

Productive word-formation types of compound neologisms in the Lithuanian language

Produktīvie jauno salikteņu darināšanas tipi lietuviešu valodā

Jolanta Vaskelienė

Šiauliai Academy Vilnius University
84 Vytauto St., Šiauliai, LT-76352, Lithuania
E-mail: jolanta.vaskeliene@sa.vu.lt

The article is dedicated to neologisms of the most productive word-formation types of nominal and adjectival compounds. The study is based on the data of the analysis of 355 compounds (244 nouns and 111 adjectives) of four word-formation types.

The study of neologisms has shown that the sequence of the most productive types of nominal compounds (*noun + noun*, *adjective + noun*) remains the same as indicated in grammars. The most productive word-formation type, *noun + noun*, includes 70% of nominal neologisms. Thus, this word-formation type both in the past and present is the most productive.

Nouns of both word-formation types meet the requirements of word-formation. Compounds are derived with an interfix (56%) and without it (44%). There remains a tendency to be based on base words of simple structure (78% of compounds are based on morphemically indivisible stems of base words).

The sequence of the most productive types of adjectival compounds also remained the same: the most productive type is *adjective + noun* (85% of adjectival compounds), the second most productive type is *noun + noun* (15%). 89% of compounds have an interfix. 65% of compounds are based on base words with morphemically indivisible stems.

All neologisms are based on the base words included in the dictionaries.

The meanings of all neologisms become clear from a minimal or wider context. Productivity of the word-formation type and knowledge of analogical real compounds also help to understand the meaning of a compound. Many neologisms are words with a negative connotation, often they are names of persons.

Keywords: productivity; neologism; word-formation type; compound; component; base word.

Introduction

In Lithuanian, the majority of complex words are formed by means of two word-formation processes – derivation and composition (Stundžia 2016, 3090). Nouns and adjectives of the Lithuanian language are characterized by all ways of forming words: four main ones (suffixation, prefixation, paradigmatic derivation (conversion), composition) and

a mixed one (usually prefixation-suffixation and composition-suffixation). According to these methods of word-formation, formations of various types have been formed. The word-formation type is both a characteristic of existing formations and a scheme for the formation of potential (new) words. Formations of the same word-formation type coincide in three differential features: the categorical meaning of the formation, the part of speech of the base word (or base words) and the derivational formant (Urbutis 2009, 293–308; cf. Kalme, Smiltiece 2001, 44–45; Soida 2009, 56–61). In terms of productivity, the types of formation are quite different – some word-formation types have a large number of real formations (included in dictionaries), while others have few formations, there are also isolated formations. Neologisms are formed according to both highly productive types and non-productive ones (a neologism can also be made with a rare, dialectal suffix, etc.). Sometimes, one talks about empirical productivity, i.e., the one that is realized and reflected by neologisms, distinguishing it from the systemic one, limited by the language system itself (see more in Urbutis 2009, 311–312).

In recent years, novel words in the Lithuanian language (including neologisms) published in the constantly updated Database of Lithuanian Neologisms have attracted the attention of researchers (Murmulaitytė 2021; Aleksaitė 2022; cf. Miliūnaitė 2018). Neologisms found in the texts of Lithuanian authors were selected as the object of this study. The author draws upon a personal database of 1500 neologisms manually collected for about 20 years. Neologism sources are various texts (60 books) of 30 Lithuanian authors of the second half of the 20th century and the 21st century. Neologisms are considered to be formations not recorded in the supporting sources – „Dabartinės lietuvių kalbos žodynas” (DLKŽ) (Dictionary of the Modern Lithuanian Language), „Bendrinės lietuvių kalbos žodynas” (BLKŽ) (Dictionary of the Standard Lithuanian Language), „Lietuvių kalbos žodynas” (LKŽ) (Dictionary of the Lithuanian Language) and „Lietuvių kalbos žodyno” Papildymų kartoteka (LKŽPK) (Supplement Catalogue of the Dictionary of the Lithuanian Language).

The author raises a question whether the productive word-formation types of compounds have changed. The aim of the article is to discuss the neologisms belonging to the most productive (derivable) word-formation types of compounds. The study is based on the data of the analysis of 355 neologisms (244 nouns and 111 adjectives). The quantitatively most numerous groups of compounds were selected after analysing about 1500 neologisms of various word-formation types. To achieve the aim of the article, the following objectives are set:

- 1) to select the most numerous groups of compounds from neologisms selected from the texts of Lithuanian authors and analysed in terms of word-formation;
- 2) to discuss neologisms belonging to the most productive word-formation types in terms of word-formation and semantics, to highlight some aspects of use;
- 3) in order to grasp the tendencies characteristic of nominal neologisms, to compare the obtained data with the results of the research on neologisms in the Database of Lithuanian Neologisms (Miliūnaitė, Aleksaitė; Murmulaitytė 2021; Aleksaitė 2022).

In the article, productivity is examined through a quantitative perspective, the methods of derivational and semantic analysis were applied, and the method of interpretation is used. The research adopts an inductive approach, ranging from the analysis of specific formations to insights of a generalised nature.

1. Productivity. Compounding. Productive word-formation types of nominal and adjectival compounds

Productivity or derivability is usually considered to be a quantitative trait, i.e., a type, according to the pattern of which tens and hundreds of formations are/were formed, is considered productive or derivable. There are those who believe that productivity belongs to diachrony, because productivity of the word-formation type can only be discussed from a historical perspective (more about the concepts of productivity, see Urbūtis 2009, 309–314; cf. Baayen 1991; 2009; Pustyl'nikov, Schneider-Wiejowski 2009). In synchronous word-formation, the productivity of the word-formation type is usually understood as the power of the type to serve as a pattern of word-formation, its ability to give neologisms. “When we call a morphological pattern productive, we mean that this pattern can be extended to new cases, can be used to form new words” (Booij 2005, 68; cf. Bauer 2001; 2005; Lieber, Štekauer 2014, 67–83).

In all languages that have word formation, some types of patterns produce more neologisms and others produce fewer neologisms (or none), however, a considerable proportion of neologisms usually belong to productive word-formation types. In addition, it is often emphasized that it is precisely neologisms that are an excellent indicator of productivity: “A more promising way of determining the productivity of an affix is counting those derivatives that were newly coined in a given period, the so-called neologisms” (Brown 2005, 8421; about the word-formation types of different productivity in different languages (Spanish, English, German, etc.), see Greenbaum 1996, 442, 457; Booij 2005, 67–71; Hein, Engelberg 2017; about productivity in Italian, see Gaeta, Ricca 2006; about the formation of nominal and adjectival compounds in Latvian, see Kalme, Smiltņiece 2001, 80–84, 127–130; about compound genitives in Latvian, cf. Kalnača, Lokmane 2016).

A compound is a lexical unit consisting of more than one element and functioning both grammatically and semantically as a single word (Quirk et al. 1985, 1567; cf. Plag 2003, 173; Olsen 2015). In the Lithuanian language, as in some other languages, most compounds are nouns and adjectives (Stundžia 2016, 3091–3093; cf. Navickaitė-Klišauskienė 2016, 3107–3111; Müller et al. 2016). About half of the compounds in Lithuanian have interfixes (combining vowels) *-(i)a-*, *-i-*, *-(i)o*, *-ė-*, *-(i)u-*, *-y-*, *-(i)ū-*. Interfix *-(i)a-* is the most common in nominal and adjectival compounding. Compounds are also derived without an interfix, phonetic circumstances and features of base words play a considerable role here. Compounds in Lithuanian belong to various inflectional paradigms (IP) but very often they have endings (nominative singular) *-is/-ys* and *-ė*.

Scholars usually describe word-formation types of compounds according to the parts of speech of the base words, i.e., it is about the *noun + noun* word-formation

type, *adjective + noun*, *noun + verb*, and other types. In Lithuanian linguistics, nominal compounds are more broadly divided according to the word that is the basis of the second component: nominal compounds with the second nominal component, compounds with the second verbal component are distinguished, and usually fourteen word-formation types of compound formation are indicated. Almost three-quarters of all compounds used in contemporary language consist of compounds with a noun as the second component.

According to productivity, the word-formation types of compounds with the second noun component are arranged in the following order: *noun + noun* (they make up the greater part of all nominal compounds with the second nominal component), e.g. *krauj-a-gysl-ė* ‘blood-vessel’ (← *krauj-as* ‘blood’, interfix *-a-*, *gysl-a* ‘vein’, IP *-ė*), *adjective + noun* (there are more than a fifth of them), e.g. *silpn-a-prot-is, -ė* ‘weak-minded’ (← *silpnas, -a* ‘weak’, interfix *-a-*, *prot-as* ‘mind’, IPs *-is, -ė*), *numeral + noun* (less than a tenth), e.g. *vien-ak-is, -ė* ‘monocular’ (← *vien-as, -a* ‘one’, *ak-is* ‘eye’, IPs *-is, -ė*), *verb + noun*, e.g. *rūg-pien-is* ‘clabber’ (← *rūg-ti* ‘sour’, *pien-as* ‘milk’, IP *-is*), *adverb + noun*, e.g. *gret-a-sien-is* ‘parallelepiped’ (← *greta* ‘alongside’, interfix *-a-*, *sien-a* ‘wall’, IP *-is*), *preposition + noun*, e.g. *tarp-u-vart-ė* ‘gateway’ (← *tarp* ‘between’, interfix *-u-*, *vart-ai* ‘gate’, IP *-ė*), *pronoun + noun* (the latter are much fewer), e.g. *kit-a-taut-is, -ė* ‘foreign-born’ (← *kit-as, -a* ‘other’, interfix *-a-*, *taut-a* ‘nation’, IPs *-is, -ė*). As a rule, the first member of compounds with a verbal second component is a noun, e.g. *saul-ė-tek-is* ‘sunrise’ (← *saul-ė* ‘sun’, interfix *-ė-*, *tek-a* PRS of *tekė-ti* ‘rise’, IP *-is*).

In some compounds of two nouns, the second components (in the English language, *-man*, e.g., *fireman, frogman*, in the Lithuanian language, *-gal-* ‘end’, e.g., *piemen-gal-is* (the derogatory form of *piemuo* ‘shepherd’) (← *piemen-s* GEN of *piem-uo* ‘shepherd’, *gal-as* ‘end’, IP *-is*), *vaik-i-gal-is* (the derogatory form of *vaikas* ‘child’) (← *vaik-as* ‘child’, interfix *-i-*, *gal-as* ‘end’, IP *-is*), become similar to derivational formants, sometimes they are even treated as suffixes (Quirk et al. 1985, 1575) or semi-suffixes (Lieber, Štekauer 2014, 359) rather than as separate base words. In the Lithuanian language, compounds with the component *šun-* ‘dog’, e.g., *šun-daktar-is* ‘bad doctor’, ‘charlatan’ (← *šun-s* GEN of *š-uo* ‘dog’, *daktar-as* ‘doctor’, IP *-is*), *šun-kelel-is* ‘bad road’, ‘byroad’ (← *šun-s* GEN of *š-uo* ‘dog’, *kelel-ias* ‘road’, IP *-is*), are usually distant from the base word, they often denote the meaning of falseness, relating to disparagement or contempt. Sometimes compounds of two nouns, the first component of which is based on the nouns *arkl-ys* ‘horse’, *vilk-as* ‘wolf’ denoting animals or beasts, also have this meaning, e.g.: *arkl-ia-rūgšt-ė* ‘horseradish’ (← *arkl-ys* ‘horse’, interfix *-ia-*, *rūgšt-is* ‘acid’, IP *-ė*), *vilk-uog-ė* ‘the herb Paris’ (← *vilk-as* ‘wolf’, *uog-a* ‘berry’, IP *-ė*) (see more in Ulvydas 1965, 442–443; on nominal compounding in contemporary Lithuanian, see Keinys 1999, 69–74; Ambrazas 2005, 151–167).

Lithuanian adjectival compounds are primarily divided into the group of compounds with the second nominal component and the group of compounds with the second verbal component – compounds with the second nominal component are much more numerous than compounds with the second verbal component. Usually, 13 word-formation types of compounds are indicated (on adjectival compounding

in contemporary Lithuanian, see Keinys 1999, 80–82; Ambrazas 2005, 228–236; cf. Ulvydas 1965, 591–603).

Of the noun compounds, the *noun + noun* type compounds stand out in productivity. This is the most productive type of compounds not only in Baltic and Germanic languages, but also in many other Indo-European languages. In English, where nominal compounds of two nouns are the most productive type of nominal compounds, compounds are sometimes classified in more detail according to the origin of the noun underlying the first or second component, thus, not only the type *noun + noun*, but also *noun + deverbal noun*, *noun + verbal noun in -ing*, *verbal noun in -ing + noun*, *noun + agential noun in -er*, etc. are distinguished (Quirk et al. 1985, 1571–1573; about English and Italian compounds from two nouns, see Malmkjær 2010, 371; Radimsky 2015; cf. Benczes 2005).

It can be said that the compound *noun + noun* type includes not only the real compounds presented in Lithuanian lexicographical sources, but also the largest part of neologisms included in the Database of Lithuanian Neologisms. In fact, the studies of the same source from different periods show a somewhat different sequence of productive types: Murmulaitytė's (2021, 80) study revealed that the second type of compounds with the most formations is *verb + noun*, the third one is *adjective + verb*, meanwhile, a somewhat later study by Aleksaitė (2022, 108) of the same source, but with a different amount of empirical material, showed that the second most abundant type is the *adjective + noun* type, and the third one is the *verb + noun* type. Regarding adjective formation, the *adjective + noun* type is considered the most productive in the Baltic and Germanic languages (Stundžia, Jarmalavičius 2019, 42, 337).

According to the syntactic-semantic relations of the components, all compounds are generally divided into determinative and copulative ones (Kalme, Smilniece 2001, 81, 127–128; Ambrazas 2008, 148–149; Kalnača, Lokmane 2021, 69–71; there are other classifications of compounds, for example, four semantic types of compound formations are mentioned in Malmkjær 2010, 371). In determinative compounds, one component (mostly the first one) determines (defines) another (mostly the second one) by narrowing its meaning. For example, the first *noun + noun* component indicates purpose, belonging, time, place, etc., in *adjective + noun* compounds, the adjectival component indicates a characteristic feature of the named thing, etc.

The majority of compounds in various languages including Lithuanian are determinative (Stundžia 2016, 3091; cf. Stundžia, Jarmalavičius 2019, 345). Both components of copulative compounds are equally independent in terms of grammatical relation and meaning. This type is characterized by the fact that none of the two members of the compound is more semantically prominent than the other, but both members equally contribute to the meaning of the compound. Plag (2003, 187–188) distinguishes two sub-types of copulative compounds: appositional compounds, coordinative compounds (about the two types of Lithuanian *noun + noun* copulative compounds according to the relationship of meaning, see Ambrazas 2005, 152). There are much fewer copulative compounds than determinative compounds, this applies to both English and Lithuanian (Ulvydas 1965, 441–442; Nakov 2013, 9). For example, most *noun + noun* nouns, all *adjective + noun* adjectives are determinative – their first adjective

component always defines (determines) their second noun component. Both noun and adjective compounds sometimes have a literal meaning, i.e., their lexical meaning basically coincides with the derivational meaning or differs in greater specialization, e.g. *žvyr-duob-ė* ‘gravel pit’ (← *žvyr-as* ‘gravel’, *duob-ė* ‘pit’), *ilg-a-kakl-is, -ė* ‘long-necked’ (← *ilg-as, -a* ‘long’, interfix *-a-*, *kakl-as* ‘neck’, IPs *-is, -ė*). However, some compounds also have a figurative – metonymic, metaphorical or metonymic-metaphorical – meaning, i.e., the lexical meaning of compounds is far from the derivational meaning, e.g. *vilk-dalg-is* ‘iris’ (← *vilk-as* ‘wolf’, *dalg-is* ‘scythe’) (see more in Keinys 1999, 71–72; Ambrazas 2005, 151–154, 228–229).

In the Lithuanian language, both nominal and adjectival compounds are derived from base words of various structures and origins, it is much more common to make them from primary words (not formations) (Keinys 1999, 72; Ambrazas 2005, 153, 228). Studies of neologisms recorded in the Database of Lithuanian Neologisms show somewhat different tendencies – although the tendency to be based on base words with the simplest possible structure remains, however, there is an increase in compounds, the base words of which are various derivatives of suffixes, prefixes or even compounds (see more in Murmulaitytė 2021, 82–88).

Both Lithuanian and other languages have iterative (reduplicative) compounds (Ulvydas 1965, 473, 603; Allan 2016, 108; Stundžia 2016, 3105), e.g., *maž-mož-is* ‘trifle’ (← *maž-as, -a* ‘small’, IP *-is*), *niek-niek-is* ‘trifle; nothing’ (← *niek-as* ‘nothing’, IP *-is*).

2. Productive word-formation types of nominal and adjectival neologisms

In general, neologisms are derived according to various word-formation types, however, the two most numerous groups of nominal and adjectival compounds were selected for the study. The analysis of the collected empirical material revealed that most compound neologisms belong to two word-formation types of nominal compounds and two types of adjectival compounds (see Figure).

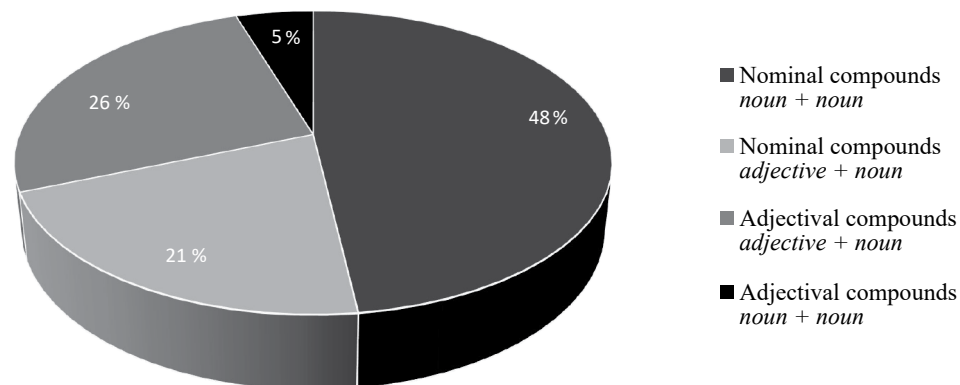


Figure. Word-formation types of neologisms

2.1. Nominal compounds

Word-formation types *noun + noun* and *adjective + noun* are the most productive in nominal compounding of neologisms.

2.1.1. Nominal compounds of the word-formation type *noun + noun*

The largest group of neologisms consists of compounds from two nouns: 70% of nominal compounds (or 48% of all neologisms) belong to this word-formation type. The absolute majority of compounds are determinative. The lexical meaning of such compounds is equal to the meaning of the word combination, it is often clear even without a context or becomes clear from a minimal context. The noun represented by the first component of compounds narrows and specifies the meaning of the noun that is the second component, the following points are indicated:

- (1) **belonging**, e.g.: *apelsin-žied-is* JM70 ‘orange blossom’ (← *apelsin-as* ‘orange’, *žied-as* ‘blossom’, IP *-is*), *diev-o-vaizd-is* SKV457 ‘image of god’ (← *diev-as* ‘god’, interfix *-o-*, *vaizd-as* ‘image, picture’, IP *-is*), *lang-a-stikl-is* EK155 ‘window glass’ (← *lang-as* ‘window’, interfix *-a-*, *stikl-as* ‘glass’, IP *-is*), *mus-ia-gars-is* ST234 ‘sound made by a fly’ (← *mus-ē* ‘fly’, interfix *-ia-*, *gars-as* ‘sound’, IP *-is*);
- (2) **location**, e.g.: *bad-a-viet-ē* KE171 ‘place of famine’ (← *bad-as* ‘famine’, interfix *-a-*, *viet-a* ‘place’, IP *-ē*), *žvyr-lom-ē* AŽII148 ‘gravel pit’ (← *žvyr-as* ‘gravel’, *lom-a* ‘lowland’, IP *-ē*);
- (3) **characteristic material feature**, e.g.: *mūr-nam-is* SRIII22 ‘brick house’ (← *mūr-as* ‘masonry’, *nam-as* ‘house’, IP *-is*), *od-maiš-is* AŽII319 ‘leather bag’ (← *od-a* ‘leather’, *maiš-as* ‘bag; sack’, IP *-is*);
- (4) **time**, e.g.: *eil-ia-met-is* AŽII297 ‘time to write verses’ (← *eil-ēs* ‘verses’, interfix *-ia-*, *met-as* ‘time’, IP *-is*), *speig-met-is* JSIII16 ‘cold season’ (← *speig-as* ‘frost’, *met-as* ‘time’, IP *-is*);
- (5) **concept of a kind**, e.g.: *burok-lemp-ē* JM158 ‘lamp made of beetroot’ (← *burok-as* ‘beetroot’, *lemp-a* ‘lamp’, IP *-ē*), *mait-paukšt-is* AŽII327 ‘bird feeding on carrion’ (← *mait-a* ‘carrion’, *paukšt-is* ‘bird’).

In some neologisms, the second component determines the first one, e.g., *vidur-kakt-is* SR112 ‘middle of the forehead’ (← *vidur-ys* ‘middle’, *kakt-a* ‘forehead’, IP *-is*), *gal-a-vasar-is* AŽII229 ‘end of summer’ (← *gal-as* ‘end’, interfix *-a-*, *vasar-a* ‘summer’, IP *-is*). The components of some compounds are distant from the nouns from which they are derived, they resemble an affix (prefix or suffix) more than an independent noun. For example, the incompleteness or falseness of the spoken object is shown by the neologism component *pus-* ‘half’:

- (6) *pus-alksn-is* AŽII128 ‘not completely grown alder’ (← *pus-ē* ‘half’, *alksn-is* ‘alder’), *pus-berž-is* AŽII206 ‘not completely grown birch’ (← *pus-ē* ‘half’, *berž-as* ‘birch’, IP *-is*), *pus-bebr-is* AŽII165 ‘quite a big beaver’ (← *pus-ē* ‘half’,

bebr-as ‘beaver’, IP *-is*), *pus-šlait-is* AŽII139 ‘quite a big slope’ (← *pus-ē* ‘half’, *šlait-as* ‘slope’, IP *-is*), *pus-ministr-is* TA209 ‘fake minister’ (← *pus-ē* ‘half’, *ministr-as* ‘minister’, IP *-is*) – the latter compound refers to a person derogatorily.

Compounds with the components *šun-* ‘dog’, *vilk-* ‘wolf’, have the same meaning of falseness with a tinge of disparagement, e.g.:

- (7) *šun-rim-is* AŽII104, 118 ‘poor rhyme’ (← *šun-s* GEN of *š-uo* ‘dog’, *rim-as* ‘rhyme’, IP *-is*), *vilk-slyv-ē* AŽII106 ‘poor (wild) plum’ (← *vilk-as* ‘wolf’, *slyv-a* ‘plum’, IP *-ē*), *vilk-valand-ē* Kal438, 439 ‘dangerous (dark) hour’ (← *vilk-as* ‘wolf’, *valand-a* ‘hour’, IP *-ē*).

Although compounds with the second component *-gal-* ‘end’ in the Lithuanian language often have a derogatory meaning (e.g., *drabuž-gal-is* ‘poor clothing; rag’ (← *drabuž-is* ‘clothing’, *gal-as* ‘end’, IP *-is*), the meaning of neologisms with this component basically coincides with the lexical meaning of the noun *gal-as* ‘end’, e.g.:

- (8) *ruden-gal-is* AŽII342 ‘end of autumn’ (← *ruden-s* GEN of *rud-uo* ‘autumn’, *gal-as* ‘end’, IP *-is*), *laik-a-gal-is* AŽII150 ‘end of time’ (← *laik-as* ‘time’, interfix *-a-*, *gal-as* ‘end’, IP *-is*), *dagt-i-gal-is* SRIII16 ‘tip of the wick’ (← *dagt-is* ‘wick’, interfix *-i-*, *gal-as* ‘tip; end’, IP *-is*), *pilv-a-gal-ē* AŽII243 ‘lower abdomen’ (← *pilv-as* ‘abdomen’, interfix *-a-*, *gal-as* ‘end’, IP *-is*).

Some neologisms from two nouns have a figurative meaning. These are mostly formations naming persons. External signs are taken as the basis of measurement, e.g., a person who looks like a Greek is called *graik-a-veid-is* MRR93 ‘Greek-faced’ (← *graik-as* ‘Greek’, interfix *-a-*, *veid-as* ‘face’, IP *-is*), a man with a moustache is called *žab-ūs-is* SKS195 ‘twig-moustached’ (← *žab-ai* ‘brushwood’, *ūs-ai* ‘moustache’, IP *-is*), an obese person is called *kubil-tauk-is* BUT114 ‘tub of lard’ (← *kubil-as* ‘tub’, *tauk-ai* ‘fat’, IP *-is*), a large person is called *drambl-ia-koj-is* KE174 ‘elephant-footed’ (← *drambl-ys* ‘elephant’, interfix *-ia-*, *koj-a* ‘foot’, IP *-is*), a person with a big head is called *jauč-ia-galv-is* JM180 ‘bull-headed’ (← *jauč-io* GEN of *jaut-is* ‘bull’, interfix *-ia-*, *galv-a* ‘head’, IP *-is*), etc. Often, some internal feature is brought up as well, e.g., an evil man is called *gyvul-ia-žmog-is* Jas148 ‘animal man’ (← *gyvul-ys* ‘animal’, interfix *-ia-*, *žmog-us* ‘man’, IP *-is*), or *žvēr-ia-žmog-is* Jas142 ‘beast man’ (← *žvēr-is* ‘beast’, interfix *-ia-*, *žmog-us* ‘man’, IP *-is*), a wise person is called *žin-ia-žmog-is* Ivan445 ‘knowledge man’ (← *žini-a* ‘knowledge’, interfix *-ia-*, *žmog-us* ‘man’, IP *-is*), *žyn-ia-vyr-is* Ivan445 ‘knowledge man’ (← *žyn-ys* ‘oracle’, interfix *-ia-*, *vyr-as* ‘man’, IP *-is*), a fool or a jerk is called *šaukšt-a-prot-is* MS211 ‘spoon-brained’ (← *šaukšt-as* ‘spoon’, interfix *-a-*, *prot-as* ‘brain’, IP *-is*), the following compounds have a negative connotation (reveal a negative assessment): *gaid-pon-is* BLB242 ‘rooster gentleman’ (← *gaid-ys* ‘cock’, *pon-as* ‘gentleman’, IP *-is*), *šun-vaik-is* AŽII208 ‘bad child; dog child’ (← *šun-s* GEN. OF *š-uo* ‘dog’, *vaik-as* ‘child’, IP *-is*), *šun-žmog-is* JSII240 ‘bad person; dog man’ (← *šun-s* GEN. OF *š-uo* ‘dog’, *žmog-us* ‘person’, IP *-is*), *vikšr-ia-žmogis* ST130 ‘caterpillar man’ (← *vikšr-as* ‘caterpillar’, interfix *-ia-*, *žmog-us* ‘man’, IP *-is*), *višt-žmog-is* AŽII259 ‘hen man’ (← *višt-a* ‘hen’, *žmog-us* ‘man’, IP *-is*), *žiurk-ia-žmog-is* ST289 ‘rat man’

(← *žiurk-ē* ‘rat’, interfix *-ia-*, *žmog-us* ‘man’, IP *-is*) – they are all derogatory names for people. Some compounds that name various inanimate things also have a figurative meaning, often personified, e.g., an apple is called *sod-a-vyr-is* AŽI240 ‘garden man’ (← *sod-as* ‘garden’, interfix *-a-*, *vyr-as* ‘man’, IP *-is*), the stumps of cut pine trees are called *puš-aši-ai* SKS115 ‘pine axles’ (← *puš-is* ‘pine’, *aš-is* ‘axle’, IP *-(i)ai*), an ornate saddle similar to a throne is called *sost-a-baln-is* MS484 ‘throne saddle’ (← *sost-as* ‘throne’, interfix *-a-*, *baln-as* ‘saddle’, IP *-is*), pleasant speech is called *siel-o-kalb-a* SN35 ‘soul speech’ (← *siel-a* ‘soul’, interfix *-o-*, *kalb-a* ‘speech’), worry (anxiety) is called *šird-a-duob-ē* BUT132 ‘heart pit’ (← *šird-is* ‘heart’, interfix *-a-*, *duob-ē* ‘pit’), St. John’s wort is called *vard-a-žol-ē* JSII65 ‘name herb’ (← *vard-as* ‘name’, interfix *-a-*, *žol-ē* ‘grass’), the starry sky is called *žvaigžd-ē-rašt-is* KN122 ‘star writing’ (← *žvaigžd-ē* ‘star’, interfix *-ē-*, *rašt-as* ‘writing’, IP *-is*), etc.

Only a few neologisms can be considered copulative compounds, e.g.: *jūr-mar-ē* AŽI240 ‘sea lagoon’ (← *jūr-a* ‘sea’, *mar-ios* ‘lagoon’, IP *-ē*), *liūn-raist-is* AŽII86 ‘swamp’ (← *liūn-as* ‘marsh’, *raist-as* ‘swamp’, IP *-is*), *marškin-švark-is* BUT114 ‘a garment that resembles both a shirt and a jacket’ (← *marškini-ai* ‘shirt’, *švark-as* ‘jacket’, IP *-is*).

Neologisms include reduplicative (iterative) compounds, both components of which are associated with some noun, e.g.: *kart-kart-ē* AŽI331 ‘time’ (← *kart-as* ‘time’, IP *-ē*), *laik-laik-is* PGK138, AŽI334 ‘(certain) time’ (← *laik-as* ‘time’, IP *-is*), *met-met-is* AŽIII49 ‘time’ (← *met-as* ‘time’, IP *-is*), *mieg-a-mieg-is* AŽII249 ‘sleep’ (← *mieg-as* ‘sleep’, interfix *-a-*, IP *-is*), *buv-ia-būv-is* AŽIII180, 269 ‘being’ (← *būv-is* ‘being’, interfix *-ia-*, IP *-is*, including apophony <*ū/u*>). In fact, another possibility of measurement cannot be ruled out – that the compounds *mieg-a-mieg-is* and *buv-ia-būvis* are derived from repeated verbs *mieg-o-ti* ‘sleep’, *bū-ti* ‘be’.

Interfixes. 55% of all compounds of this word-formation type are derived with an interfix. Most often, the components of compounds are joined by *-(i)a-* – it is present in 71% of compounds with an interfix (see 9). Next, according to frequency, interfixes are arranged as follows: *-ē-* (11%), *-o-* (7%), *-u-* (6%) and *-i-* (5%) (see 10).

- (9) *diev-a-viet-ē* AŽI89 ‘place of god (meeting with god)’ (← *diev-as* ‘god’, interfix *-a-*, *viet-a* ‘place’, IP *-ē*), *driež-a-uodeg-is* KR16 ‘someone with a lizard tail’ (← *driež-as* ‘lizard’, interfix *-a-*, *uodeg-a* ‘tail’, IP *-is*), *gaisr-a-dūm-is* AŽII268 ‘fire smoke’ (← *gaisr-as* ‘fire’, interfix *-a-*, *dūm-as* ‘smoke’, IP *-is*), *piršt-a-plēv-ē* UM48 ‘finger webbing’ (← *piršt-as* ‘finger’, interfix *-a-*, *plēv-ē* ‘webbing’), *skyl-a-samt-is* JM149 ‘scoop with holes’ (← *skyl-ē* ‘hole’, interfix *-a-*, *samt-is* ‘scoop’, IP *-is*); *gerv-ia-koj-is, -ē* Kal334 ‘whose legs are like those of a crane’ (← *gerv-ē* ‘crane’, interfix *-ia-*, *koj-a* ‘leg’, IPs *-is, -ē*), *žodž-ia-gars-is* K142 ‘sound of the word’ (← *žod-is* ‘word’, interfix *-ia-*, *gars-as* ‘sound’, IP *-is*), *žol-ia-gēl-ē* MRR100 ‘wild flower growing in a meadow (grass)’ (← *žol-ē* ‘grass’, interfix *-ia-*, *gēl-ē* ‘flower’), *žol-ia-stieb-ē* SS360 ‘grass stalk’ (← *žol-ē* ‘grass’, interfix *-ia-*, *stieb-as* ‘stalk’, IP *-is*).
- (10) *erdv-ē-vaizd-is* SS98 ‘space view’ (← *erdv-ē* ‘space’, interfix *-ē-*, *vaizd-as* ‘view’, IPs *-is*); *krašt-o-vietē* SS315 ‘land, place of land’ (← *krašt-as* ‘land’,

interfix *-o-*, *viet-a* ‘place’, IPs *-ė*), *siel-o-vaizd-is* P170, SS317, 419 ‘soul image’ (← *siel-a* ‘soul’, interfix *-o-*, *vaizd-as* ‘view’, IPs *-is*); *virš-u-den-is* AŽI196 ‘top of the deck’ (← *virš-us* ‘top’, interfix *-u-*, *den-is* ‘deck’); *smegen-i-kalnis* Par96 ‘smart person (mountain of brains)’ (← *smegen-ys* ‘brain’, interfix *-i-*, *kaln-as* ‘mountain’, IPs *-is*).

45 % of compounds do not have an interfix, e.g.:

- (11) *bob-kaln-is* KE230 ‘mountain of old women’ (← *bob-a* ‘old woman’, *kaln-as* ‘mountain’, IP *-is*), *iev-žied-is* Kal296 ‘bird cherry tree blossom’ (← *iev-a* ‘bird cherry tree’, *žied-as* ‘blossom’, IP *-is*), *liep-med-is* Kal311 ‘linden tree’ (← *liep-a* ‘linden’, *med-is* ‘tree’), *migdol-med-is* GD83 ‘almond tree’ (← *migdol-as* ‘almond’, *med-is* ‘tree’), *niek-daikt-is* TA112 ‘menkas, prastas daiktas’ ‘poor thing’ (← *niek-as* ‘nothing’, *daikt-as* ‘thing’, IP *-is*), *kapin-kaim-is* JSII356 ‘village with a cemetery’ (← *kapin-ės* ‘cemetery’, *kaim-as* ‘village’, IP *-is*), *krap-viet-ė* KPN35 ‘place where dill grows’ (← *krap-as* ‘dill’, *viet-a* ‘place’, IP *-ė*), *obel-žied-is* DD182 ‘apple tree blossom’ (← *obel-is* ‘apple tree’, *žied-as* ‘blossom’, IP *-is*), *obuol-met-is* AŽII296 ‘apple season’ (← *obuol-ys* ‘apple’, *met-as* ‘season; time’, IP *-is*), *smėl-kel-is* K373, 395, 399 ‘sand (sandy) road’ (← *smėl-is* ‘sand’, *keli-as* ‘road’, IP *-is*), *sprogim-viet-ė* PGK198 ‘explosion site’ (← *sprogim-as* ‘explosion’, *viet-a* ‘place’, IP *-ė*), *šien-žol-ė* MS382 ‘hay (dried) grass’ (← *šien-as* ‘hay’, *žol-ė* ‘grass’), *reklam-plot-is* BUT113 ‘area of the publication for advertising’ (← *reklam-a* ‘advertising’, *plot-as* ‘area’, IP *-is*).

Base words. Compounds of two nouns are derived from systemic base words of various structures, origins and number of syllables (inherited words, loanwords, formations). (Several base words of compounds are rare in the contemporary language, dialectal, however, presented in LKŽ.) In 81 % of compounds of this word-formation type, base stems are equal to the root of the word (that is stem of each component of the compound is morphemically indivisible), e.g.:

- (12) *bad-a-viet-ė* KE171 ‘place of famine’ (cf. *bad-as* ‘famine’, *viet-a* ‘place’), *iev-žied-is* Kal296 ‘bird cherry tree blossom’ (cf. *iev-a* ‘bird cherry tree’, *žied-as* ‘blossom’), *pus-kauk-ė* SRIV295 ‘not an all covering mask’ (cf. *pus-ė* ‘half’, *kauk-ė* ‘mask’), *vilk-a-egl-ė* AŽII9 ‘poor fir tree’ (cf. *vilk-as* ‘wolf’, *egl-ė* ‘fir tree’).

In 19 % of compounds, the stem of one of the components is morphemically divisible (the absolute majority of words have some suffix). (Cf. According to the Database of Lithuanian Neologisms, the compounds whose base stems are equal to the root make up 71 % of all compounds (about the morphemic complexity of the base stems of compounds see more in Murmulaitytė 2021, 82–88)). Both the first and the second components of compounds are based on a noun with a morphemically divisible stem, e.g.:

- (13) *dag-t-i-gal-is* SRIII16 ‘tip of the wick’ (cf. *dag-t-is* ‘wick’, *gal-as* ‘tip; end’), *kap-in-kaim-is* JSII356 ‘village with a cemetery’ (cf. *kap-in-ės* ‘cemetery’, *kaim-as* ‘village’), *krūt-in-plauk-is* SR145 ‘chest hair’ (cf. *krūt-in-ė* ‘chest’, *plauk-as* ‘hair’), *mèn-ul-tak-is* AŽII204 ‘moon path’ (cf. *mèn-ul-is* ‘moon’,

tak-as ‘path’), *séd-yn-vaizd-is* JK15 ‘seat view’ (cf. *séd-yn-é* ‘seat’, *vaizd-as* ‘view’), *sprog-im-viet-é* PGK198 ‘explosion site’ (cf. *sprog-im-as* ‘explosion’, *viet-a* ‘site’); *ak-i-blyk-sn-is* AŽII329 ‘twinkle of an eye’ (cf. *ak-is* ‘eye’, *blyk-sn-is* ‘twinkle’), *skyl-a-sam-t-is* JM149 ‘scoop with holes’ (cf. *skyl-é* ‘hole’, *sam-t-is* ‘scoop’), *pa-baig-o-laik-is* AŽII339 ‘end, time of end’ (cf. *pa-baig-a* ‘end’, *laik-as* ‘time’).

Stems. In the contemporary Lithuanian language, compounds from two nouns have *ia* and *é* stems; some have both genders. All compounds of this word-formation type correspond in their gender to the base noun, acting as the second component (see more in Ambrazas 2005, 154). The analysis of neologisms basically confirms these tendencies: 69% of compounds are nouns of the *ia* stem, e.g.: *mešk-a-kaili-is* AŽII39 ‘bear fur’ (cf. DAT. PL. *meškakaili-ams*), *od-maiš-is* AŽII319 ‘leather bag’ (cf. DAT. PL. *odmaiši-ams*), *smėl-kel-is* K373, 395, 399 ‘sand road’ (cf. DAT. PL. *smėlkel-i-ams*), 25% are nouns of the *é* stem, e.g. *burok-lemp-é* JM158 ‘lamp made of beetroot’ (cf. DAT. PL. *buroklemp-éms*), *mišk-a-pel-é* Kal484 ‘forest mouse’ (cf. DAT. PL. *miškapel-éms*); 5% are names of persons, they can be used in the form of both genders, e.g. *jauč-ia-galv-is, -é* JM180 ‘whose head is big (like a bull’s head)’. Of these, two compounds – *drambl-ia-koj-is, -é* KE174 ‘who has feet like those of an elephant’, *gerv-ia-koj-is* Kal334 ‘whose legs are like those of a crane’ – are words of the *a* stem (cf. DAT. PL. *drambliakoj-ams, gerviakoj-ams*). A singular compound *siel-o-kalba* SN35 ‘speech of the soul; speech pleasing to the soul’ (1%) is a noun of the *o* stem (cf. DAT. PL. *sielokalb-oms*).

In 93% of compounds, their gender matches the gender of the noun that is the second component, cf. the compounds that coincide in gender: *mén-a-brol-is* SKV412 ‘moon brother’ (masculine) and its base word *brol-is* ‘brother’ (masculine), *pelk-raist-is* AŽII221 ‘swamp’ (masculine) and *raist-as* ‘marsh’ (masculine), *driež-lig-é* SKV383 ‘lizard disease’ (feminine) and *lig-a* ‘disease’ (feminine). In 7% of compounds, the gender is different from the gender of the noun that is the second component, e.g., the compounds *pilv-a-gal-é* AŽII243 ‘lower abdomen’, *virš-u-dang-é* AŽII318 ‘top of the sky’, *žol-ia-stieb-é* SS360 ‘grass stalk’ are feminine, meanwhile, their second component is based on the masculine nouns *gal-as* ‘end’, *dang-us* ‘sky’, *stieb-as* ‘stalk’; the compound *tarpu-maris* AŽII199 ‘lagoon gap’ is masculine, meanwhile, its second component is based on the feminine noun *mar-ios* ‘lagoon’.

2.1.2 Nominal compounds of the word-formation type *adjective + noun*

The second largest group consists of compounds from an adjective and a noun: 30% of nominal compounds (or 21% of all neologisms) belong to this word-formation type. All compounds are determinative – their first adjectival component determines the second nominal component. These compounds usually have a literal meaning (their adjectival component indicates a feature characteristic of the thing indicated by the compound), e.g.:

- (14) *akyt-kūn-is* PGK24 ‘porous body’ (← *akyt-as, -a* ‘porous’, *kūn-as* ‘body’, IP *-is*), *jaun-a-gir-é* AŽI341 ‘young forest’ (← *jaun-as, -a* ‘young’, interfix *-a-*,

giri-a ‘forest’, IP -ē), *karšt-vanden-is* EK11 ‘hot water’ (← *karšt-as*, -a ‘hot’, *vanden-s* GEN of *vand-uo* ‘water’, IP -is), *kart-uog-ė* AŽII6 ‘bitter berry’ (← *kart-us*, -i ‘bitter’, *uog-a* ‘berry’, IP -ė), *kvail-a-film-is* EK122 ‘stupid (shallow) film’ (← *kvail-as*, -a ‘stupid’, interfix -a-, *film-as* ‘film’, IP -is), *sen-berž-is* Kal551 ‘old birch’ (← *sen-as*, -a ‘old’, *berž-as* ‘birch’, IP -is), *smulk-žuv-ė* ŠAMS110 ‘small fish’ (← *smulk-us*, -i ‘small’, *žuv-is* ‘fish’, IP -ė), *šalt-vėj-is* SKV375 ‘cold wind’ (← *šalt-as*, -a ‘cold’, *vėj-as* ‘wind’, IP -is).

Some nominal compounds denote a person (their adjectival component indicates a feature characteristic of a person), e.g.:

- (15) *aukšt-a-kilm-is*, -ė SRIII154, PI/187 ‘who is of high descent’ (← *aukšt-as*, -a ‘high’, interfix -a-, *kilm-ė* ‘origin’, IPs -is, -ė), *balt-a-vyž-is*, -ė AŽII362 ‘who wears white (light) bast shoes’ (← *balt-as*, -a ‘white’, interfix -a-, *vyž-a* ‘bast shoe’, IPs -is, -ė), *dail-ia-blauzd-is*, -ė JSII164 ‘who has nice calves’ (← *dail-us*, -i ‘nice’, interfix -ia-, *blauzd-a* ‘calf’, IPs -is, -ė), *durn-merg-ė* KPN3 ‘stupid girl’ (← *durn-as*, -a ‘stupid’, *merg-a* ‘girl’, IPs -is, -ė), *šlakuot-a-nos-is*, -ė SKS75 ‘who has a freckled nose’ (← *šlakuot-as*, -a ‘freckled’, interfix -a-, *nos-is* ‘nose’, IPs -is, -ė).

Sometimes compounds of this word-formation type have a figurative meaning (i.e., their lexical meaning is far from the derivational meaning), this is sometimes the case with the names of persons or compounds denoting inanimate things), e.g.:

- (16) *kiaur-a-šikn-is*, -ė KE66 ‘who is poor, does not have anything’ (← *kiaur-as*, -a ‘leaky’, interfix -a-, *šikn-a* ‘asshole’, IPs -is, -ė), *skers-pon-is* BLB242 ‘not a real gentleman’ (← *skers-as*, -a ‘cross’, *pon-as* ‘gentleman’, IP -is), *juod-a-pykt-is* AŽII207 ‘great (black) anger’ (← *juod-as*, -a ‘black’, interfix -a-, *pykt-is* ‘anger’), *medin-galv-is* JSII273 ‘table (with a wooden surface)’ (← *medin-is*, -ė ‘wooden’, *galv-a* ‘head’, IP -is), *tušč-ia-dien-is* AŽI125 ‘day spent in vain, empty day’ (← *tušči-as*, -a ‘empty’, interfix -ia-, *dien-a* ‘day’, IP -is).

Interfixes. According to Ambrasas (2005, 155), more than half of the compounds of this word-formation type does not have an interfix. Of those with an interfix, the most common is -(i)a-. The Database of Lithuanian Neologisms research has shown the opposite trend: there are twice as many compounds with interfix -(i)a- as compounds without interfixes (Aleksaitė 2022, 114). The data of the analysis of the empirical material revealed that 57% of the compounds have the interfix -(i)a- (17), there are 43% of compounds without an interfix (18).

- (17) *girt-a-nakt-is* KE84 ‘night of drinking’ (← *girt-as*, -a ‘drunk’, interfix -a-, *nakt-is* ‘night’), *gryn-a-siel-is*, -ė AŽII277 ‘whose soul is pure’ (← *gryn-as*, -a ‘pure’, interfix -a-, *siel-a* ‘soul’, IPs -is, -ė), *jaun-a-med-is* AŽII140 ‘young tree’ (← *jaun-as*, -a ‘young’, interfix -a-, *med-is* ‘tree’), *juod-a-pykt-is* AŽII207 ‘great (black) anger’ (← *juod-as*, -a ‘black’, interfix -a-, *pykt-is* ‘anger’), *linksm-a-dien-is* AŽII298 ‘fun day’ (← *linksm-as*, -a ‘fun; jolly’, interfix -a-

- dien-a* ‘day’, IP *-is*); *gil-ia-žiem-is* TA161 ‘deep winter’ (← *gil-us*, *-i* ‘deep’, interfix *-ia-*, *žiem-a* ‘winter’, IP *-is*), *stamb-ia-nos-is*, *-ē* A400 ‘whose nose is big’ (← *stamb-us*, *-i* ‘big; massive’, interfix *-ia-*, *nos-is* ‘nose’, IPs *-is*, *-ē*).
- (18) *juod-brast-ē* AŽII262 ‘black, dark ford’ (← *juod-as*, *-a* ‘black’, *brast-a* ‘ford’, IP *-ē*), *kart-uog-ē* AŽII6 ‘bitter berry’ (← *kart-us*, *-i* ‘bitter’, *uog-a* ‘berry’, IP *-ē*), *smulk-žuv-ē* ŠAMS110 ‘small fish’ (← *smulk-us*, *-i* ‘small’, *žuv-is* ‘fish’, IP *-ē*), *sen-žem-is* AŽII189 ‘old, worn-out soil’ (← *sen-as*, *-a* ‘old’, *žem-ē* ‘land; soil’, IP *-is*), *švies-nakt-is* AŽII281 ‘light night’ (← *švies-us*, *-i* ‘light’, *nakt-is* ‘night’).

In addition, neologisms do not confirm the tendency indicated by Ambrazas (2005, 155) to make such compounds, the first component of which is based on an *a* stem adjective, without an interfix. The study showed that 61 % of compounds, the first component of which is based on the *a* stem adjective have an interfix. All of them have the interfix *-a-*.

Base words. 77 % of compounds of this word-formation type are based on base words with morphemically indivisible stems (19), in 23 % of compounds, both the first and the second components of compounds are based on a word with a morphemically divisible stem (20).

- (19) *juod-a-šil-ē* AŽII335 ‘black, dark forest’ (cf. *juod-as*, *-a* ‘black’, *šil-as* ‘forest’), *jaun-a-gir-ē* AŽII341 ‘jauna giria [young forest]’ (cf. *jaun-as*, *-a* ‘young’, *gir-ia* ‘forest’), *ilg-laik-is* AŽII347 ‘ilgas laikotarpis [long period of time]’ (cf. *ilg-as*, *-a* ‘long’, *laik-as* ‘time’), *sen-berž-is* Kal551 ‘senas beržas [old birch]’ (cf. *sen-as*, *-a* ‘old’, *berž-as* ‘birch’), *vieš-tak-is* AŽII240 ‘viešas takas, kelias [public path, road]’ (cf. *vieš-as*, *-a* ‘public’, *tak-as* ‘path’).
- (20) *ak-yt-kūn-is* PGK24 ‘porous body’ (cf. *ak-yt-as*, *-a* ‘porous’, *kūn-as* ‘body’), *med-in-galv-is* JSII273 ‘table (with a wooden surface)’, *kombin-uo-t-pa-šari-ai* A291 ‘combined fodder’ (cf. *kombin-uo-t-as*, *-a* ‘combined’, *pa-šar-as* ‘fodder’), *šlak-uot-a-nos-is*, *-ē* SKS75 ‘who has a freckled nose’ (cf. *šlak-uot-as*, *-a* ‘freckled’, *nos-is* ‘nose’), *juod-a-pyk-t-is* AŽII207 ‘terrible (black) anger’ (cf. *juod-as*, *-a* ‘black’, *pyk-t-is* ‘fanger’), *švent-valand-ēl-ē* Kal327 ‘holy jiffy’ (cf. *šventas*, *-a* ‘holy’, *valand-ēl-ē* ‘jiffy’).

Stems. The majority of compounds (i.e., 68 %) are words of the *ia* stem (they have the ending *-is*), e.g.: *sen-berž-is* Kal551 ‘old birch’ (cf. DAT. PL. *senberži-ams*), 16 % of compounds are of the *ē* stem (have the ending *-ē*), e.g., *juod-a-šil-ē* AŽII335 ‘black, dark forest’ (cf. DAT. PL. *juodašil-ēms*), 15 % of compounds have forms of both genders, e.g., *rausv-a-akis*, *-ē* KE179 ‘who has reddish eyes’ (cf. DAT. PL. *rausvaaki-ams*, *rausvaak-ēms*), and the compound *šalt-vēj-is* SKS375 ‘cold wind’ is a word of the *a* stem (cf. DAT. PL. *šaltvēj-ams*), it accounts for 1 %.

2.2. Adjectival compounds

Word-formation types *adjective + noun* and *noun + noun* are the most productive in adjectival compounding of neologisms.

2.2.1. Adjectival compounds of the word-formation type *adjective + noun*

The largest group of adjectival compounds consists of compounds from an adjective and a noun: these are 85% of adjectival compounds (or 26% of all neologisms). Many compounds name living things, e.g., people or animals are named according to the distinctive external (21) or internal (22) feature indicated by the first adjectival component.

- (21) *gil-ia-ak-is*, -ē PGK123 ‘whose eyes are deep (sunken)’ (← *gil-us*, -i ‘deep’, interfix -*ia-*, *ak-is* ‘eye’, IPs -*is*, -ē), *murzin-a-nos-is*, -ē GD20 ‘whose nose is dirty’ (← *murzin-as*, -a ‘dirty’, interfix -*a-*, *nos-is* ‘nose’, IPs -*is*, -ē), *pilk-a-kakl-is*, -ē K284 ‘whose neck is grey’ (← *pilk-as*, -a ‘grey’, interfix -*a*, *kakl-as* ‘neck’, IPs -*is*, -ē), *plač-ia-klub-is*, -ē AŽII301 ‘who has wide hips’ (← *plači-os* GEN of F *plat-i* ‘wide’, interfix -*ia-*, *klub-as* ‘hip’, IPs -*is*, -ē), *šveln-ia-od-is*, -ē ST96 ‘whose skin is soft’ (← *šveln-us*, -i ‘soft’, interfix -*ia-*, *od-a* ‘skin’, IPs -*is*, -ē).
- (22) *plač-ia-dūš-is*, -ē SRIII147 ‘who is open-hearted, compassionate’ (← *plači-os* GEN of F *plat-i* ‘wide’, interfix -*ia-*, *dūši-a* ‘soul’, IPs -*is*, -ē), *plač-ia-šird-is*, -ē SR45 ‘who is open-hearted generous, empathetic’ (← *plači-os* GEN of F *plat-i* ‘wide’, interfix -*ia-*, *šird-is* ‘heart’, IPs -*is*, -ē), *skamb-ia-liežuv-is*, -ē SRIV394 ‘who is very talkative’ (← *skamb-us*, -i ‘loud; ringing’, interfix -*ia-*, *liežuv-is* ‘tongue’, IPs -*is*, -ē), *stipr-ia-val-is*, -ē PM680 ‘strong-willed’ (← *stipr-us*, -i ‘strong’, interfix -*ia-*, *vali-a* ‘will’, IPs -*is*, -ē).

Frequently, the first component of compounds indicates some distinguishing feature of the thing, e.g.:

- (23) *aukšt-a-lub-is*, -ē ST61 ‘which has a high ceiling’ (← *aukšt-as*, -a ‘high’, interfix -*a-*, *lub-os* ‘ceiling’, IPs -*is*, -ē), *stač-ia-stog-is*, -ē UM54 ‘which has a steep roof’ (← *stači-os* GEN of F *stat-i* ‘wide’, interfix -*ia-*, *stog-as* ‘roof’, IPs -*is*, -ē), *ilg-a-kriaun-is*, -ē JK124 ‘which has long scales’ (← *ilg-as*, -a ‘long’, interfix -*a-*, *kriaun-os* ‘scales’, IPs -*is*, -ē), *kiet-a-briaun-is*, -ē JK124 ‘which has hard edges’ (← *kiet-as*, -a ‘hard’, interfix -*a-*, *briaun-a* ‘edge’, IPs -*is*, -ē).

Endings and interfixes. All adjectives have endings -*is*, -ē, regardless of what stem of noun the second component is based on (this is what is usual in this type of compounds, see Ambrazas 2005, 228). The majority of compounds (89%) are formed with an interfix. The components of all of them are joined by -(i)a-, e.g.:

- (24) *naiv-a-veid-is*, -ē JM44 ‘who has a naive face’ (← *naiv-us*, -i ‘naive’, interfix -*a-*, *veid-as* ‘face’, IPs -*is*, -ē), *prast-a-kilm-is*, -ē GD120 ‘who is of low descent’ (← *prast-as*, -a ‘bad’, interfix -*a-*, *kilm-ē* ‘origin’, IPs -*is*, -ē), *siaur-a-vyžd-is*, -ē PGK29 ‘whose pupils are constricted’ (← *siaur-as*, -a ‘narrow’, interfix -*a-*, *vyžd-ys* ‘pupil’, IPs -*is*, -ē); *apval-ia-žand-is*, -ē SR167 ‘whose cheeks are round’ (← *apval-us*, -i ‘round’, interfix -*ia-*, *žand-as* ‘cheek’, IPs -*is*, -ē), *graž-ia-šyps-n-is*, -ē K253 ‘who has a beautiful smile’ (← *graž-us*, -i ‘nice’, interfix -*ia-*, *šyps-n-ys* ‘smile’, IPs -*is*, -ē), *jautr-ia-kail-is*, -ē

JSII75 ‘whose fur is sensitive’ (← *jautr-us*, -i ‘sensitive’, interfix -*ia-*, *kail-is* ‘fur’, IPs -*is*, -*ē*).

Much less often, the components of compounds are joined without an interfix – this is the case in 11 % of compounds, e.g.:

- (25) *gelton-rūb-is*, -*ē* JSI93 ‘who has yellow clothes’ (← *gelton-as*, -*a* ‘yellow’, *rūb-ai* ‘clothes’, IPs -*is*, -*ē*), *mēlyn-keln-is*, -*ē* TV167 ‘who has blue trousers’ (← *mēlyn-as*, -*a* ‘blue’, *keln-ēs* ‘trousers’, IPs -*is*, -*ē*), *raudon-kail-is*, -*ē* K363 ‘whose fur is red (reddish)’ (← *raudon-as*, -*a* ‘red’, *kail-is* ‘fur’, IPs -*is*, -*ē*).

Base words. Although grammars and word-formation works indicate that all adjectival compounds tend to be based on base words with simple stems (Keinys 1999, 81), the analysis of the empirical material revealed that almost equally often the components of compounds are based on words, the stem of which is equal to the root (such are 51 % of compounds) (26), or is morphemically divisible (such are 49 % of compounds) (27). Most often, the first component is based on an adjective with a suffix (suffixes), sometimes the base adjective has a prefix and a suffix. Less often, the second nominal component is based on a word with a suffix (all base words are recorded in dictionaries).

- (26) *graž-ia-rank-is*, -*ē* SKS395 ‘who has beautiful hands’ (cf. *graž-us*, -*i* ‘beautiful’, *rank-a* ‘hand’), *marg-a-galv-is*, -*ē* JM128 ‘who has a mottled head’ (cf. *marg-as*, -*a* ‘mottled’, *galv-a* ‘head’), *maž-a-naud-is*, -*ē* AŽII256 ‘not very useful’ (cf. *maž-as*, -*a* ‘little’, *naud-a* ‘use’), *ryšk-ia-lūp-is*, -*ē* BUT113 ‘who has bright lips’ (cf. *ryšk-us*, -*i* ‘bright’, *lūpa-* ‘lip’).
- (27) *amž-in-a-met-is*, -*ē* AŽII301 ‘whose years are eternal’ (cf. *amž-in-as*, -*a* ‘eternal’, *met-ai* ‘year’), *gelt-on-rūb-is*, -*ē* JSI93 ‘who has yellow clothes’ (cf. *gelt-on-as*, -*a* ‘yellow’, *rūb-ai* ‘clothes’), *jaut-r-ia-kail-is*, -*ē* JSII75 ‘whose fur is sensitive’ (cf. *jaut-r-us*, -*i* ‘sensitive’, *kail-is* ‘fur’), *mēl-yn-keln-is*, -*ē* TV167 ‘who has blue trousers’ (cf. *mēl-yn-as*, -*a* ‘blue’, *keln-ēs* ‘trousers’), *murz-in-a-nos-is*, -*ē* GD20 ‘whose nose is dirty’ (cf. *murz-in-as*, -*a* ‘dirty’, *nos-is* ‘nose’), *spalv-ot-sparn-is*, -*ē* Kal497 ‘whose wings are coloured’ (cf. *spalv-ot-as*, -*a* ‘coloured’, *sparn-as* ‘wing’), *smail-ia-gob-tuv-is*, -*ē* SRIV250 ‘who has a peaked hood’ (cf. *smail-us*, -*i* ‘peaked’, *gob-tuv-as* ‘hood’), *sunk-ia-lengv-a-pēd-is*, -*ē* AŽII346 ‘who has both heavy and light feet’ (cf. *sunk-us*, -*i* ‘heavy’, *lengv-a-pēd-is*, -*ē* ‘easy-going’) (the second component of the latter neologism is based on the compound).

It is difficult to say exactly what base words the first component of the compounds *didž-ia-kilpis*, -*ē* KE47 ‘which has large loops’, *didž-ia-prot-is*, -*ē* AŽII256 ‘clever’, *raud-a-šon-is*, -*ē* ‘which has a red (reddish) side’ is based on: they could be measured by both the adjectives *didis*, -*i* ‘big’ (← *didži-o* GEN of *did-is*) and *raud-as*, -*a* (‘reddish, reddened’) presented in BLKŽ, or with shorter stems of the adjectives *did-el-is*, -*ē* ‘big’, *raud-on-as*, -*a* ‘red’ more common in the contemporary language (for more on the discrepancy between formal and semantic measurement, see Urbutis 2009, 101–104).

2.2.2. Adjectival compounds of the word-formation type *noun + noun*

The group of compounds from two nouns is much smaller (15% of adjectival compounds or 5% of all neologisms). The compounds of this word-formation type (as well as the compounds from an adjective and a noun) usually refer to a distinct part of a thing, which is indicated by the second component, and described by the first component. Regardless of the stem of the noun underlying the second component, all compounds have the ending *-is, -ē*. The absolute majority of compounds are based on base words with morphemically indivisible stems. 88% of the compounds are combined with an interfix *-(i)a-* (28), while 12% of compounds do not have an interfix (29).

- (28) *auks-a-kanop-is, -ē* GD418 ‘whose hooves are gold (golden)’ (← *auks-as* ‘gold’, interfix *-a-*, *kanop-a* ‘hoof’, IPs *-is, -ē*), *parš-a-snuk-is, -ē* K452 ‘whose snout (face) is similar to that of a pig’ (← *parš-as* ‘pig’, interfix *-a-*, *snuk-is* ‘snout; face’, IPs *-is, -ē*), *skiedr-a-stog-is, -ē* ST207 ‘which has a roof made of wood chips’ (← *skiedr-a* ‘chip’, interfix *-a-*, *stog-as* ‘roof’, IPs *-is, -ē*), *bul-ia-sprand-is, -ē* PGK167, 181 ‘whose neck resembles that of a bull’ (← *bul-ius* ‘bull’, interfix *-ia-*, *sprand-as* ‘neck’, IPs *-is, -ē*), *drambl-ia-ko-jis, -ē* KE173 ‘whose legs are big (like an elephant’s)’ (← *drambl-ys* ‘elephant’, interfix *-ia-*, *koj-a* ‘leg’, IPs *-is, -ē*).
- (29) *slibin-galv-is, -ē* Kal237 ‘whose head resembles that of a dragon’ (← *slibin-as* ‘dragon’, *galv-a* ‘head’, IPs *-is, -ē*), *subin-veid-is, -ē* ST62, 65, 180, 238, 253 ‘whose face looks like a butt’ (← *subin-ē* ‘ass’, *veid-as* ‘face’, IPs *-is, -ē*) (this compound is based on the vulgarism *subin-ē* ‘ass’).

3. Use of neologisms

The meanings of all neologisms, whether used in a literal (30) or figurative sense (31), (32), become clear from a minimal or larger context, only the latter requires a bigger context to understand.

- (30) *Visiškai aptraukt-i virtuv-ēs langastikli-ai*
 full pholster-PP.NOM.PL.M kitchen-GEN.SG. window_glass.NOM.PL.M
 “Fully covered kitchen window glasses” (EK155)
- (31) [Jis] *Neperkalbam-as tvirt-a-nugar-is*
 he-NOM.SG.M NEG.win over-NOM.SG.M stubborn_person-NOM.SG.M
 “An unpersuadable stubborn person” (KE61)
- (32) *smegen-i-kaln-is rimst-a ir vēst-a*
 head-NOM.SG.M get calm.PRS.3 and get cool.PRS.3
 “The head is getting calm and cool” (Par96)

Nouns are used to name various things: persons, animals, plants, objects, abstracts. Even compounds with a literal meaning are more expressive than word combinations with roughly the same meaning, cf. *obelžiedis* and *obelis žiedas* ‘apple tree blossom’, *kvailafilmis* and *kvailas filmas* ‘stupid film’. A considerable number of neologisms,

especially those naming persons, have a tone of disparagement or irony, e.g., *šunžmogis* ‘terrible person’, *drambliakojis*, *-ė* ‘whose feet are like those of an elephant’, *subinveidis*, *-ė* ‘whose face looks like a butt’. Adjectives describe various characteristics of animate and inanimate things. The absolute majority of neologisms of adjectives are attributes, that is, epithets with literal (33) or figurative meaning (34).

- (33) *aukštalubis koridorius* ST61 ‘high-ceilinged corridor’, *aukštastogis dvarelis* SRIV24 ‘high-roofed mansion’, *aukštastogiai namai* PI/I217 ‘high-roofed houses’, *dryžuotarėmiai akinukai* K453 ‘striped-rimmed glasses’, *įvairialiepsnis švytėjimas* GD113 ‘glow of various flames’, *įvairiaplanis gyvenimas* KN129 ‘multifaceted life’, *jautriaausis gyvūnas* JSII22 ‘animal with sensitive ears’, *liūdnaakis galvijąs* SR82 ‘sad-eyed animal’, *pilkakaklis kovas* K284 ‘gray-necked rook’, *plačianasrės žuvis* SKV297 ‘broad-mouthed fish’, *plačiašnervis šėrikas* PGK105 ‘wide-nostriled feeder’, *plačiašypsniis vyrškis* K416 ‘broad-smiling man’, *prastakilmis nugalėtojas* GD120 ‘winner of poor pedigree’, *rausvašonė kriaušiuokės* KE215 ‘reddish-sided pears’, *skaidrasparnė plaštakė* SKS66 ‘clear-winged butterfly’, *tamsiašakė giria* JSI291 ‘dark-branched forest’.
- (34) *apvalažandė vyšnaitė* SR167 ‘round-cheeked cherry’, *apvaliaskruosčiai obuoliai* JSI282 ‘round-cheeked apples’, *geltonrūbiai medžiai* JSI93 ‘yellow-clothed trees’, *plačiaširdis pardavėjas* SR45 ‘wide-hearted seller’, *skambialiežuvis kvailys* SRIV394 ‘loud-tongued fool’, *storakulšis augalas* AŽI341 ‘thick-thighed plant’, *žaliažvilgsnė moteris* K295 ‘green-gazed woman’, *minkštaliūpis liūdesys* K285 ‘soft-lipped sadness’, *putliažandžiai debesys* K285 ‘plump-cheeked clouds’.

The use of compounds of analogical construction in the text helps to understand the meaning of neologisms, e.g., next to the compound *švedkapis* ‘Swedish soldier’s grave’ recorded in dictionaries, the neologism *hitlerkapis* ‘grave of soldiers of Hitler’s army’ is used, next to the real compound *pusponis* ‘not a real gentleman’, the neologisms *gaidponis*, *skersponis*, are used with the same meaning (all the compounds with the second component *ponas* ‘mister, gentleman’ derogatively refer to a person).

Conclusions

The study of nominal neologisms showed that the sequence of the most productive word-formation types of nominal compounds (*noun + noun*, *adjective + noun*) remains the same as indicated in grammars and in the work of Aleksaitė (2022), the researcher of the Database of Lithuanian Neologisms. Quantitatively, the largest group consists of formations of the *noun + noun* word-formation type: this group includes 70% of all nominal neologisms (cf. 30% of compounds belong to the *adjective + noun* type). Thus, the word-formation type of compounds from two nouns both in the past and present (Murmulaitytė 2021; Aleksaitė 2022) is the most productive.

Nominal compounds basically meet the requirements of the word-formation types, the main tendencies of base words, the (non)use of the interfix, the selection

of the ending provided by both types of word-formation are also maintained. Both word-formation types of nominal compounds are derived with an interfix (56% of compounds) and without it (44%). A tendency remains to be based on base words of simpler structure: 78% of compound nouns are based on morphemically indivisible stems of base words, in 22%, the stem of one of the base words is divisible (most often – suffixed).

The sequence of adjectival compounds is the same as specified in grammars and works of word-formation: the *adjective + noun* (85% of compounds) word-formation type stands out in terms of productivity; the second most productive type is *noun + noun* (15% of compounds). There is a noticeably clear tendency to form both word-formation types of compounds with interfixes – 89% of compounds are like that. The components of all of them are combined by the interfix *-(i)a-*. The compounds are slightly more frequently based on base words with morphemically indivisible stems – such are 65% of compounds, while in 35% of compounds, the base word has some prefix or suffix (is morphemically divisible).

All neologisms are based on the base words included in the dictionaries.

The meanings of all compounds become clear from a minimal or wider context. Equally often, compounds have literal and figurative meanings (a more extensive context is needed to understand the latter). Even compounds with a literal meaning are more expressive than word combinations with the same meaning. Productivity of the word-formation type and knowledge of analogical real compounds also help to understand the meaning of a neologism. Many compounds are words with a negative connotation, often, they are names assigned to persons.

Abbreviations

3	3 rd person
A	Gegužė ant nulūžusio beržo
AŽ	Rinktiniai raštai
BLB	Baltas liūdesio balandis
BLKŽ	Bendrinės lietuvių kalbos žodynas
BUT	Baltų užtrauktukų tango
DAT	dative
DD	Danielius Dalba & kitos istorijos
DLKŽ	Dabartinės lietuvių kalbos žodynas
GD	Daiktai
GEN	genitive
EK	Ievos laišakai iš Galudienių miesto
F	feminine
IP	inflectional paradigm
Ivan	Sapnų nublokšti
Jas	Tikrasis nebūties veidas
JK	Kregždėlaiškis

JM	Maranta
JS	Lyrika. Rinktinē
K	Lietaus migla Lu kalne
Kal	Ne akmenys guli
KE	Ežeras ir kiti jī lydintys asmenys
KN	Du lagaminai sniego
KPN	Kada parsiklausim namo
KR	Kinivarpu raštai
LKŽ	Lietuvių kalbos žodynas
LKŽPK	“Lietuvių kalbos žodyno” Papildymų kartoteka
M	masculine
MRR	Mirti reikia rudenį
MS	Sugrįžimai
NEG	negative
NOM	nominative
P	Perrašai
Par	Marmurinis šuo
PI	Petro imperatorė
PL	plural
PGK	Prarastų godų kvartetas
PM	Parašyta moterų
PP	passive participle
PRS	present
SG	singular
SKS	Seno kareivio sugrįžimas
SKV	Sokratas kalbasi su vėju
SN	Salomėja Nėris. Fragmento poetika
SR	Silva Rerum
SS	Sauganti sąmonė
ST	Sun-tzu Vilniaus mieste
ŠAMS	Šiąnakt aš miegosiu prie sienos
TA	Tylos angelas
TV	Trys vienetės
UM	Užsagstyk mane

Sources

- Aputis, Juozas. 1986. *Gegužė ant nulūžusio beržo*. Vilnius: Vaga.
- Daujotė, Viktorija. 2005. *Perrašai*. Vilnius: Vilniaus dailės akademijos leidykla.
- Daujotytė, Viktorija. 2001. *Parašyta moterų*. Vilnius: Alma littera.
- Daujotytė, Viktorija. 2004. *Salomėja Nėris. Fragmento poetika*. Vilnius: Lietuvos rašytojų sąjungos leidykla.
- Daujotytė, Viktorija. 2007. *Sauganti sąmonė*. Vilnius: Dailės akademijos leidykla.

- Gaidienė, Anželika et al. (eds.). 2015. *“Lietuvių kalbos žodyno” Papildymų kartoteka*. Vilnius: Lietuvių kalbos institutas. doi.org/10.35321/lkz-papildymu-kartoteka
- Gavelis, Ričardas. 1997. *Prarastų godų kvartetas*. Vilnius: Tyto alba.
- Gavelis, Ričardas. 2002. *Sun-tzu Vilniaus mieste*. Vilnius: Tyto alba.
- Gavelis, Ričardas. 2006. *Tylos angelas*. Vilnius: Tyto alba.
- Geda, Sigitas. 2001. *Sokratas kalbasi su vėju*. Vilnius: Lietuvos rašytojų sąjungos leidykla.
- Granauskas, Romualdas. 2013. *Trys vienatvės*. Vilnius: Lietuvos rašytojų sąjungos leidykla.
- Granauskas, Romualdas. 2015. *Baltas liūdesio balandis*. Vilnius: Lietuvos rašytojų sąjungos leidykla.
- Gutauskas, Leonardas. 2008. *Daiktai*. Vilnius: Lietuvos rašytojų sąjungos leidykla.
- Ivanauskaitė, Jurga. 2000. *Sapnų nublokšti*. Vilnius: Tyto alba.
- Jasukaitytė, Vidmantė. 2002. *Tikrasis nebūties veidas*. Vilnius: Eitkoma.
- Jonuškaitė, Birutė. 2007. *Kregždėlaiškis*. Vilnius: Versus aureus.
- Jonuškaitė, Birutė. 2009. *Baltų užtrauktukų tango*. Vilnius: Lietuvos rašytojų sąjungos leidykla.
- Jonuškaitė, Birutė. 2011. *Užsagstyk mane*. Vilnius: Lietuvos rašytojų sąjungos leidykla.
- Jonuškaitė, Birutė. 2015. *Maranta*. Vilnius: Lietuvos rašytojų sąjungos leidykla.
- Kajokas, Donaldas. 2000. *Mirti reikia rudenį*. Vilnius: Lietuvos rašytojų sąjungos leidykla.
- Kajokas, Donaldas. 2002. *Lietaus migla Lu kalne*. Vilnius: Lietuvos rašytojų sąjungos leidykla.
- Kajokas, Donaldas. 2012. *Ežeras ir kiti jį lydintys asmenys*. Vilnius: Tyto alba.
- Kalanavičius, Antanas. 1994. *Ne akmenys guli*. Vilnius: Lietuvos rašytojų sąjungos leidykla.
- Karčiauskas, Mykolas. 2007. *Kada parsiklausim namo*. Vilnius: Kronta.
- Karnauskaitė, Elena. 2012. *Ievos laišakai iš Galudienų miesto*. Vilnius: Lietuvos rašytojų sąjungos leidykla.
- Katiliškis, Marius. 2003. *Seno kareivio sugrįžimas*. Šiauliai: Šiaurės Lietuva.
- Keinys, Stasys (ed.). 2021. *Dabartinės lietuvių kalbos žodynas*. Vilnius: Lietuvių kalbos institutas, elektroninis variantas. Available at: <https://ekalba.lt>
- Liutkevičienė, Danutė (ed.). *Bendrinės lietuvių kalbos žodynas*. Available at: <https://ekalba.lt/bendrinės-lietuvių-kalbos-žodynas/>
- Martinaitis, Marcelijus. 1998. *Sugrįžimai*. Vilnius: Tyto alba.
- Miliūnaitė, Rita, Aleksaitė, Agnė. *Lietuvių kalbos naujažodžių duomenynas*. Vilnius: Lietuvių kalbos institutas. Available at: <https://ekalba.lt/naujazodziai/naujienos>
- Naktinienė, Gertrūda (ed.). *Lietuvių kalbos žodynas*. I–XX. Vilnius: Lietuvių kalbos institutas. Available at: www.lkz.lt; <https://ekalba.lt>
- Navakas, Kęstutis. 2008. *Du lagaminai sniego*. Vilnius: Tyto alba.
- Parulskis, Sigitas. 2004. *Marmurinis šuo*. Vilnius: Baltos lankos.
- Radvilavičiūtė, Giedra. 2010. *Šiąnakt aš miegosiu prie sienos*. Vilnius: Baltos lankos.
- Sabaliauskaitė, Kristina. 2008. *Silva Rerum*. Vilnius: Baltos lankos.
- Sabaliauskaitė, Kristina. 2012. *Danielius Dalba & kitos istorijos*. Vilnius: Baltos lankos.
- Sabaliauskaitė, Kristina. 2014. *Silva Rerum III*. Vilnius: Baltos lankos.
- Sabaliauskaitė, Kristina. 2016. *Silva Rerum IV*. Vilnius: Baltos lankos.
- Sabaliauskaitė, Kristina. 2019. *Petro imperatorė I*. Vilnius: Baltos lankos.
- Saja, Kazys. 2013. *Kinivarpu raštai*. Vilnius: Typoart.
- Strielkūnas, Jonas. 2009. *Lyrika. Rinktinė I, II*. Vilnius: Lietuvos rašytojų sąjungos leidykla.
- Žukauskas, Albinas. 1986. *Rinktiniai raštai I, II*. Vilnius: Vaga.

References

- Aleksaitė, Agnė. 2022. *Lietuvių kalbos naujažodžių daryba (2011–2019 m. Naujažodžių duomenyno pagrindu)*. Doctoral dissertation. Vilnius: Lietuvių kalbos institutas. Available at: <https://www.lituanistika.lt/content/95244>
- Allan, Keith (ed.). 2016. *The Routledge Book of Linguistics*. London/New York: Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315718453>
- Ambrazas, Vytautas (ed.). 2005. *Dabartinės lietuvių kalbos gramatika*. Vilnius: Mokslo ir enciklopedijų leidybos institutas.
- Ambrazas, Vytautas (ed.). 2008. *Lietuvių kalbos enciklopedija*. Vilnius: Mokslo ir enciklopedijų leidybos institutas.
- Baayen, Harald. 1991. Quantitative aspects of morphological productivity. *Yearbook of Morphology* Booij, Geert, Marle, Jaap van (eds.). Dordrecht: Springer, 109–149. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-011-2516-1_8
- Baayen, Harald R. 2009. Corpus linguistics in morphology: Morphological productivity. *Corpus Linguistics. An International Handbook*. 2. Lüdeling, Anke, Kytö, Merja (eds.). Berlin: De Gruyter Mouton, 899–919. <https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110213881.2.899>
- Bauer, Laurie. 2001. *Morphological Productivity*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511486210>
- Bauer, Laurie. 2005. Productivity: Theories. *Handbook of Word-Formation*. Štekauer, Pavol, Lieber, Rochelle (eds.). Dordrecht: Springer, 315–334. https://doi.org/10.1007/1-4020-3596-9_13
- Benczes, Réka. 2005. Creative noun-noun compounds. *Annual Review of Cognitive Linguistics*. 3, 250–268. <https://doi.org/10.1075/arcl.3.13ben>
- Booij, Geert. 2005. *The Grammar of Words. An Introduction to Linguistic Morphology*. Oxford: Oxford University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1093/acprof:oso/9780199226245.001.0001>
- Brown, Keith (ed.). 2005. *Encyclopedia of Language and Linguistics*. 2nd ed. London: Elsevier.
- Gaeta, Livio, Ricca, Davide. 2006. Productivity in Italian word formation: A variable-corpus approach. *Linguistics*. 44(1), 57–89. <https://doi.org/10.1515/LING.2006.003>
- Greenbaum, Sidney. 1996. *The Oxford English Grammar*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Hein, Katrin, Engelberg, Stefan. 2017. Morphological variation: the case of productivity in German compound formation. *Proceedings of the Mediterranean Morphology Meetings*. 11, 36–50. <https://doi.org/10.26220/mmm.2871>
- Kalme, Vilma, Smiltņiece, Gunta. 2001. *Latviešu literārās valodas vārdarināšana un morfoloģija*. Liepāja: LiePA.
- Kalnača, Andra, Lokmane, Ilze. 2016. Compound genitives in Latvian. *Word-Formation across Languages*. Körtvélyessy, Lívia, Štekauer, Pavol, Valera, Salvador (eds.). Newcastle upon Tyne: Cambridge Scholars Publishing, 169–197.
- Kalnača, Andra, Lokmane, Ilze. 2021. *Latvian Grammar*. Rīga: University of Latvia Press. <https://doi.org/10.22364/latgram.2021>
- Keinys, Stasys. 1999. *Bendrinės lietuvių kalbos žodžių daryba*. Šiauliai: Šiaulių universiteto leidykla.
- Lieber, Rochelle, Štekauer, Pavol (eds.). 2014. *The Oxford Handbook of Derivational Morphology*. Oxford: Oxford University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1093/oxfordhb/9780199641642.013.0005>
- Malmkjær, Kirsten (ed.). 2010. *Routledge Linguistics Encyclopedia*. 3rd ed. London, New York: Routledge Taylor & Francis Group.

- Miliūnaitė, Rita. 2018. Naujažodžių pateikimas ir paieškos galimybės Lietuvių kalbos naujažodžių duomenyne. *Bendrinė kalba*. 91, 1–21. Available at: <https://etalpykla.lituanistika.lt/object/LT-LDB-0001:J.04~2018~1555176235545/>
- Murmulaitytė, Daiva. 2021. *Daiktavardžių darybos ir morfemikos tyrimo perspektyvos* (Lietuvių kalbos naujažodžių duomenyno atvejis). Vilnius: Lietuvių kalbos institutas. Available at: <https://www.lituanistika.lt/content/103318>
- Müller, Peter O. et al. (eds.). 2016. *Word-Formation: An International Handbook of the Languages of Europe*. 4, 5. Berlin/Boston: De Gruyter. <https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110379082>; <https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110424942>
- Nakov, Preslav. 2013. On the interpretation of noun compounds: syntax, semantics, entailment. *Natural Language Engineering*. 19, 291–330. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S1351324913000065>
- Navickaitė-Klišauskienė, Agnė. 2016. Latvian. *Word-Formation: An International Handbook of the Languages of Europe*. 5. Müller, Peter O., Ohnheiser, Ingeborg, Olsen, Susan, Rainer, Franz (eds.). Berlin, Boston: De Gruyter, 3107–3123. <https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110424942-002>
- Olsen, Suzan. 2015. Composition. *Word-formation. An International Handbook of the Languages of Europe*. 1. Müller, Peter O., Ohnheiser, Ingeborg, Olsen, Susan, Rainer, Franz (eds.). Berlin/Boston: De Gruyter Mouton, 364–386.
- Plag, Ingo. 2003. *Word-formation in English*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511841323>
- Pustyl'nikov, Olga, Schneider-Wiejowski, Karina. 2009. Measuring morphological productivity. *Issues in Quantitative Linguistics*. Köhler, Reinhard (ed.). Lüdenscheid: RAM-Verlag, 106–125. Available at: <http://www.homes.uni-bielefeld.de/opustyl'nikov/pustyl'nikov/pdfs/Pustyl'nikovSchneider-WiejowskiV4-FINAL.pdf>
- Quirk, Randolph et al. 1985. *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language*. London: Longman.
- Radimsky, Jan. 2015. *Noun+Noun Compounds in Italian: A Corpus-based Study*. České Budějovice: University of South Bohemia.
- Soida, Emīlija. 2009. *Vārddarināšana*. Rīga: Latvijas Universitātes Akadēmiskais apgāds.
- Stundžia, Bonifacas. 2016. Lithuanian. *Word-Formation: An International Handbook of the Languages of Europe*. 5. Müller, Peter O., Ohnheiser, Ingeborg, Olsen, Susan, Rainer, Franz (eds.). Berlin/Boston: De Gruyter, 3089–3106. <https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110424942-001>
- Stundžia, Bonifacas, Jarmalavičius, Dalius. 2019. *Daiktavardžių dūryba vokiškuose XVII–XVII a. baltų kalbų žodynuose*. Vilnius: Vilniaus universiteto leidykla.
- Ulvydas, Kazys (ed.). 1965. *Lietuvių kalbos gramatika*. I. Vilnius: Mintis.
- Urbutis, Vincas. 2009. *Žodžių darybos teorija*. Vilnius: Mokslo ir enciklopedijų leidybos institutas.

Kopsavilkums

Rakstā runāts par produktivitāti, produktīvajiem lietvārdū un īpašības vārdū salikteņu darināšanas tipiem, aplūkota to jauno lietuviešu valodas salikteņu darināšanas un semantikas specifika, kuri pieder pie produktīvajiem tipiem. Pētījumā analizēti četrū produktīvāko tipu dati: 355 salikteņi (244 lietvārdi un 111 īpašības vārdi).

Jaundarinājumu pētījums apliecina, ka produktīvāko lietvārdū salikteņu tipu secība (*lietvārds + lietvārds*, *īpašības vārds + lietvārds*) saglabājas tāda pati, kā norādīts gramatikās, vārddarināšanas pētījumos. Vislielāko grupu veido *lietvārds + lietvārds* tipa salikteņi – pavisam 70% lietvārdū

jaundarinājumu. Tādējādi no diviem lietvārdiem darināto salikteņu tips gan agrāk, gan tagad (kā liecina Lietuviešu valodas jaunvārdu korpusa pētnieku vērojumi) ir visproduktīvākais.

Lietvārdu salikteņi būtībā atbilst vārddarināšanas tipu prasībām, tiek saglabātas arī abu tipu darināšanas pamattendences. Abu tipu lietvārdi tiek darināti ar savienotājpataskani (56% salikteņu) un bez tā (44%). Saglabājas tieksme izmantot vienkāršākas struktūras pamatvārdus (78% lietvārdu salikteņu darināti no morfēmiski nedalāmiem pamatvārdu celmiem).

Īpašības vārdu salikteņu secība ir tāda pati, kā norādīts gramatikās, vārddarināšanas pētījumos: produktīvākais tips ir *īpašības vārds + lietvārds* (85% salikteņu), otrs pēc produktivitātes – *lietvārds + lietvārds* (15% salikteņu). Ļoti izteikta ir tendence abu tipu salikteņus darināt ar savienotājpataskaņiem – tādi ir 89% salikteņu. To komponentus savieno patskaņi *-(i)a-*. Salikteņu pamatā nedaudz biežāk ir pamatvārdi ar morfēmiski nedalāmiem celmiem (tādi ir 65% salikteņu). Visi jaundarinājumi balstās uz vārdnīcās iekļautiem pamatvārdiem.

No minimālā vai plašāka konteksta kļūst skaidras visu salikteņu (tiešās vai pārnestās) nozīmes. Jaundarinājuma nozīmi saprast palīdz arī tipa produktivitāte, tas, ka ir zināmi analogiski reāli darinājumi. Samērā liela daļa salikteņu ir vārdi ar negatīvu konotāciju, nereti tie ir personu nosaukumi.

Atslēgvārdi: produktivitāte; jaundarinājums; vārddarināšanas tips; saliktenis; (salikteņa) komponents; pamatvārds.



Rakstam ir Creative Commons Attiecinājuma 4.0 Starptautiskā licence (CC BY 4.0) /

This article is licensed under the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License (CC BY 4.0) (<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>)