit{su peiliais}). The following sentences also illustrate this pattern:

“\textit{<...>; now and then a solid marriage explodes in a firefight of recrimination}”

(McEwan, 2006, 40).

“\textit{<...>; tai šen, tai ten tvirta santuoka sprogsta užsiliepsnojus priekaištų bei kaltinimų gaisrui}”

(McEwan, 2007, 50).

The compound and its Lithuanian variant possess the slightly different meanings with regard to the given context. \textit{Firefight} is used to denote a battle where guns are used, involving soldiers or the police (OALD). In this particular context, both the noun \textit{gaisras} and the compound are used in a figurative sense with respect to ‘a battle with guns’. The noun
gaisras is preferred here instead of ‘kova/mūšis’ but it is rather referred to ‘ginčas’ (argument) – a dispute where there is a strong disagreement (DLKŽ). Similarly, the compound *firefight* also refers to a violent argument. Instrumental relations can be observed in the compound *firefight* as well. The element *fire-* can be paralleled with the noun *gaisrui* which appears to be more analogous in this case.

Compound nouns that are made up according to the pattern the verb + the adverbial prevail in the following instances:

“<...> the scented wheels of hay in the small steep fields that surround the gardens, and the fainter smell of swimming-pool chlorine <...>” (McEwan, 2006, 129).

“<...> kvapūs vežimai šiendo mažose šlaituotos pievose, kurios supa sodą, ir ne toks stiprus chloro kvapas iš baseino <...>” (McEwan, 2007, 144).

The compound and its equivalent baseino possess the same lexical meaning: an area of water that has been created for people to swim in (OALD and DLKŽ). Thus, purpose relation prevails here. Baseino is not a compound, it is a concrete countable noun. Likewise swimming-pool, the noun baseino also occurs in the singular form. Consider the following instances:

“His thick shoulders are drenched from his session at the washbasin, <...>” (McEwan, 2006, 112).

“Kresni jo pečiai permirkę nuo dušo prausykloje, <...>” (McEwan, 2007, 126).

*Prausykloje* can be considered as a direct equivalent of the compound *washbasin*. Both of them have the same lexical meaning: a large bowl that has taps and is fixed to the wall in a bathroom, used for washing your hands and face in (OALD and DLKŽ). It is obvious that the compound expresses purpose relation. Both *washbasin* and the noun *prausykloje* occur in the singular form. The element *wash-* can be paralleled with the root of the noun *praus-* (praustis), as both of them mean the same. Consider the following examples:

“Then it was a first bank account, a university degree, a driving licence <...>” (McEwan, 2006, 204).

“Tada atėjo laikas pirmajai banko sąskaitai, universiteto diplomui, vairavimo pažymėjimui, <...>” (McEwan, 2007, 227).

Both the compound and its Lithuanian equivalent share the common lexical meaning: an official document that shows that you are qualified to drive (OALD and DLKŽ). Thus, purpose relations are expressed here: the licence is for somebody to drive (a car); pažymėjimas, suteikiantis teisę vairuoti (automobili). The noun phrase consists of the two nouns such as *vairavimo* which is analogous with *driving*, and *pažymėjimui* which can be
paralleled with the head-noun *licence*. Both the compound and the noun phrase occur in the singular form, and they are countables as well.

Compound nouns that are built after the pattern *the adjective + the noun* dominate in the following cases:

“Is it only fatherly **soft-headedness** <...>” (McEwan, 2006, 184).

“Ar tikrai tėviška **minkštaprotystė** <...>” (McEwan, 2007, 205).

Both compounds *soft-headedness* and *minkštaprotystė* belong to the same compositional pattern. In the case of the latter compound, the adjectival element marks a characteristic of the object (the second element). The compound can be turned into the phrase: ‘minkštas protas’ that is used in a figurative sense. This compound can be regarded as a direct version of the compound *soft-headedness*. On the one hand, the components of the English compound are not merged with any linking element, on the other hand, the constituents of the compound *minkštaprotystė* are concatenated with the linking vowel –*a*– since the first constituent contains several consonants following each other and leading to a mispronunciation. The following example conforms to this pattern as well:

“The **drunks** and **loudmouths** are thrown out onto the pavement <...>” (McEwan, 2006, 244).

“*Girtuoklius ir rėksnius* be gailesčio meta lauk <...>” (McEwan, 2007, 267).

The noun *rėksnius* is a direct translation of the compound *loudmouths*. Both words acquire the common lexical meaning (informal style): a person who is annoying because they talk too loudly or too much in an offensive or stupid way (OALD and DLKŽ). Unlike the English original word, the Lithuanian equivalent is not a compound. It is used in the accusative case, while *loudmouths* occurs in the nominative case. Both *rėksnius* and *loudmouths* are concrete countable nouns marking human agents. In the given context both of them appear in the plural form. The following instances also match this pattern:

“Perhaps a **bomb** in the cause of jihad will drive them out with all the other **faint-hearts** into the suburbs, <...>” (McEwan, 2006, 276).

“*Galbūt dar kokia bomba susprogs džirado vardan ir išgūs juodu drauge su kitais silpnadvasiais* į priemiesčius <...>” (McEwan, 2007, 301).

**Faint-hearts** is a compound noun, whereas *silpnadvasiais* is a compound adjective which is built after the pattern *the adjective + the noun*. The two compounds share the same lexical meaning, yet it is usually used in a figurative sense: a person who lacks confidence and is not brave, or is afraid of failing (OALD and DLKŽ). In the case of *silpnadvasiais*, the first adjectival element describes what the second nominal element is characterised by, it can be presented as a phrase: *silpnadvasis* → *silpnos dvasios* (žmogus).
This compound adjective is also used in the instrumental case which is indicated by the preposition *su*. On the one hand, the components of the English compound are not joined with any linking element, on the other hand, the constituents of the compound *silpnadvasiais* are merged with the linking vowel –*a*– since the first constituent contains a few consonants following each other and causing a mispronunciation. The following example also conforms to this particular pattern:

“The *red-eye*s don’t start coming in until half five” (McEwan, 2006, 33).

“*Raudonakiai* neparskrenda anksčiau kaip pusę šešių” (McEwan, 2007, 43).

The two compounds are built in the same way, since both *red-eye*s and *raudonakiai* are made up according to the pattern the adjective + the noun. However, these compounds belong to the distinct parts of speech, i.e. *red-eye*s is a compound noun, whereas *raudonakiai* is a compound adjective. Both compounds possess the common lexical meaning, but in this case, it can be treated in a figurative sense: the appearance of having red eyes (OALD and DLKŻ). The compound *red-eye*s can be changed into the phrase such as: eyes that are red (noun is adjective). In the compound *raudonakiai* (*raudona* + *akis*), by contrast, the adjectival (first) element marks what the second (nominal) element indicates, it can be turned into the following prepositional phrase: *raudonakis* (–*ė* → *kas* su *raudonomis akimis*. It is worth noticing that in this compound the suffix remains unchanged. Such a grammatical peculiarity is not so frequent in Lithuanian compounds as in most cases the second element of the compound determines the common ending of the whole compound (e.g. like in the case above – *silpnadvasiais*; cf.: *silpnadvasis* (–*ė* but *silpnos dvasios*). In the given context, both compounds occur in the plural form. The constituents of the two compounds are not concatenated with any linking elements. Consider the following examples:

“The foot, like some *roughneck* hick town, is a remote province of the brain, <...>”(McEwan, 2006, 92).

“*Koja*, nelyg koks *kietakaktiškas* užkampis, nuo smegenų nutolusi provincija, <...>”(McEwan, 2007, 105).

The two compounds are plainly alike in the type of derivation. Both the compound *roughneck* and *kietakaktiškas* are made up according to the pattern the adjective + the noun. On the one hand, *roughneck* is a compound noun, on the other hand, *kietakaktiškas* is a compound adjective. Both compounds share the same lexical meaning (informal style): a man who is noisy, rude and aggressive (OALD and DLKŻ). In addition, these compounds convey a person’s character which is considered negative. They are used in a figurative sense as well. The first (adjectival) element of the compound *kietakaktiškas* defines what the second (nominal) element indicates where the nominal element is a concrete noun. The compound
The two lexemes are similar in the way that they are both compounds, however, they belong to the distinct parts of speech. Unlike the Lithuanian compound, high heels is a compound noun. The two compounds are built after the same pattern the adjective + the noun. Both of them are used in the plural form. These two compounds possess the common lexical meaning: shoes that have very high heels, usually worn by women (OALD and DLKŽ). The Lithuanian compound aukštakulniai modifies the noun bateliai marking the type of shoes. The second constituent of this compound indicates a part of the thing which is described by the first (adjectival) component. Aukštakulniai can be turned into the following adjectival phrase: aukštais kulnais. The compound noun can also be changed into a similar phrase: heels that are high (noun is adjective). The component high is obviously analogous to the component aukšt(-), likewise the noun heels can be paralleled with the component - kuln(iai).

Compound noun-building pattern in English the noun + the verbal noun in – ing prevail in the following sentences:

“That was just one thing along with <...>, grass skiing, quad biking, <...>” (McEwan, 2006, 132).

“Tai tebuvo vienas iš daugelio dalykių, greta <...>, slidinėjimo ant žolės, važinėjimosi keturrračiais, <...>” (McEwan, 2007, 147).

Both the compound and the noun phrase share a similar meaning: riding a motorcycle with four large wheels over rough ground, often for fun (OALD and DLKŽ). Quad biking is regarded as an abstract compound which is connected with human activity, while the Lithuanian keturrračiais is a concrete countable compound. In addition, the meanings of the compounds keturrračiais and quad biking are direct as they both refer to the type of a means of transport. The compound keturrračiais can be viewed as an analogy with
the English constituent part of the compound *quad*. The Lithuanian equivalent of *quad biking* is not a compound, though the noun phrase contains the compound *keturračiais* which is built after the pattern *the numeral + the noun*. The first element of this compound is a cardinal number (*keturi*) which also modifies the second component (*ratais*), thus, the compound can be paraphrased as follows: *keturratis* → su keturiais ratais; keturi + ratais (-ai) + -is. In this case, the ending of the whole compound is altered since the second element also governs the gender of the result of compounding, i.e. *ratais*: -as → -is (*keturratis*). The noun phrase *važinėjimosi keturračiais* stands for the whole compound *quad biking*, where *važinėjimosi* is related to the activity, *keturračiais* can be treated as a means to perform that activity. The element *quad-* can be paralleled with the noun *keturračiais*, -*biking* is analogous with the noun *važinėjimosi*. The following sentences exemplify this pattern as well:

“*So despite the <...> mild manner and an inclination to occasional daydreaming, <...>*” (McEwan, 2006, 22).

“*Tad, nepaisant <...>, ramių manierų ir polinkio kartkartėmis užsisvajoti, <...>*” (McEwan, 2007, 31).

The Lithuanian equivalent of the English compound noun is the infinitive. Both the compound and its equivalent share the same lexical meaning: (having) pleasant thoughts that make you forget about the present (OALD and DLKŽ). One can assume that the compound *daydreaming* express adverbial relations of time since the element *day* refers to a particular period of time. In the case of the Lithuanian equivalent, it can be paraphrased as follows: įsitraukti į svajones (DLKŽ). The continuity of the process is especially highlighted by the prefix *už-* and the particle *si*-. The element of the compound *dreaming* can be paralleled with the basic part of the infinitive *svajoti*.

Compound nouns that are built according to the pattern *the verbal noun in –ing + the adverbial* prevail in the following sentences:

“*<...> she watches through the ‘misted monocle’ of the washing machine, <...>*” (McEwan, 2006, 135).

“*<...>, kur dabar štai pro skalbimo mašinos “apsimiglojusį monoklį” stebi, <...>*” (McEwan, 2007, 150).

The direct equivalent of the English compound is the noun phrase consisting of the two members such as *skalbimo* and *mašinos*. Both the compound and the noun phrase share the common lexical meaning: an electric machine for washing clothes (OALD and DLKŽ). Instrumental relations are observed in the compound *washing machine* in such a way indicating a special machine that is used to accomplish a particular function. Accordingly, purpose relations are found in the noun phrase as follows: mašina, skirta (drabužių)
skalbimui. Analogy is obvious between the compound and the phrase since the noun *skalbimo* is equivalent to the element of the compound *washing*, the noun *mašinos* is analogous with *machine*. Both the compound and the noun phrase appear in the singular form. The following sentences also exemplify this pattern:

“Perowne reaches his car and staws his <...> bag in the boot, in among the family’s *hiking boots* <...>” (McEwan, 2006, 140).

“Perounas prisikasa prie automobilio ir įkurda savo <...> maišelį bagažinėje, tarp visos šeimynos *žygio batų*, <...>” (McEwan, 2007, 155).

Both the compound noun and the noun phrase have the common lexical meaning: special boots used for going for long walks in the country for pleasure (OALD and DLKŽ). Therefore, one can observe purpose relations in these lexemes that can be expressed in the following phrases: the boots for hiking, *žygio batai*. The compound and the noun phrase comprise the concrete countable nouns such as *žygio*, *batų* and *boots*, all of them appear in the plural form. The element *hiking* can be paralleled with the noun *žygio*, *boots* has the equivalent – the noun *batų*.

Compound nouns that are built according to the pattern *the adverbial + the agential noun in –er* prevail in the following sentences:

“Everyone, from top officials to *street sweepers*, lived in a state of anxiety, constant fear” (McEwan, 2006, 64).

“Visi, nuo aukščiausių pareigūnų iki *gatvės šlavėjų*, gyveno apimti nerimo ir nuolatinės baimės” (McEwan, 2007, 74).

The noun phrase is a direct equivalent of the compound *street sweepers*. Both of them acquire the same lexical meaning: a worker employed to clean streets (OALD and DLKŽ). The compound can be turned into the phrase such as: (to) sweep street(s). The component *sweepers* is derived in the following way: verb base + derivation. Both the noun phrase and the compound appear in the plural form and contain the concrete countable nouns. In the noun phrase, the head-noun *gatvės* is used in the singular form, it is followed by the noun in the plural form. Thus, the element of the compound *street* clearly coincides with the noun *gatvės*, *sweepers* is analogous with the noun *šlavėjų* respectively.

Compound noun-building pattern in English *the particle + the verb* dominates in the following sentences:

“<...>, which is almost inaudible on the *intake*, <...>” (McEwan, 2006, 24).

“<...>, *įkvepiant* beveik negirdėti, <...>” (McEwan, 2007, 34).

The compound and its Lithuanian equivalent belong to the distinct parts of speech since the former is a noun, while the latter is a verbal form of the present tense
‘padalyvis’). The compound and its variant have a similar meaning: an act of taking something in, especially breath (OALD and DLKŽ). However, the two lexemes are dissimilar since the first element of the compound is the preposition in-, while the result of the action in the Lithuanian equivalent is expressed by the prefix i-. In the case of the compound intake, the second element is regarded as the result of verb-to-noun conversion, i.e. intake: to take in but not to in take; take (v) → take (n). The following example also illustrates this particular pattern:

“Daisy, a neat dresser, fondly calls it his scarecrow outfit” (McEwan, 2006, 59).

“Deizė, tvarkingoji, meiliai vadina jį kaliausės apdaru” (McEwan, 2007, 69).

The Lithuanian equivalent of the compound is the noun apdaru, both of them convey the same lexical meaning: a set of clothes that you wear together, especially for a particular occasion or purpose (OALD and DLKŽ). The compound and its Lithuanian variant are ascribed to the same part of speech, the two are countable nouns. The second constituent of the compound noun outfit is viewed as the result of verb-to-noun conversion (outfit: to fit out but not to out fit; fit (v) → fit (n)). Both the compound and the noun apdaru occur in the singular form. Consider the following examples:

“<...> some of the overspill has rached back here” (McEwan, 2006, 61).

“<...> besirengiančiųjų nuotrupos pabiro iki pat čia” (McEwan, 2007, 72).

The Lithuanian equivalent of the compound is the phrase which comprises the present tense participle besirengiančiųjų and the noun nuotrupos. Both the compound and the phrase have the common lexical meaning: people who move out of a city because it is too crowded to an area where there is more space (OALD and DLKŽ). In the case of the compound overspill, the second component can be treated as the result of verb-to-noun conversion (overspill: to spill over but not to over spill; spill (v) → spill (n)). The compound noun occurs in the singular form, whereas the nouns in the Lithuanian phrase are used in the plural form.

4.2 Structural and semantic similarities and differences of compound adjectives

Compound adjectives built according to the pattern the noun + the adjective prevail in the following instances:
“This is the fair embodiment of an inner city byway – diverse, self-confident, obscure” (McEwan, 2006, 76).


It is worth noticing that the two compounds belong to the different parts of speech and the way they are built, i.e. self-confident is an adjective, while savikliovos is a noun built after the pattern the pronoun + the verb. Yet, both compounds possess the common lexical meaning: having confidence in yourself and your abilities (OALD and DLKŽ). Both compounds acquire an abstract meaning as well. Thus, in the compound self-confident, the element self- is the non-head, and functions as a modifier of the head (confident). In the case of savikliovos, the first element savi- denotes the object of the activity which is expressed by the second component (verb). The following example is also suitable for this pattern:

“He’s a big lad, occasionally and touchingly homesick for Guyana <...>” (McEwan, 2006, 249).

“Tai stambus vaikinas, kartkartėmis jaudinamai pasiilgsta namų Gvianoje, <...>” (McEwan, 2007, 272).

The equivalent of homesick is the verbal phrase in the Lithuanian translation. Nevertheless, the compound and the phrase have the same meaning: sad because you are away from home and you miss your family and friends (OALD and DLKŽ). The word-by-word translation of homesick would be pasiilgęs namų, however, the verb pasiilgsta was preferred instead of the adjective pasiilgęs. In this particular context, the given verb in the present tense form appears more suitable. One can also assume that the Lithuanian language is capable to produce a word in various forms or parts of speech as substitution for one English lexeme. The following example also illustrates this particular pattern:

“Strauss is a powerful, earthbound, stocky man, <...>” (McEwan, 2006, 100).

“Strausas yra galingas, tvirtai ant žemės stovintis kresnas žmogus, <...>” (McEwan, 2007, 113).

The compound earthbound and the equivalent phrase share the common lexical meaning: unable to leave the surface of the earth (OALD and DLKŽ). However, the meaning of the compound and the phrase, in this context, is used in a figurative sense. In the compound earthbound, the non-head (the element earth-) functions as an argument of the head (-bound). The compound can be turned into the following phrase: earthbound → bound to the earth. The Lithuanian phrase is rather complex which consists of a few members: the adverb tvirtai, the preposition ant along with the noun žemės and the present tense paticiple stovintis. The
component earth- can be paralleled with the prepositional part of the phrase ant žemės, while bound can be paralleled with the other part of the phrase tvirtai stovintis.

Compound adjectives belonging to the pattern the noun + the participle II + conversion dominate in the following instances:

“However appaling these heartfelt engagements, <...>” (McEwan, 2006, 86).

“Kad ir kokie baisūs būtų širdgėlos kupini susikabinimai, <...>” (McEwan, 2007, 98).

The lexical meaning of the compound and the phrase differs. The compound has such meaning as: showing strong feelings that are sincere, while the compound širdgėla is synonymous to sorrow, heartbrake (a feeling of great sadness because smth very bad has happened) (OALD). As can be seen, the patterns with the participle II move into conversion process. The Lithuanian phrase comprises the two members, i.e. the compound širdgėlos and the adjective kupini which is used in the plural form. The noun phrase širdgėlos (from širdis + gėla) kupini can be treated as a modifier of the noun susikabinimai. Consider the following examples:

“<...> he was faintly depressed by the way a whole life could be contained by a few hundred pages – bottled, like homemade chutney” (McEwan, 2006, 6).

“<...> ji nežymiai prislėgdavo mintis, jog visas gyvenimas gali štai sultpti į porą šimtų puslapių – užsuktas stiklainyje it naminės salotos” (McEwan, 2007, 15).

Naminės is a direct translation of the compound homemade. Both words are adjectives, yet the Lithuanian equivalent is not a compound. The root of the adjective nam- can be paralleled with the equivalent element home- of the compound homemade. In addition, the two words share the common lexical meaning: made at home, rather than produced in a factory and bought in a shop or store (OALD and DLKŽ). The adjective naminės is used in the plural form as it is combined with the plural noun salotos. The following sentences exemplify this pattern as well:

“At times this biography made him comfortably nostalgic for a verdant, horse-drawn, <...> England; <...>” (McEwan, 2006, 6).

“Tarpais ši biografija nutekdavo ji maloniai, nostalgiškai ir priversdavo pasigesti žaliojančios, arkliais traukiamos, <...> Anglijos; <...>” (McEwan, 2007, 15).

The compound adjective and its Lithuanian equivalent possess the common lexical meaning: (of a vehicle) pulled by a horse or horses (OALD and DLKŽ). The noun phrase arkliais traukiamos contains the two members, namely the noun arkliai which is a concrete countable noun in the plural form, and the present tense participle which agrees in gender, number and case with the proper noun it modifies – Anglijos. In the case of the
compound *horse-drawn*, the adjectivally used past participle is modified by the first component, i.e. the participle *drawn* is modified by the noun *horse*. In addition, the adjectival head of the compound acquires a passive meaning, i.e. drawn by the horse(s), while the noun-head element (*horse*) signifies the agent argument of the verb. The component *horse-* is apparently analogous with the noun *arkliais*, the component *-drawn* can be paralleled with the participle *traukiamos*.

Compound adjectives built according to the pattern the adjective + the noun + conversion prevail in the following instances:

“In the nature of things he was bound to win, but only if he moved at the *old-fashioned* pace of a slow loris” (McEwan, 2006, 47).


The two compounds differ in the way they are built: the Lithuanian equivalent *senamadišku* is made up of the adjective and the noun, while *old-fashioned* includes a noun in the phrase derivative serving as a second component. In *old-fashioned*, the adjective *old* modifies the noun *fashion*. Similarly, the structure of the compound *senamadišku* can be illustrated as such: *sena* + *madišku* = *senamadišku*. The adjective *senamadišku* coincides with the noun *žingsnė* in the instrumental case. Both compounds have the common lexical meaning: not modern, no longer fashionable (OALD and DLKŻ). The components of the compound *senamadišku* are merged with the linking element –*a*–, whereas the components of the compound *old-fashioned* are not joined with any linking element. The following instance also suits this pattern:

“<...> they read the three words again, and this time they’re bound within a *double-edged* rectangle, <...>” (McEwan, 2006, 203).

“<...> juodu drauge perskaito tuos tris žodžius, – šikart juos rėmina *dvibriaunis* stačiakampis <...>” (McEwan, 2007, 225).

The compound adjective *dvibriaunis* is a direct equivalent of the compound *double-edged*, however, their compositional structure is rather different. *Dvibriaunis* is made up of the numeral and the noun: *dvi* + *briaunos* (-*a*) + -*is*. The second element denotes the name of the object, the number is marked by the first component. The two compounds possess the common lexical meaning: having two edges (OALD and DLKŻ). The element *dvi-* can be paralleled with the element *double*, while the component *briaun-* can be paralleled with the equivalent element -*edged*. The following instances also exemplify this particular pattern:
“<..., if her mild-mannered editor wasn’t such a bruiser <...>” (McEwan, 2006, 147).

“<..., jeigu jos nuosaikių manierų redaktorius nebūtų toks knislius, <...>” (McEwan, 2007, 163).

The Lithuanian equivalent of the compound mild-mannered is the adjectival phrase. The compound and the phrase possess the common lexical meaning: (of a person) gentle and not usually getting angry or violent (OALD and DLKŽ). Thus, both the compound adjective and the phrase denotes somebody’s personal quality. In addition, the adjective, which functions as an attribute in the sentence, modifies and characterizes (describes) the noun. The form in –ed (the second element of the compound mild-mannered) is the phrase derivative. This form determines the whole compound, i.e. the component mild- modifies the noun manner, and the whole lexeme is marked by –ed. The component mild- can be paralleled with the adjective nuosaikių, -mannered is analogous with the noun manierų. Consider the following examples:

“<..., a middle-aged doctor <...> might have pondered the new century’s future” (McEwan, 2006, 276).

“<...> pusamžis gydytojas, <...> mąstė apie ateitį, kurią atneš būsimasis šimtmetis” (McEwan, 2007, 301).

The Lithuanian compound adjective and the original variant middle-aged share the common lexical meaning: (of a person) neither young nor old (OALD and DLKŽ). Both compounds are similar in the way that they are adjectives. However, they are built in a different way. Unlike the English compound, the Lithuanian one is made up according to the pattern the noun + the noun. The first element of the compound (pus-) describes the second (nominal) element. The compound is derived from the following phrase: pusamžis → kas pusės amžiaus (pusė + amžius + -is). This compound adjective modifies the noun gydytojas, and it also functions as an attribute in the sentence. By contrast, in the compound middle-aged, the component middle- modifies the noun age, the whole compound is marked by the suffix –ed. The element pus- can be paralleled with the component middle-, -amž(is) is obviously analogous with the constituent –aged.

Compound adjectives built according to the pattern the noun + the participle I + conversion prevail in the following instances:

“<..., however much he knows himself to be malinged by a patient’s poor or self-serving recollection <...>” (McEwan, 2006, 86).

“<..., kad ir kaip jis žino esąs papiktintas prastos ar savanaudės paciento atminties <...>” (McEwan, 2007, 98).
Differently from the compound *self-serving*, its equivalent compound adjective is built after the pattern *the pronoun + the noun*. Both compounds have the same meaning: interested only in gaining an advantage for yourself (OALD and DLKŻ). The pattern with the participle I also move into conversion process. The compound *savanaudės* is derived from the phrase – ‘siektantis sau naudos (savų naudai)’. The element *self* coincides with the Lithuanian *savas* (*sava*) being the common feature for the compounds of this type in both languages.

Consider the following sentences:

“*Perowne meets his eye, and with a self-deprecating, interrogative look, <...>***” (McEwan, 2006, 80).

“*Perouno akys sutinka jo žvilgsnį, ir supratingai kalta, klausiama veido išraiška <...>***” (McEwan, 2007, 91).

The Lithuanian equivalent of *self-deprecating* is a phrase which contains the adverb *supratingai* and the adjective *kalta*. Yet, the element *self-* does not prevail in the Lithuanian translation, and the lexical meaning is slightly different from that in the translation. The compound *self-depracating* is defined as follows: done in a way that makes your own achievements or abilities seem unimportant (OALD). Similarly, in Lithuanian *self-deprecating* stands for ‘menkinantis save’, here the element *self-* is clearly pointed out. In this particular context, however, the meaning does not coincide with the standard use of the word. Both the compound and the phrase modify the nouns *look* and *veido išraiška* accordingly.

Compare the following sentences:

“*Of course, Shakespeare didn’t really think he was a little sailing boat among the ocean-going competition***” (McEwan, 2006, 199).

“*Šekspyras, žinoma, iš tikrųjų nelaikė savęs mažu laiveliu vandenyno skrodėjų varžytuvėse***” (McEwan, 2007, 221).

The noun phrase *vandenyno skrodėjų* is a Lithuanian variant of the English compound *ocean-going*. The compound denotes the following lexical meaning: (of ships) made for crossing the sea or ocean, not for journeys along the coast or up rivers (OALD). The non-head (the element *ocean-*) of the compound adjective is regarded as the object of the verbal base of the head, i.e. the *ocean-going* competition is the competition during which boats cross the ocean. By contrast, the noun phrase *vandenyno skrodėjų* is referred to the people that participate in such a competition. The noun *ocean-* is clearly analogous with the noun *vandenyno*, the component -*going* can be paralleled with the noun *skrodėjų*.

Compound adjectives belonging to the pattern *the adverb + the participle I + conversion* dominate in the instances such as:
“How restful it must once have been, in another age, to be prosperous and believe that an all-knowing supernatural force <...>” (McEwan, 2006, 74).

“Kokią ramybę turėjo reikšti kadaise, kitoje epochoje, būti turtingam ir tikėti, esą visažinė antgamtinė jėga <...>” (McEwan, 2007, 85).

Differently from the compound all-knowing, its equivalent visažinė is built after the pattern the pronoun + the verb. Both compound adjectives possess the common meaning: infinitely wise. The compound visažinė can be turned into the phrase ‘viską žinanti (-is)’. The second component conveys the action (žino), the first element marks its object (viską). In the same way, all-knowing can be paraphrased as such: (to) know all. Thus, the element all coincides with the element visa-, and the element knowing coincides with the equivalent component –žin. Compare the following sentences:

“How one in his bright, plate-glass, forward-looking school ever asked him to pray, <...>” (McEwan, 2006, 32).

“No one in his bright, plate-glass, forward-looking school ever asked him to pray, <...>” (McEwan, 2006, 32).

“Niekas jo pažangioje, šviesioje stiklo plokščių mokykloje neprašė melstis <...>” (McEwan, 2007, 42).

Despite the fact that the Lithuanian equivalent of the compound forward-looking is not a compound, both of them share the same lexical meaning: planning for the future, willing to consider modern ideas and methods (OALD and DLKŽ). One can assume that the maintenance of the structure in the sentence would make it sound illogical, and the meaning would be unclear. Both adjectives modify the nouns school/mokykloje, thus, the adjective pažangioje is used in the locative case agreeing with the corresponding noun. Consider the following examples:

“This is the tidy future of his childhood science fiction comics, of men and women with tight-fitting collarless jumpsuits – <...>” (McEwan, 2006, 154).

“Štai toji tvarkinga ateitis iš jo vaikystės fantastikos komikų, kuriuose vyrai ir moterys, visi apsitemę prigludusiais triko be apykaklių, – <...>” (McEwan, 2007, 171).

Both the compound adjective tight-fitting and its Lithuanian equivalent possess the same lexical meaning: that fits very tightly or closely (OALD and DLKŽ). The Lithuanian phrase contains the two members, namely the past participle apsitemę and the adjective prigludusiais. The Lithuanian adjective prigludusiais modifies the noun triko marking a type of clothing. The element of the compound tight- is analogous with the participle apsitemę, -fitting can be paralleled with the adjective prigludusiais.

Compound adjectives built according to the pattern the adverb + the participle II + conversion prevail in the following instances:
“<...> her poem was **ill-advised** and not the sort of thing that generally won the Newdigate” (McEwan, 2006, 136).

“<...> jos eilėraštis **neišmingas** ir apskritai ne tos rūšies, kokia paprastai laimi Niudigeitq” (McEwan, 2007, 151).

The compound and its Lithuanian variant share the same lexical meaning: not sensible (OALD and DLKŽ). The two words differ with regard to voice: an **ill-advised** poem is a poem that is **advised ill** (a passive voice). In the case of the adjective **neišmingas**, a negative quality is indicated by the prefix **ne**-. The following example matches this pattern as well:

“He’s the home’s resident gent, <...>, marooned in one particular, **well-defined** fantasy <...>” (McEwan, 2006, 166).

“Jis – šių namų džentelmenas, <...>, apniktas vienintelės, **aiškiai apibrėžtos** fantazijos <...>” (McEwan, 2007, 184).

The phrase **aiškiai apibrėžtos** is a direct translation of the compound **well-defined**. Both of them share the common lexical meaning: easy to see or understand (OALD and DLKŽ). The compound has to do with the passive voice since it can be paraphrased as follows: a **well-defined** fantasy is a fantasy that is **defined well**. By contrast, the phrase **aiškiai apibrėžtos** comprises the adverb **aiškiai** and the past participle in the plural form – **apibrėžtos**. The element **well**- can be paralleled with the adverb **aiškiai**, while -**defined** – with the participle **apibrėžtos** accordingly. The following example also conforms to this particular pattern:

“Everyone too **hard-pressed** to start sorting through the old dust heaps” (McEwan, 2006, 122).


Both the compound adjective and its Lithuanian equivalent possess the common lexical meaning such as: finding something very difficult to do (OALD and DLKŽ). The Lithuanian variant is the verbal phrase that contains the verb in the present tense form **spaudžia** and the noun **darbai** used in the plural form. The compound adjective **hard-pressed** expresses a passive voice: everyone **hard-pressed** – everyone that is pressed hard. The verb **spaudžia** can be paralleled with the past participle **pressed**, however, it would probably be incorrect to relate the adjective **hard** to the noun **darbai**.

Compound adjectives built after the pattern **the adjective + the participle I + conversion** dominate in the following instances:
“<...>, Rodney Browne from Guyana, gifted, hardworking, but still unsure of himself” (McEwan, 2006, 7).

“<...> gvijanietį Rodnį Brauną, talentingą, darbštų, tačiau dar stokojantį savikliovos” (McEwan, 2007, 15).

The adjective darbštų is an exact translation of the compound hardworking. Both of them have the common lexical meaning: putting a lot of effort into a job and doing it well (OALD and DLKŽ). Thus, both words denote a personal, individual quality. The compound hardworking can be paraphrased as follows: (to) work hard. The adjective darbštų occurs in the accusative case which grammatically coincides with the proper noun Rodnį Brauną. The root of the adjective darb- can be paralleled with the root of the participle working. Consider the following sentences:

“Others were granted a magical sense of smell, or tumbled unharmed out of high-flying aircraft” (McEwan, 2006, 67).

“The Lithuanian equivalent of the compound adjective is the noun phrase containing the noun in the plural form – aukštybėse and the present tense participle – skrendančio. The noun aukštybėse can be paralleled with the adjective high, while the participle skrendančio – with the participle I flying. The Lithuanian participle skrendančio modifies the noun lėktuvo marking its property. In addition, both the compound and the noun phrase share the same lexical meaning: that flies very high in the air (OALD and DLKŽ).

Compound adjectives built according to the pattern the particle + the noun prevail in the following instances:

“<...> he hears the squeal of seagulls come inland for the city’s good pickings” (McEwan, 2006, 71).

“The Lithuanian equivalent of the compound adjective is the noun which does not appear to be a direct equivalent. The compound inland is used to mean the following: located in or near the middle of a country, not near the edge or on the coast (OALD). Yet, the noun sausuma has such a meaning: the solid part of the earth’s surface (DLKŽ). In the case of inland, the particle in can be treated as a modifier in a prepositional phrase. The noun sausumon is used in the locative case. The following example also conforms to this pattern:

“Now, those who can afford it cosset their cars here with off-street parking” (McEwan, 2006, 74).
“Dabar tie, kurie gali sau leisti šią prabangą, nuošalioje automobilių aikštelėje laiko savo mašinas” (McEwan, 2007, 86).

The equivalent of the compound off-street is also the adjective but not a compound one. The two words share the common lexical meaning: not on the public road (OALD and DLKŽ). The adjective nuošalioje modifies a noun phrase automobilių aikštelėje, it is used in the locative case as the corresponding noun phrase. Similarly, in the case of the compound off-street, the particle off is a modifier of the noun street. The following instance also suits this pattern:

“Is it pathetic folly to reach into the overhead locker for your bag, or necessary optimism?” (McEwan, 2006, 16).


Both the compound adjective and its equivalent possess the same lexical meaning: above your head (OALD and DLKŽ). The Lithuanian equivalent of the compound overhead is an adjective used in the locative case which modifies the noun spintelėje, and functions as an attribute in the sentence. In the case of the compound overhead, a prepositional phrase is transformed into a modifier, thus, the component over- modifies the noun-head.

Compound adjectives made up according to the pattern the verb + the particle prevail in the following examples:

“It’s a spray-on tan” (McEwan, 2006, 257).

“Tai purškiamas įdegio kremas” (McEwan, 2007, 281).

The compound adjective and its equivalent possess the same lexical meaning: that you can spray onto something or somebody from a special container (OALD and DLKŽ). The adjective purškiamas modifies a noun phrase įdegio kremas marking its quality. In the case of the compound spray-on, it contains a phrasal verb – (to) spray on. The root of the adjective puršk- (purkšti) is possible to parallel with the element spray- of the compound spray-on.

Compound adjectives built after the pattern the adverb + the verb dominate in the following examples:

“He concluded that viciousness had rarely been more inventive or systematic or widespread” (McEwan, 2006, 73).

“Pasidarė išvadą, kad vargu ar žiaurumas kada buvo toks išradingas, sistemingas ar taip išplitęs” (McEwan, 2007, 84).
The lexeme *išplitęs* is a direct equivalent of the compound *widespread*. Thus, both of them share the same lexical meaning: existing or happening over a large area or among many people (OALD and DLKŻ). *Išplitęs* is the past participle which is emphasized by the adverb *taip*. In the case of the compound *widespread*, the component *wide-* is an adjective in form, however, it semantically serves as an adverb. It can also be turned into such a phrase: (to) spread wide.

Compound adjectives built according to the pattern the *adverb + the adjective* prevail in the following examples:

“<...> he’s said he’s beginning to tire of these *evergreen* blues – <...>” (McEwan, 2006, 27).

“<...> Teo sakosi pradedęs pavargti nuo šių *amžinųjų* bliuzų, <...>” (McEwan, 2007, 37).

The adjective *amžinųjų* is a direct equivalent of the compound *evergreen*. The two words possess the common lexical meaning: always popular (OALD and DLKŻ). Semantically, *evergreen* is used in a figurative sense. The adjective *amžinųjų* modifies the noun *bliuzų*, and it is used in the genitive case along with the corresponding noun. The following instance corresponds to this pattern as well:

“<...> in the road itself, crawling in the *eastbound* lanes, are the same nose-to-tail coaches he saw on the news” (McEwan, 2006, 71).

“<...>, o pačia gatve ir šoninėmis gatvelėmis *rytų kryptimi* vienas po kito vėžlio žingsniu šliaužia tie patys autobusai, kuriuos jis matė per žinias” (McEwan, 2007, 82).

In this context the compound adjective *eastbound* is converted into a noun phrase in a Lithuanian variant. Both the compound and the noun phrase have the common lexical meaning: travelling or leading towards the east (OALD and DLKŻ). The noun phrase contains the noun used in the genitive case having the plural form (the nominative case – *rytai*), and the noun *kryptimi* used in the instrumental case. The noun *rytų* is possible to parallel with the equivalent element *east-* , *kryptimi* – with the element *-bound*.

Compound adjectives built after the pattern the *noun-based adverbial + the adjective* prevail in the following instances:

“<...> her hair has fallen forwards across her face, giving her a *carefree*, <...> air” (McEwan, 2006, 263).

“<...> plaukai, užkritę į priekį ant veido, daro ją iš pažiūros *nerūpestingą*, <...>” (McEwan, 2007, 287).

The adjective *nerūpestingą* is a direct equivalent of the compound adjective *carefree*. Both words share the common lexical meaning: having no worries or responsibilities...
(OALD and DLKŽ). These two adjectives have a slightly negative shade of meaning which is especially highlighted by the prefix ne- in the adjective nerūpestingą. The latter adjective can be turned into such phrase as be rūpesčiu. By contrast, in the case of the compound carefree, prepositional complementation is apparent, i.e. carefree – free from care. The adjective nerūpestingą coincides with the personal pronoun ja in the accusative case in such a way marking a personal characteristic denoted by the adjective.
CONCLUSIONS

The data analysis was subjected to comparison of 14 compositional patterns of compound nouns and 14 compositional patterns of compound adjectives in the English and Lithuanian languages. The analysis was also based on the semantic relations of compounds. The results of the study were based on the novel “Saturday” by Ian McEwan and its translation into Lithuanian “Šeštadienis” (the translator – Mėta Žukaitė) and compared to the compositional patterns in the language system.

The analysis revealed that only three out of sixteen compositional patterns of compound nouns coincide in the comparable languages, namely the noun + the noun, the noun + the verb and the adjective + the noun.

The rest of the patterns, which constitute the biggest part, do not coincide. In such patterns only one element of compounds differs, i.e. in the English compound the first element can be the noun, while in its Lithuanian equivalent the first component can be the adjective, for example, the noun + the noun (in English) vs. the adjective + the noun (in Lithuanian); the noun + the noun (in English) vs. the pronoun + the noun (in Lithuanian); the noun + the agential noun in –er (in English) vs. the noun + the verb (in Lithuanian); the noun + the noun (in English) vs. the noun + the verb (in Lithuanian); the noun + the deverbal noun (in English) vs. the pronoun + the verb (in Lithuanian).

Despite the fact that most of the patterns vary, they may coincide if the two compounds belong to different parts of speech, i.e. the same pattern can be applied e.g. to English compound nouns and to Lithuanian compound adjectives (e.g. the English noun- and the Lithuanian adjective-building pattern the adjective + the noun). However, there is no such case when the patterns of English compound nouns and Lithuanian compound adjectives differ.

Furthermore, the findings of the analysis demonstrated that the Lithuanian equivalents may also be complex phrases. The vast majority of the Lithuanian phrases are noun phrases, adjectival and verbal phrases.

Moreover, it turned out that even one lexeme in Lithuanian can substitute for the English compound noun. The majority of them are nouns, adjectives or verbal forms (e.g. daydreaming and užsisvajoti). By contrast, English words may also be replaced with Lithuanian compound nouns. The major part of such equivalents are nouns and adjectives. This may imply that the Lithuanian language is complex and capable to produce a word in various forms or parts of speech as substitution for one English lexeme.
In addition, the analysis showed that the most frequent linking element in Lithuanian compound nouns is the vowel –a–, the second most frequent linking elements are –ia– and –i–, the least frequent are the vowels –o– and –ė–.

On the contrary, in the novel “Saturday” no constituents of the English compounds are merged with any linking element (e.g. weekday and šiokiašiadieniais). Although, in the system of the English language the phenomenon with the linking vowel or consonant exists. This fact may signal that Lithuanian compounds are more crowded with consonants which are difficult to pronounce, as a result, the linking vowel intervenes between them making them easier to utter.

Moreover, the research also exhibited that in Lithuanian compound adjectives the most frequent linking element is the vowel –a–, while the least frequent element is the vowel –i–.

By contrast, in the novel “Saturday” the components of the English compound adjectives are not concatenated by any linking element (e.g. old-fashioned and senamadišku). Although, in the system of the English language the phenomenon with the linking vowel or consonant exists. Such discrepancy between the two languages suggests that elements of English compounds may be not joined with a linking element since most of them are hyphenated or closed, whereas Lithuanian compounds are only closed. Therefore, components of English compound adjectives do not tend to be separated twice as they may already be isolated with the hyphen.

Regarding the semantic features of English and Lithuanian compound nouns, the results of the analysis disclosed that the most frequent adverbial relations found are that of purpose. The second most frequent relations are instrumental, whereas the least frequent ones are that of place and time.

Both English and Lithuanian noun phrases can also express the same adverbial relations. Purpose relations are expressed by the preposition for in English, whereas, in Lithuanian the pronoun kuris (kūris) or the adjective skirtas (skirta) conveys purpose. Instrumental relations are mostly expressed with the help of the prepositions with and su in English and Lithuanian.

Taking into consideration the compound adjective-building patterns, the results of data analysis disclosed that no same patterns of the English and Lithuanian equivalents can be found.

Quite a few patterns differ where at least one component in each pattern is different, for instance, (in English) the noun + the participle I + conversion vs. (in Lithuanian) the pronoun + the noun; (in English) the adjective + the noun + conversion vs.
the numeral + the noun (in Lithuanian); (in English) the adverb + the Participle I + conversion vs. (in Lithuanian) the pronoun + the verb).

In spite of the fact that the majority of the patterns are unlike, compounds may coincide either if they belong to the same or different parts of speech, and if they are built after the different or same patterns (e.g. the English adjective-building pattern the noun + the adjective vs. the Lithuanian noun-building pattern the pronoun + the verb; the English noun-building pattern the adjective + the noun vs. the Lithuanian adjective-building pattern the adjective + the noun; the English and Lithuanian adjective-building patterns the adjective + the noun + conversion vs. the numeral + the noun; the adverb + the Participle I + conversion vs. the pronoun + the verb).

Furthermore, the analysis also exhibited that the large number of equivalents of compounds are complex phrases. The most frequent are noun phrases, while the less frequent are verbal and adjectival phrases in both languages.

In addition, it came out that English compound adjectives may also be substituted by one Lithuanian lexeme, mostly by the adjective, less by the noun or by the verb.
SANTRAUKA

Šio darbo tikslas – ištirti sudurtinius daiktavardžius ir sudurtinius būdvardžius anglų ir lietuvių kalbose; nustatyti jų darybos modelius ir išanalizuoti struktūrinius bruožus bei semantinius ryšius sudurtiniuose žodžiuose.


Atlikus tyrimo duomenų analizę, buvo nustatyta 14 sudurtinių daiktavardžių darybos modelių ir 14 sudurtinių būdvardžių darybos modelių anglų ir lietuvių kalbose. Tyrimas parodė, kad tik trys sudurtinių daiktavardžių darybos modeliai sutampa abiejose kalbose (the noun + the noun; the noun + the verb; the adjective + the noun). Tačiau, sudurtiniai būdvardžiai, kurie buvo surinkti iš abiejų romanų, neturi vienodų modelių. Analizė atskleidė, kad gausiausia grupė yra tokių sudurtinių žodžių, kuriuos vienas ar du patminiai žodžiai skiriasi (the noun + the noun (anglų kalboje) ir the adjective + the noun (lietuvių kalboje); the noun + the noun (anglų kalboje) ir the pronoun + the noun (lietuvių kalboje)). Sudurtiniai žodžiai anglų ir lietuvių kalbose gali sutapti, kai jie priklauso skirtingoms ar vienodomis kalbos dalims, ar kai jų darybos modeliai skiriasi (anglų kalbos sudurtinių būdvardžių darybos modelis: the adjective + the noun + conversion ir lietuvių kalbos sudurtinių būdvardžių darybos modelis: the adjective + the noun; anglų kalbos sudurtinių daiktavardžių ir lietuvių kalbos sudurtinių būdvardžių darybos modelis: the adjective + the noun). Išvados rodo, kad anglų kalbos sudurtinių daiktavardžių ir sudurtinių būdvardžių lietuviški atitikmenys gali būti sudėtiniai žodžių junginiai, dažniausiai tai – daiktavardiniai ir būdvardiniai, rečiau – veiksmažodiniai junginiai. Lietuvių kalbos atitikmuo taip pat gali būti vienas žodis – daiktavardis, būdvardis, veiksmažodis ar tam tikra veiksmažodinė forma. Analizė atskleidė, kad dažniausia lietuvių kalbos sudurtinių žodžių jungiamųjų dalelytė yra balsė –a–. Priešingai, anglų kalbos sudurtiniai žodžiai, kurie buvo surinkti iš romano, neturi jokių jungiamųjų dalelyčių. Tačiau, anglų kalboje sudurtiniai žodžiai gali turėti jungiamąsias dalelytes – balį ar pribalsį. Išvados rodo, kad gausiausia sudurtinių ryšių grupė yra tikslų ir instrumentinių. Anglų kalboje priešingai, galima naudotis išreiškiniais, o lietuvių kalboje išreiškiniai gali išreiškėti įvairius dalykus tikslų ir instrumentinių. Anglų kalboje priešingai, galima naudotis išreiškiniais, o lietuvių kalboje išreiškiniai gali išreiškėti įvairius dalykus tikslų ir instrumentinių. Anglų kalboje priešingai, galima naudotis išreiškiniais, o lietuvių kalboje išreiškiniai gali išreiškėti įvairius dalykus tikslų ir instrumentinių. Anglų kalboje priešingai, galima naudotis išreiškiniais, o lietuvių kalboje išreiškiniai gali išreiškėti įvairius dalykus tikslų ir instrumentinių.
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