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The Assignment of Grammatical and Inherent Gender to English Loan Words in Lithuanian Discourse

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Abstract

The aim of this study was to analyse the gender assignment patterns and processes to English loan nouns that were inserted into Lithuanian language during the process of natural speech. Construction Morphology and the Morpheme-based Model were fused for the purpose of the analysis creating the Integrated Construction Morphology Model which allowed the detailed analysis of phonological, morphological, syntactic and semantic procedures. The main focus of this research is the change that occurs in the word level while inserting an L2 item into L1 discourse. The findings revealed that masculine gender was assigned as a default gender regardless of stem vowel classification for inanimate nouns. Biological sex determined the gender of English nouns that are animate. Furthermore, a complex process of suffix merging from English and Lithuanian languages was observed, regarding the combined suffixes as one item. This research contributed to greater understanding of the morphological processes that occur when words are borrowed into the Lithuanian language.

Keywords

Grammatical gender, inherent gender, gender assignment, Lithuanian noun, Construction Morphology, Morpheme-based Model, Integrated Construction Morphology Model.

1. INTRODUCTION

Lithuanians, as any other non-native English speakers, who moved to an English speaking country, converse in more than one language on a daily basis. This type of bilingual or multilingual environment presents an opportunity to use English words into Lithuanian discourse. As Lithuanian is one of the languages which have inherent gender, nouns - animate or inanimate - have to be either masculine or feminine, therefore, English words have to get one of the genders assigned in the process of borrowing.

The aims of this study are to investigate the borrowed words from English into Lithuanian and to identify and examine the rules and patterns that emerge while adapting loan nouns into Lithuanian discourse. The purpose of this research is to reveal the processes of the grammatical interrelation between two different gender systems and to demonstrate the complexity of the phenomenon. In order to achieve the aims and the purposes of this study, Construction Grammar and particularly the Construction Morphology model was chosen as the main theoretical framework. The Morpheme-based Model was also applied as it clearly presents the morpheme-by-morpheme gloss and provides the detailed framework for morphological analysis. These two models were fused and a new model, the Integrated Construction Morphology Model, is proposed for the analysis.

This research is organised into six sections. The first sections introduces the phenomenon and briefly outlines the organisation of the study. The second sections

outlines the data collection method and presents the participants who are all Lithuanian nationals living in the Republic of Ireland at least three years. Section 3 introduces the main framework and theoretical models that are adapted for this research. The Morpheme-based Model is described and the main theoretical considerations are outlined in section 3.2, while Construction Grammar and Construction Morphology are discussed in section 3.3.

For the understanding of grammatical restrictions that a loan noun has to follow, section 4 presents grammatical rules and procedures that are in connection with the Lithuanian noun. Number is discussed briefly, while section 4.3 discusses gender in great detail, considering such aspects as semantic gender, grammatical gender and gender assignment rules to loan nouns. Then the discussion of case and declensions of Lithuanian noun follow. As semantic gender is considered to fall under the domain of derivational morphology, derivational rules of the noun are overviewed. The last section briefly discusses the organisation of Lithuanian noun phrase presenting major theoretical characteristics. In section 5 all the data collected is organised according to classification animate/ inanimate, firstly discussing the Integrated Construction Morphology Model, which is used for the analysis of the nouns. Animate nouns are analysed in section 5.3 following the analysis of inanimate nouns. Section 5.4, the analysis of the inanimate nouns is divided into further subsections: inanimate nouns with stem vowels *a*, *ai*, *au*; inanimate nouns with stem vowels *o* and *ou*; inanimate nouns with stem vowel *i*; inanimate nouns with stem vowels *e*, *ei*, and *en*; and finally, inanimate nouns with stem vowel *y*. Gender assignment following the adapted suffixation patterns are discussed in section 5.5 and the conclusions are drawn. The final discussion is found in the sixth sections discussing general findings and suggesting further research questions. Appendix 1 offers the list of nouns organised according the acquired gender suffix. Due to the limited space, the full gloss of all samples and the list of classified samples according to the stem vowels and affixation patterns are not provided in this paper.

2. DATA COLLECTION

As this study is concerned with the integration of English words into Lithuanian discourse, Lithuanians were subjects to be interviewed. Some members of the Lithuanian immigrant community were approached in order to get a sample of their every day speech. The participation in the study was voluntary and consents were obtained from each member.

The research was done in 2 steps. Firstly, people who agreed to take part in the research were interviewed. The interview took part in each person's home in order to get minimal distraction and keep comfort levels high. During the interview the researcher was one of the participants of the conversation, therefore all of the interviews were recorded for minimal disruption of the natural speech production. Secondly, the recordings of the interviews were destroyed after the transcription of the noun phrases in order not to violate the confidentiality agreement and to conceal the identities of the participants.

All of the participants are Lithuanian nationals and their native language is Lithuanian. All partakers have been living in Ireland for over three years and have a substantial level of English. They use the Lithuanian language while conversing with their family

and friends who are Lithuanians. Moreover, they speak Lithuanian in the house, as they live with the same nationality spouse. 5 males and 4 females took part in the research. Most of the interviews took an hour, however, in some cases it took up to two and a half. The length of the interview depended on the wishes of the participants and the natural flow of the conversation.

There were overall 88 phrases collected. There were 305 overall usages of these phrases, from which some of them were used more often than others. They consist of an adjective and a noun and were used in different cases; nonetheless, they are presented in nominative case for clarity of the analysis. The full list of collected phrases is enclosed in the Appendix 1.

3. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

3.1. THE MAIN QUESTIONS OF THIS RESEARCH

The main questions of this research are concerned with morphological adaptation of loan words into Lithuanian discourse and what the changes entail during the process of adaptation. This section is concerned with the theoretical consideration of two main models used in this thesis, which are Morpheme-based Model and Construction Grammar, particularly the field of Construction Morphology.

As the research is concerned with the integration of English loan nouns into Lithuanian discourse, it would be reasonable to say that in general terms, it is concerned with the process of word formation. According to Haspelmath (2002:41), one of the roles that morphological rules take is to make the language more creative while creating new words that are not listed in the lexicon.

As it will be evident from the analysis, this thesis is also concerned more with affixation rather than other types of word formation, therefore the distinction between derivational and inflectional morphology needs to be addressed. Haspelmath (2002:15) distinguishes two different morphological relations between the words commonly used in traditional grammars: ‘inflectional’ and ‘derivational’ relations, where the first one relates to “the relationship between the word-forms of a lexeme” and the latter refers to “the relationship between lexemes of a word family.” In generative grammar, as pointed out by Singleton (2000:38), derivational morphemes are thought to be concerned with word formation and lexicon, while inflectional morphemes are assigned to having grammatical function. Nevertheless, as he (Singleton 2000:42) explains, it is not always possible to distinguish whether the morpheme is inflectional or derivational. Haspelmath (2002:17) agrees with Singleton’s statement that some morphemes have a definite semantic meaning and are said to have derivational function, but other meanings are abstract and hard to describe, which is discussed under inflectional morphological analysis. He also indicates that most of the grammarians define inflectional morphemes to have just grammatical functions, consequently, they are considered to be under the domain of syntax (*ibid.*). This, however, will be questioned, as the results of this research are at least ambiguous to support this statement.

Haspelmath (2002:177) defends morphology, morphological analysis, and morphemes in particular, stating that most of the analyses in most of the scholarly works are done using morpheme-by-morpheme glosses (*ibid.*). Moreover, all of the terminology, such as ‘prefixes’, ‘affixes’, ‘suffixes’, ‘roots’ etc. are constantly used and “it would be very

difficult to do without them” (Haspelmath 2002:177). Haspelmath (ibid.:178) also mentions that most of such analysis tend to be in similar form and description to the Morpheme-based Model. As this model offers the most practical and useful method to gloss and analyse morphemes, which are crucial in analysing the phenomenon of gender assignment to English loan nouns through affixation, therefore, the overview of theoretical considerations of this model is needed which is done in this section below. The main framework for this study is adapted from the Construction Morphology. Consequently, Construction Grammar and the Construction Morphology model are discussed further in this section.

3.2. MORPHEME-BASED MODEL

In traditional grammatical theories, as Haspelmath (2002:3,16) points out, morphological analysis consists of the smallest units called ‘morphemes’. In the overview, Haspelmath (2002:17) describes a few morphological theoretical approaches, nevertheless, he still follows the notion of morphemes having meaning, whether this meaning is abstract and bears a grammatical function, or it is definitely semantic, and he motivates this stating that the main function of any grammatical construction is to carry meaning. The Morpheme-based Model (MbM)¹⁶ adds to this concept a more controversial idea, agreeing with Haspelmath’s description and stating that morphemes are the main constituents of the lexicon and grammar.

The Morpheme-based Model, according to Selkirk (1982:59), assumes that the individual phonological, syntactic and semantic meaning and function of the affix is encoded in the lexical entry of the ‘dictionary’. Furthermore, Selkirk (1982:5-10) describes the organisation of the lexicon adapting the metaphor of the ‘dictionary’, where lexical items are listed. In addition, she presents the notion of ‘extended dictionary’ which, according to Selkirk (ibid.), consists of all lexical items of language including affixes of all types; through the process of morpho-lexical insertion and transformation the word formation is completed by inserting items from the ‘dictionary’ and the ‘extended dictionary’, following the rules of the system (Selkirk 1982:5-10).

Some current researchers agree with the idea that the lexicon is constructed not only of words. For example, Singleton (2000: 12) states that the lexicon consists not only of individual words, but also includes grammatical phenomena, or at least some aspects of it. He clarifies:

¹⁶ Abbreviations:

↔	corresponds with;	M	masculine;
ω	phonological word;	MbM	Morpheme-based Model;
σ	syllable;	MS	Morphological structure;
ACC	accusative;	N	noun;
ADJ	adjective;	NOM	nominative;
CG	Construction Grammar;	NP	noun phrase;
CM	Construction Morphology;	PL	plural;
CS	Conceptual structure;	PS	phonological structure;
DAT	dative;	SG	singular;
F	feminine;	SS	Syntactic structure;
GEN	genitive;	V	verb;
ICMM	Integrated Construction Morphology Model;	VOC	vocative;
INS	instrumental;	W	transcribed word;
LOC	locative;	x	variable;
<i>m</i>	morpheme;		

A given word is not necessarily just a sequence of sound or letters with an overall, invisible meaning and grammatical function; a word may be made up of a whole collection of meaningful components, of which some may in other contexts stand alone as words in their own right.

(Singleton 2000, 33)

This consideration does not exclude morphemes from the lexicon. On the contrary, it is clearly stated that a word is a combination of various phonological, syntactic and semantic constituents, which may or may not freely exist in a different context.

Di Sciullo and Williams (1987), whose work is based on Selkirk and the Morpheme-based Model, introduced the notion of listedness, which assumes that all grammatical units, that cannot be predicted or formed, therefore have to be listed in the lexicon of the speaker and they call these units ‘listemes’. This suggests that morphemes, their meaning, forms, and formation rules have to be stored in the mental lexicon cumulatively. They ground the feature of listedness of phrases as the consequence of unpredictability of meaning (ibid.:5). Following this idea, Di Sciullo and Williams propose the hierarchy of units, where “each unit is defined in terms of the previous one” as illustrated below:

(1) morpheme > word > compound > phrase > sentence.

(Di Sciullo and Williams 1987:14)

This hierarchy also refers to the notion of listedness stating that the smallest constituent of language which is listed in the lexicon is the morpheme (ibid.). Moreover, they claim while other components of the hierarchy are not all listed in the lexicon, all of the morphemes *are* listed (ibid.; emphasis is mine).

Haspelmath (2002:45) overviews the principles of the MbM and describes how this theory assumes morphemes to be governed by morphological rules, similar to words being governed by syntactic rules. This statement is supported by Booij (2010:1), who describes the Morpheme-based Model as the “syntax of words” where morphemes are the central constituents of the word formation patterns. Selkirk (1982:1; emphasis in the original), as one of the supporters of the correlation, clarifies that the organisation of morphology can be referred to as the “*syntax of words*” and indicates that it consists of the “*structure of words* and the *system of rules* for generating that structure”. Selkirk (1982) proposes that morphemes, inflectional or derivational, convey meaning and are organised by rules in order to produce words.

Di Sciullo and Williams (1987:69) clarify that in linguistics, there is a clear distinction between the inflectional and derivational affixation; furthermore, derivational affixes are thought to be the domain of lexicon and word formation, while inflectional affixes are under syntactic government. Di Sciullo and Williams (ibid.), however, are not convinced about the differentiation, pointing out that affixes have inherent properties rather than functions alone. Selkirk (1982:1) is one of the scholars agreeing with this statement. She explains that inflectional affixes are not under the syntactic domain, but rather classed together with derivational affixes and compounding under the domain of morphology. In addition, Selkirk (1982:63) declares that noun agreement affixes denoting grammatical aspects such as number, gender, person etc. carry not only a syntactic or morphological functions, but also carry a specific semantic meaning or concept. Following these concepts, Selkirk (1982:73) similarly proposes the differentiation of two classes of affixes which she names Class I and Class II, where the

first refers to all the morphemes that have definite semantic meaning, and the second refers to affixes with grammatical function bearing an abstract meaning. In addition, she (Selkirk 1982:73) mentions that in grammatical organisation of most theories there is no device to account for the affixes in Class II and that some type of device should be introduced in order to analyse the processes relating to this class.

Referring to this problem, Haspelmath (2002:81) makes a distinction of ‘inherent inflection category’ which he describes as the category that carries independent meaning which does not rely on the syntactic setting of the word. This classification could provide one of the answers of how to describe the characteristics of the proposed Class II morphemes as the inflectional and agreement affixes fall under similar description. This, however, does not coincide with Haspelmath’s definition of inflectional affixes which he states have no identifiable meaning and just show the syntactic functions (Haspelmath 2002:61).

Haspelmath (2002:126), discussing the notion of inflectional forms being parallel to derivational lexemes, clarifies that a notation in the MbM for suffixes can be noted as an example below:

$$(2) \quad \left[\begin{array}{c} /pronunciation/ \\ N \\ \text{‘meaning’} \end{array} \right] \quad \left[\begin{array}{c} /pronunciation/ \\ N_ \\ \text{‘meaning’} \end{array} \right] \quad (\text{Haspelmath 2002:47})$$

The N refers to the syntactic category of a word, and N__ is used to show where the morpheme in question is placed during the formation process of the word. This notation for word formation is concerned with phonological aspect of a noun or a suffix, despite that, this study does not touch the phonological adaptation of English loan word. In some cases phonological notation will be adapted for clarification, but mostly spelling will be used as an alternative. The notation of the inflectional phenomenon can be expressed in two different ways (Haspelmath 2002:61); this study will use only a concise notation which is used to note noun’s gender, number, and case, for example:

$$(3) \quad \text{baltas scanner}_{M.SG.NOM} \text{ (‘white scanner’)}$$

Selkirk (1982:11) claims that the speaker of a language has instincts about the construction of the words which is based by the knowledge of structure rules. Moreover, she makes strong suggestions that “the existing lexical items of language have structures generable by morphological component of the language” (ibid.). This statement strongly supports the main concept of the Morpheme-based Model, that languages follow the hierarchy where the morpheme is the smallest meaningful constituent of the system, whether it is inflectional or derivational. In recent grammatical approaches this model is criticized, nevertheless, in the defence of the MbM, Haspelmath (2002:44) points out that morphologist, in order to express morphological rules, attempt to develop a morphological descriptive system which closely represents the speakers’ linguistic knowledge. In addition, Haspelmath (ibid.:178) also draws attention to the similarity of the representation using morpheme-by-morpheme gloss to the Morpheme-based Model. These considerations and above mentioned inconsistencies with the theoretical distinction between the derivational and inflectional meanings of affixes, influenced the decision to incorporate the Construction

Morphology model which more fully explains the relations between the levels of morphology and semantics.

3.3. CONSTRUCTION MORPHOLOGY MODEL

Construction Grammar (CG) is one of the main grammatical theories used in this thesis. According to Goldberg (1995:1), the notion of ‘construction’ in grammatical discussions has been considered as a widely accepted phenomenon and that might be one of the reasons why this theory is new compared to most of the other theories.

The notion of ‘construction’ is not a new concept. Many famous scholars consider the construction to be the rudimentary element of the language (Brugman 1988; Fillmore, Kay and O’Connor 1988; Goldberg 1995; Lakoff 1987; Lambrecht 1994). In early scholarly works the constructions were already discussed; for example, Bloomfield (1935:222) discussed the notion of word layers dividing them into two, “an outer layer” and “an inner layer”, where the ‘outer layer’ consists of inflectional constructions and the ‘inner layer’ consists of word formation processes. Nevertheless, Booij (2010:16) points out, that the main difference between the early discussions of ‘construction’ lies in the definition of ‘construction’. Goldberg (1995:5) clarifies that the main idea behind CG is that a construction itself is “defined to exist if one or more of its properties are not strictly predictable from knowledge of the other constructions existing in the grammar”. Michaelis and Lambrecht discuss the concepts behind Construction Grammar and the organisation of constructions explaining:

In Construction Grammar, the grammar represents an inventory of form-meaning-function complexes, in which words are distinguished from grammatical constructions only with regard to their internal complexity. The inventory of constructions is not unstructured; it is more like a map than a shopping list. Elements in this inventory are related through inheritance hierarchies, containing more or less general patterns.

(Michaelis and Lambrecht, 1996: 216)

Booij clarifies that learners gradually grasp the abstract generalisations of the linguistic constructs by obtaining the knowledge and understanding of the main linguistic structures (2010:2). All of these different definitions of the main focus have one main assumption in common: the idea that a ‘construction’ is the core element of the grammatical organisation of a language and that it is the core element than needs to be acquired by the lexicon.

Booij (2010:11) clarifies that the idea of construction has long been discussed in various linguistic studies, but the most common meaning of ‘construction’, which denotes the comprising of form and meaning, is mostly used to discuss syntactic patterns where there is a correlation between the semantic meaning and the syntactic properties. These statements come into agreement with Goldberg’s (1995:7) claims that in this theory, there are no clear boundaries between lexicon and syntax, which leads to the conclusion that morphology and syntax are thought to be interrelated areas of linguistic phenomena. Furthermore, Goldberg (*ibid.*) clarifies that the only main difference between syntax and lexis and their constructions is the level of complexity and involvement of phonological representation, apart from that, both of the domains contain the same characteristics of combining form and meaning. The principle of the CG model, as described by Jackendoff (2002:125) and Booij (2010:5), is that each level is controlled by its own rules and restrictions; nevertheless there are ‘interface’ levels that explain and define the relation between each level.

Booij is one of the main scholars promoting Construction Grammar theories, particularly taking interest in Construction Morphology (CM) as it is one of the areas of the theory least analysed. The theoretical background of this particular approach is taken from Booij’s recent books *Construction Morphology* (2010). In this publication the aims of Construction Morphology are presented, which is to seek better understanding of the interrelatedness of the morphological, lexical and syntactic levels, offering a theoretical model in which both, syntactic and morphological characteristics can be explained (2010:1). CM assumes that every single word combines three dimensional information containing phonological, syntactical and semantic restrictions of that word, and the morphological level influences all three levels of the word (Booij 2010:5). Booij has adapted the theoretical considerations of Culicover and Jackendoff (2005) and Jackendoff (2002). This approach shows a clear relation between three levels of a word and the correlation between these levels are explicitly presented in the Figure 1 (adapted from Jackendoff 2002, Booij 2010):

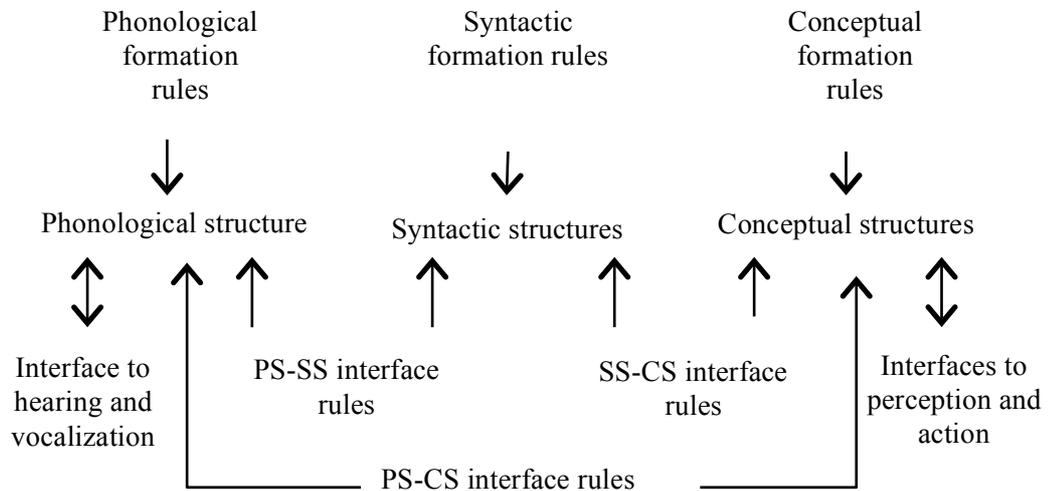


Figure 1: *The tripartite parallel architecture*

Booij (2010:7) explains that term ‘interface’ in this architecture signifies the coherence of the relationship between the three types of information. Phonological processes are influenced by morphological constraints to some extent taking into consideration phonological rules of a complex word, correspondingly, morpho-syntactic and semantic levels follow the same principle of relations (Booij 2010:9). According to Booij (2010:7) this architecture of processes can be expressed in the following notation, where ω stands for phonological word, σ stands for a syllable, and the symbol \leftrightarrow stands for ‘correspondence’:

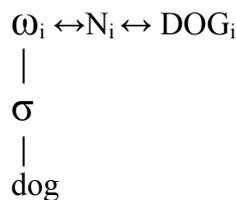


Figure 2: *The lexical representation of dog*

According to the tripartite architecture and the lexical representation schema, the word *dog*, bearing specific phonological information, carries the syntactical information of being a noun, and denoting the semantic concept of DOG. In CG the notations of syntactic properties and the relation between the semantics are presented similarly to the example given below:

- (4) [[x]Ver]N ‘one who Vs’
(Booij 2010, 2)

As Booij (2010:6) summarises, in contrast to the Morpheme-based Model, the CM model rejects the idea of lexicon consisting of only morphemes and in general adopts the view that a word is a combination of various functions, meanings and characteristics, comprised of distinct phonological information linked to specific meaning, and it has prescribed characteristics such as ‘syntactic category’; furthermore every word-formation can be generalised to a rule of construction and can be applied to build different words showing internal organisation and relations between various levels (ibid.). He additionally clarifies that only “independent pairings of form and meaning” have the properties and the functions to be called a type of construction, therefore, ‘morpheme’ does not satisfy these conditions (Booij 2010:15). However, Goldberg (2006:5) includes ‘morphemes’ into the list of construction types. Booij (2010:15) describes Goldberg’s choice as an archaic remainder of the Morpheme-based Model as the smallest linguistic unit in CG is considered to be the word.

In sum, the main aim of the CM is to provide a device which helps to account for the processes that occur within the three levels concerning the word: phonology, syntax and semantics. In addition, it operates within the main principles of CG which assumes that every aspect of grammatical organisation is coded in constructions, whether it is the domain of phonology, morphology or syntax.

3.4. SUMMARY

This section discussed two models and their theoretical considerations which will be adapted and used in this study. The main framework is taken from Construction Grammar and this study assumes that languages consist mainly of constructions in different levels. CG, particularly Construction Morphology is used due to a clear interrelation between the three levels of phonology, syntax and semantics. The tripartite architecture, adapted from Jackendoff 2002, and Booij 2010, was presented to demonstrate how these three levels influence each other. This model, however, does not have a clear gloss and distinction of the phenomenon of affixation, which is crucial in this analysis. Therefore, the Morpheme-based Model is also used for these purposes.

As this research is concerned with the adaptation of English loan nouns into Lithuanian discourse, the affixation and derivational processes need to be analysed in great detail. The Morpheme-based Model assumes that the smallest meaningful constituent of the lexicon is the morpheme, and that affixes, derivational or inflectional, carry meaning and, as a result, are listed in the lexicon. These theoretical considerations are partially followed in this research, assuming that some morphemes carry meaning, nevertheless, some have only functional properties. In addition, the MbM model provides a detailed morpheme-by-morpheme gloss, presenting the relations and processes of inflection and derivation, which is needed in this study. These two models are merged together to form a framework of this research and the adapted model is presented in more detail in

section 5.2. The next section deals with the theoretical background of the Lithuanian noun in order to demonstrate the morphological, syntactic and semantic restrictions and requirements that a loan word needs to obtain in order to get integrated into the Lithuanian NP.

4. LITHUANIAN NOUN

4.1. INTRODUCTION

Senn (1944:115) describes Lithuanian as being the most archaic from the branch of Baltic languages which retained a lot of unchanged forms. Kasparaitis (2005:2), Ružė (2008:22) and Paulauskienė (2007:63) claim that words in Lithuanian are classified into eleven classes following semantic meaning and syntactic relations and nouns comprise one of the main classes¹⁷. Kasparaitis (2005:3) clarifies that the main morphological features of the noun are gender classification, inflection by number, inflection by case, and to carry the meaning of a ‘thing’.

There are a few terms in Lithuanian literature that are not common in international literature discussing morphology. The terms ‘ending’ and ‘flexion’ are widely used in Lithuanian literary sources to refer to the derivational and inflectional suffixes in describing word formation and inflectional role complexity. This study, for the purpose of clarity, adopts the international terminology and refers to all affixes that are attached to the end of the stem as ‘suffixes’.

Ambrasas (2006b:90) states that as the Lithuanian language is highly inflectional, affixes carry more than one meaning at a time. Ružė (2008:8) explains that in the Lithuanian language affixes carry two functions: a) word formation functions, and b) inflectional function. He indicates that inflectional affixes, mainly suffixes, do not change the lexical meaning of the word, but change grammatical meaning, and they also carry such information as gender, number, case, person, tense, and mood; derivational affixes, on the other hand, can be not only suffixes, but likewise prefixes, which change lexical meaning of the word (Ružė 2008:8). Ružė (2008:20-21) describes a word being a combination of lexical meaning and grammatical features, therefore, every word has a lexical form, and every lexical form is expressed through a specific grammatical form, which in some cases also carries meaning. In other words, sometimes grammatical form, that a lexical item has to adapt, combines lexical meaning with grammatical function. For example, suffix *-as* in inanimate nouns expresses only the grammatical function of agreement, however, in animate nouns it functions as the marker of natural gender and as agreement marker. Gender assignment is considered to be derivational, consequently, some derivational rules concerning gender assignment are discussed in one of the sections below. Kasparaitis (2005:3) agrees that case, gender and number in the Lithuanian language are expressed together through one suffix; i.e. while inflecting the noun according by a certain declension paradigm, gender, number and case are combined into one suffix (for example, *mam-q_{F.SG.ACC}*). This section is organised accordingly to discuss the number, gender, case, and declensions of the Lithuanian noun. Moreover, an overview of the noun phrase organisation is needed, as the collected data comprises phrases including adjectives and nouns.

¹⁷ All translation from Lithuanian sources - Ambrasas (2006a), Kasparaitis (2005), Miliūnaitė (2004), Paulauskienė (2007), Ružė (2008) and Vaicekauskienė (2004a, 2004b, 2007) - are mine.

4.2. NUMBER

Modern standard Lithuanian differentiates nouns into two numbers: singular and plural which denotes the difference between ‘one’ and ‘more than one’, as stated by Ambrazas (2006b:102), Kasparaitis (2005:3), Mathiassen (1996:39), Paulauskienė (2007:73) and Ružė (2008:26). As in every language there are some nouns that do not follow general differentiation. Ambrazas (2006b:95) and Ružė (2008:26) claim that there are nouns which only have a singular number and cannot occur in plural, like *duona* meaning ‘bread_{F.SG.NOM.}’ (term ‘singularia tantum’ is used), and there are Ns that occur only in plural, like *tymai* meaning ‘measles_{M.PL.NOM.}’ (term ‘pluralia tantum’ is used).

Ambrazas (2006b:95) further clarifies that plural nouns that do not have singular are used to refer to one and more than one of that item, for example, *žirklės*_{F.PL.NOM.} ‘scissors’ is used to refer to one or more than one item. As it will be seen further in this section, number is closely related to gender and especially declensions.

4.3. GENDER

Corbett (1991:1) states that gender is not only the classification of a part of speech, for example nouns, it is rather a category that languages possess. As claimed by Rijkhoff (2002:61), some languages distinguish the contrast between the biological gender (also called ‘semantic’, ‘natural’, or ‘sex’ gender) and ‘grammatical’ gender (based on the morphological structure of the noun). One of the main concerns that Rijkhoff (ibid.) puts forward is the speakers’ perception of gender in cases when grammatical gender and biological gender of the noun coincide; i.e. when the noun and the referent of the noun have the same gender, it is hard to understand whether the speakers take into consideration the grammatical distinction, biological distinction, or both in order to grasp the concept of the noun’s gender.

Ambrazas (2006b:91) argues that gender as a category of nouns carries a double function in Lithuanian language. As he explains, gender has derivational functions, but is also closely related to inflectional processes, therefore, in his opinion gender is treated as having a grammatical function like number and case belonging to the inflectional morphology (ibid.). Corbett (1991:30) points out that in most languages there are patterns in gender classification and mentions that the frequent differentiations are ‘animate’ /‘inanimate’ and female /male. In Lithuanian language nouns are classified into two main gender categories: masculine and feminine, and both correspond to natural or biological genders of animate nouns (Ambrazas 2006b:97; Holvoet and Semėnienė 2006:102; Kasparaitis 2005:3; Mathiassen 1996:34; Paulauskienė 2007:69; Ružė 2008:24; Senn 1944:115). The next subsection is concerned with the rules and patterns of semantic gender.

4.3.1. SEMANTIC GENDER

Corbett (1991:1) clarifies that gender can coincide with natural gender of the referent. In the Lithuanian language it is the case that gender of nouns referring to animate objects corresponds with the natural gender of the referent, which can be female or male.

As Ambrazas (2006b:98-99), Mathiassen (1996:37) Paulauskienė (2007:36) and Ružė (2008:25) describe, gender determination rules in the Lithuanian language are relatively

simple: nouns carrying the suffixes in singular nominative *-as*, *-ys*, *-us*, *-uo* (except *sesuo* ‘sister’) denote masculine, and nouns with the suffixes *-a* and *-ė* denote feminine gender (with exceptions of Ns that denote masculine natural gender). As stated by Mathiassen (ibid.) and Ružė (2008:25), the last suffix *-is* can denote both genders, but the distinction lies in genitive case: if the word has *-io* in genitive, it refers to masculine gender, and if the word has *-ies* it denotes feminine (*brolis*_{M.SG.NOM.}/*brolio*_{M.SG.GEN.} ‘brother’; *moteris*_{F.SG.NOM.}/*moteries*_{F.SG.GEN.} ‘woman’). According to Holvoet and Semėnienė (2006:106) and Paulauskienė (2007:72), masculine gender is used as a default gender when describing a mixed group of people; for example, when talking about a group of *studentės* (‘students’_{F.SG.NOM.}) and *studentai* (‘students’_{M.SG.NOM.}), only *studentai* is used.

Ružė (2008:17) explains that gender distinction between male and female referents of the same noun is made through suffixation. For example, in order to make a noun referring to a female ‘deer’ a word *elnias*_{M.SG.NOM.} is divided into *eln-* a meaningful stem- and suffix *-ias*, then suffix *-ė* is attached to the stem, and the word *elnė*_{F.SG.NOM.} is derived. Mathiassen (1996:37-37) declares that nouns that refer to occupation and have the suffixes *-as* and *-us*, refer to masculine nouns, which is opposed to nouns denoting occupation with the suffix *-ė* or *-a*; for example, *mokytojas*_{M.SG.NOM.}/*mokytoja*_{F.SG.NOM.} (‘teacher’). These examples show that gender distinction of nouns is sometimes expressed through derivation, adding a different suffix. Rijkhoff (1991:2002) suggests that affixes can denote a feature of a noun rather than showing a grammatical marker, adding additional information to the noun, in this case a meaning of gender. Paulauskienė (2007: 20) points out that a derived word has a more complex meaning than the original word, for example, *vilkas* ‘wolf’_{M.SG.NOM.} has less complex meaning than *vilkė* ‘wolf’_{F.SG.NOM.} as the latter is derived from the masculine equivalent and comprises the meanings of a ‘wolf’ and ‘female’. She further clarifies that the meaning of the derived word is a set of meanings that are transferred from the elements that the word is combined off (Paulauskienė 2007:22).

As explained by Paulauskienė (2007:70), there are Ns that have gender distinction expressed not only through the process of suffixation, but different genders are expressed through different words; for example, *vyras* /*moteris* ‘man /woman’ or *karvė* /*bulius* ‘cow /bull’. Ambrasas (2006b:98) states that in cases where the gender of the animal is not relevant and the speaker is stating generally, the N denoting the animal is used mostly in masculine, nevertheless, it can also be used in feminine gender. Ružė (2008:25) describes gender in nouns denoting animals as not always motivated by semantics or natural ‘sex’ of the actual representative, i.e. there are nouns that are of feminine or masculine gender but refer to both genders of the animal. For example, *ežys*_{M.SG.NOM.} (‘hedgehog’) refers to masculine or feminine animal while having the suffix *-ys* denoting masculine gender.

Holvoet and Semėnienė (2006:105) give an explicit example of gender mismatch between the semantic and grammatical function of gender, stating that the adjective carries agreement marker of the natural gender (masculine) which refers to the noun *dėdė* meaning ‘uncle’ (*geras dėdė* ‘good uncle’); nonetheless the suffix *-ė* belongs strictly to feminine gender. In some cases, as they indicate, gender agreement in NPs is influenced by semantic reasons than grammatical (Holvoet and Semėnienė 2006:102). For example, the noun can semantically represent a masculine gender referent, but according to the grammatical features display a feminine gender suffix. Ambrasas

(2006b:101), Holvoet and Semėnienė (2006:106), Paulauskienė (2007:70) and Ružė (2008:26) likewise draw the attention to inconsistencies of nouns that describe animate objects; these Ns also follow the pattern of above mentioned *dėdė* ('uncle') and have the suffix of feminine gender, however, these nouns can refer to feminine or masculine referent. For example, *nemokša*, meaning 'person who does not know how to do things,' can refer to female or masculine animate noun and this difference is seen through the agreement markers of controlled units of the phrase like adjectives, demonstratives, numerals etc. *vienas nemokša*_{M.SG.NOM}/ *viena nemokša*_{F.SG.NOM}. ('the one who does not know how to do things'_{M.SG.NOM}/'the one who does not know how to do things'_{F.SG.NOM}).

Holvoet and Semėnienė (2006:102) explain that there is a conventional agreement between the researchers to assume that all nouns are "associated with the value of gender" and this association is a part of a lexical unit. This study agrees with Holvoet and Semėnienė assuming that animate nouns carry the meaning of natural gender which is stored in the lexicon. Furthermore, as seen from the examples in this section, gender opposition between masculine and feminine can be derived by changing the suffix of the noun and adding additional meaning, as a result, gender agreement falls under derivational morphology.

Payne (1997:108) points out that natural gender is also signified by morphological agreement. Corbett (1991:32), on the other hand, draws the conclusion that in most languages semantic motivation of gender assignment is not the only process, therefore, he suggests seeking formal criteria for gender assignment. The next subsection discusses the notion of grammatical gender that is assigned to inanimate objects.

4.3.2. GRAMMATICAL GENDER

Payne (1997:107) declares that grammatical gender is perceived by linguists as systems of grammatical organisation of nouns, pronouns and other referential devices and mostly is not connected with natural taxonomy. As Holvoet and Semėnienė (2006:101-102) explain, the category of gender is motivated by the biological sex correspondence in animate nouns; consequently, the inanimate noun classification into masculine and feminine genders is strictly arbitrary. Holvoet and Semėnienė (2006:105) claim that all inanimate nouns mimic the gender of animate nouns and this is one of the reasons why all agreement markers are transferred to the controlled elements of the inanimate NP the same as they are in animate NP organisation.

According to Kasparaitis (2005:2), inflectional morphemes signify such grammatical aspects as gender, person, case etc., and never change the meaning or grammatical category, most importantly, never changes the semantic meaning of the word. Corbett (1991:115) states that gender is most frequently expressed through inflectional affixation, which is the case in the Lithuanian language. Ambrazas (2006b:98) also indicates that inanimate nouns are ascribed to a certain gender without semantic motivation, corresponding to their stem, case suffixes and modifiers. In other words, there are certain patterns that an inanimate noun follows, which are similar to animate noun patterns, but different in respect of meaning of 'gender' term itself. In animate noun gender assignment semantic meaning, or to be precise - natural gender, is followed, while in the case of inanimate nouns, gender is assigned agreeing with morphological rules. Holvoet and Semėnienė (2006:104) clarify that the main function of grammatical gender is to signal the agreement suffix in the NP. As each noun has to

carry the classification of gender in the Lithuanian language, inanimate nouns are ascribed to a gender just for syntactic purposes.

4.3.3. GENDER ASSIGNMENT TO LOAN WORDS

Corbett (1991:203) declares that in most languages that have gender differentiation, the agreement with gender has to be shown and cannot be omitted. Consequently, gender is sometimes a forced element in such cases when the gender of the head of the NP is not specified. The native speaker, on the other hand, has to know what gender to use in the production of speech (Corbett 1991:7). He suggests that there are specific patterns and rules that are followed in gender assignment, hence, native speakers, not consciously knowing the rules of gender assignment, can correctly assign gender to nouns that are not known to them (Corbett 1991:7). As it was discussed in this section, there are two different classifications of nouns, animate and inanimate, and those two classes of nouns follow similar patterns of gender assignment. The problem arises when there are loan words introduced into Lithuanian, as all nouns, animate or inanimate do not possess gender and often there are phonological, orthographical or morphological restrictions to acquiring gender. This section looks at common principles of gender assignment and some data and considerations about gender assignment to loan words.

According to Vaicekauskienė (2007:179), the speaker is using intuitive knowledge of class assignment, which is motivated by natural sex, and consequently gender is assigned through instinctive apparatus rather than following grammatical, phonological or semantic rules in Lithuanian. One of the main reasons for borrowing words is the non-existent equivalent in the base language. As stated by Miliūnaitė (2004:35), if the target language offers one word for several meanings, while the base language offers several words or phrases instead, the target language word is borrowed for combination of those meanings. It can be seen from Vaicekauskienė's findings (2004a: 24), that loanword substitution to Lithuanian equivalents is becoming more lenient in adapting and borrowing English words and purism is not as strict as it was a few decades ago. Moreover, she draws the conclusion that this might be the result of English language being *lingua franca* and therefore the borrowing process in everyday speech is more common than it used to be (Vaicekauskienė 2004a). Additionally, she predicts that if the loanword is used very often and takes over the place of the base language word, it can be added to the list of allowed loanwords (Vaicekauskienė 2007:65).

As pointed out by Senn (1944:110), under the influence of other surrounding languages in various periods of times, the Lithuanian language has encountered the problem of loan word invasion. This problem, as claimed by Senn (*ibid.*:112), was solved by introducing a translation of a loan word following the prototype of the foreign language, but also obeying the restrictions of the native language, as the result of that, various compounds and phrases appeared in Lithuanian vocabulary. According to Vaicekauskienė (2004a:9), the process and policy of standardising loanwords in Lithuania follow the main principle of purifying the language by excluding loanwords and introducing Lithuanian substitutes. Nonetheless, the phenomenon of borrowing foreign words occurs on a daily basis, hence, the adaptation of an alien item into a base language has to take place.

Corbett (1991:64) states that the semantic characteristics of the noun are sufficient enough to assign gender. However, morphological assignment system overlaps with the semantic motivation in certain ways (*ibid.*). The regular pattern of gender assignment to

borrowed nouns, as explained by Corbett (1991:81), is following regular gender assignment rules as L1 words. According to Ambrazas (2006a:82) and Ružė (2008:26), there are some loan words that have no morphological or grammatical adaptation into Lithuanian discourse as their phonological or orthographic environment does not allow the process of adaptation. These loan words are usually of two kinds: 1) nouns which have accentuated vowels *-ė*, *-i*, *-o*, and *-u*; and 2) nouns which have unaccentuated *-i*, *-o*, and *-u* (ibid.). As Vaicekauskienė (2007:160) clarifies, the nouns that end in vowels, are usually inadaptable to the Lithuanian grammatical environment, therefore they are uninflected. Nevertheless, Vaicekauskienė (ibid.) points out that there are exceptions, when this type of noun is orthographically adapted corresponding with Lithuanian standards, but the process of adaptation usually takes place in the morphological level. She also states that all nouns that are borrowed and have final vowel are subject to being recognised as loanwords, except for the nouns that have the final accentuated *-ė*; these cases are seen as equal language entries and their grammatical adaptation into inflectional and derivational system is rarely questioned (Vaicekauskienė 2007: 162). Ambrazas (2006a:64) adds that accentuated and unaccentuated final *-i*, *-o*, and *-u* are considered to denote masculine gender, while only *-ė* is denoting feminine gender in adapted loan nouns. Ružė (2008:26) similarly draws attention to the fact that nouns with suffix *-ė* which refer to animate objects and the natural gender is known to be masculine, following the semantic rules which supersede the grammatical differentiation, are assigned to masculine gender (Ružė 2008:26).

According to Vaicekauskienė (2004b:67), some borrowing tendencies are seen as derivational processes by the speakers. She indicates that there has been an inclination to consider the last part of a compound or to use an English suffix, adapting it to appear and function as a part of a derivational suffix in Lithuanian (Vaicekauskienė 2004b:67). These are such formations as:

- *-eris*, combined from *-er* and *-is*;
 - *-ingas* combined from *-ing* and *-as*;
 - *aizeris* combined from *-izer* (phon. /aizər/) and *-is*;
 - *-menas*; *-menė* combined from *-man* (phon. /mæn/) and *-as*, *-man* and *-ė*;
- (Vaicekauskienė 2004b, 2007)

In addition, Ambrazas (2006a:64) and Vaicekauskienė (2007:170) clarified that in the case of the loanwords that are not grammatically or morphologically adapted, the only indication of gender and number is understood from the descriptive words and controlled elements. Ambrazas (2006a:64) and Vaicekauskienė (2007:170) denote that all loanwords that are borrowed into the Lithuanian discourse have gender assigned to them, however the notion of gender does not denote 'sex' of the object and is assigned only for syntactic purposes. Corbett (1991:72) states that some loan nouns fall under regular declension type of a base language, therefore, the gender is assigned according to the declension rather than semantic meaning. In order to investigate gender relations with the type of declension, the next section discusses case and declensions.

4.4. CASE AND DECLENSION

Case and declension categories are considered to be under the domain of inflectional morphology (Ambrazas 2006a; Paulauskienė 2007). This section outlines the declensions in detail, but the cases of the Lithuanian language are just mentioned briefly, as the main concern of this study does not lie in syntactic organisation of the noun phrase, but rather in morphological processes of the noun.

According to Ružė (2008:26) and Ambrazas (2006b:106), cases are used for expressing syntactic relationship between words in the phrase and the sentence levels in the Lithuanian language, therefore, the noun always occurs in a certain case in accordance with the semantic requirements. In Lithuanian there are six cases that denote relations between the nouns and the rest of the constituents of the phrase or a sentence: nominative (NOM), genitive (GEN), dative (DAT), accusative (ACC), instrumental (INS) and locative (LOC) (Ambrazas 2006b:106; Kasparaitis 2005:3; Mathiassen 1996:38; Paulauskienė 2007:77; Ružė 2008:27). Vocative is considered in some literature to be the seventh case, nonetheless as Ambrazas (2006b:106) and Kasparaitis (2005:3) declare, this case does not refer to any syntactic function and is used more as a stylistic device. These cases show certain syntactic relations and they are expressed through different suffixes. Declension classes are organised according to the patterns how nouns are inflected in certain case, which is discussed below.

As stated by Ambrazas (2006b:123), Kasparaitis (2005:3-4), Paulauskienė (2007:86) and Ružė (2008:49), declensions in Lithuanian are ascribed according to the last vowel of the stem, which occurs in the plural of the dative case and there are five main declensions which are further divided into twelve paradigms. This study, however, will follow only the five declension classification as done by Ružė and Paulauskienė, as the division into paradigms is not necessary for the research. Moreover, Paulauskienė (2007:86) and Ružė (2008) declare that declensions are ascribed following the nominative and dative cases in singular, rather than nominative in singular and dative in plural. These minor inconsistencies do not influence the results of the study, consequently, Ružė's (2008) and Paulauskienė (2007) declension classification is considered valid for the analysis of the data.

Paulauskienė (2007:86) adds that declensions are enumerated according to the number of words that fall under the specific declension. As Kasparaitis (2005:4) clarifies, all declension classes and paradigms are combined in relation to phonological similarities of the noun suffixes. All five paradigms are presented in Table 1 (adapted from Ambrazas 2006b, Kasparaitis 2005, Paulauskienė 2007, and Ružė 2008).

Number	Case	Declension				
		I -(i)as, -is, -ys	II -(i)a, -i, -ė	III -is	IV -(i)us	V -uo, -ė
Singular	NOM.	-(i)as, -is, -ys	-(i)a, -i, -ė	-is	-(i)us	-uo, -ė
	GEN.	-(i)o	-(i)os, -ės	-ies	-(i)aus	-s
	DAT.	-(i)ui	-(i)ai, -ei	-iai, -iui	-(i)ui	-iui, -iai
	ACC.	(i)ą, -į	-(i)ą, -ę	-į	-(i)ų	-i
	INS.	-(i)u	-(i)a, -e	-imi	-(i)umi	-iu, -ia
	LOC.	-e, -yje, -uje	-(i)oje, -ėje	-yje	-(i)uje	-yje
	VOC.	-e, -ai, -(i)au, -i, -y	-(i)a, -i, -e	-ie	-(i)au	-ie
Plural	NOM.	-(i)ai	-(i)os, -ės	-ys	-ūs, -iai	-ys
	GEN.	-(i)ų	-(i)ų	-(i)ų	-(i)ų	-ų
	DAT.	-(i)ams	-(i)oms, -ėms	-ims	-ums, -iams	-ims
	ACC.	-(i)us	-(i)as, -es	-is	-(i)us	-is
	INS.	-(i)ais	-(i)omis, -ėmis	-imis	-umis, -iais	-imis
	LOC.	-(i)uose	-(i)ose, -ėse	-yse	-(i)uose	-yse

Table 1: Lithuanian noun declensions

According to Ružė (2008:49) and Paulauskienė (2007:86), the first declension is comprised of Ns that are of masculine gender and have suffixes *-as*, *-ias*, *-is*, and *-ys* in the singular of the nominative case and *-(i)o* in the singular of dative. They further clarify that this declension usually consists of nouns that have as *a* or *ia* as the last vowel of the stem (Ružė 2008:49, Paulauskienė 2007:86). As Ružė (2008:50) and Paulauskienė (2007:86) declare, the second declension consists of Ns that have *-(i)a*, *-ė*, and *-i* as their suffixes in the SG. NOM. and *-(i)os* and *-ės* in SG. DAT., also having *o*, *io* and *ė* as the last vowel of the stem. These nouns are mostly of feminine gender and only a small group of masculine nouns fall under this declension, like *dėdė*_{M.SG.NOM.} ‘uncle’ or *Smetona*_{M.SG.NOM.} which denotes a last name of a male individual (Ružė 2008:50). The third declension consists of Ns that have *-is* in the SG. NOM. and *-ies* in SG. DAT. (Ružė 2008:52; Paulauskienė 2007:87). Moreover, these Ns have *i* as the vowel of their stem and are mostly of feminine gender (ibid). The fourth declension, as stated by Ružė (2008: 53) and Paulauskienė (2007:87), contains nouns that denote masculine gender and have in SG. NOM. *-(i)us* while in SG. DAT. *-(i)aus* suffixes. All of these nouns have *u* and *iu* as their stem vowels (ibid.). Finally, the fifth declension comprises all nouns that have suffixes *-uo* and *ė* in the SG. NOM. and *-s* in the SG. DAT. (Ružė 2008:55; Paulauskienė 2007:87). These are the nouns that have *-en*, *-n-*, and *-er* vowel, vowel and consonant combinations in the stem and denote masculine gender, except for the two feminine gendered words *duktė* ‘daughter’ and *sesuo* ‘sister’ (ibid.).

As claimed by Holvoet and Semėnienė (2006:103), gender is one of the aspects that determine the noun’s declension paradigm and its suffixes and not only in the nominative case, therefore, the gender can be determined according to the suffix. Nevertheless, there are exceptions in determining gender following this principle; a few nouns in Lithuanian language have feminine gender suffix, however, the semantic meaning of it denotes a masculine referent, as mentioned above in the example of *dėdė* meaning ‘uncle’.

Ambrasas (2006b:124) explains that in Modern Lithuanian there is a tendency to combine or merge the declensions using more common patterns, and this process is encouraged by the existence of identical inflectional forms in several declensions. He draws the conclusion that this is the reason why the declension system in Modern Lithuanian is becoming less complicated (Ambrasas 2006b:124). This might be the reason why some of the declension classes have more nouns than others. Furthermore, this can be a valid explanation why some gender suffixes are assigned more often than others.

4.5. NOUN DERIVATIONAL RULES

As stated before in this study, gender is considered to fall under derivational rather than inflectional classification in certain circumstances, therefore, some derivation rules and restrictions need to be addressed. Ružė (2008:58) declares that mostly words in Lithuanian are derived through morphological prefixation and suffixation, and compounding is used occasionally. Mostly used, as described by Ružė (2008:58-69), is the suffixation method to create nouns. He also points out that there are hundreds of suffixes that can be used to derive new Ns and most of them have masculine and feminine equivalents if they denote animate nouns, and the gender of other nouns depends upon the semantic meaning of the derivative (Ružė 2008:58-69). For example, there is a category of suffixes specifically to derive a different gender from the existing nouns: a) using different suffixes, like *-ininkas*, denoting profession, and a feminine suffix *-ė*, denoting feminine gender, to derive a female equivalent from the nouns that describe a person; b) *-ienė* and *-iuvienė* to derive feminine equivalents from masculine nouns denoting people; and c) *-inas* to derive masculine equivalents from feminine names of the animal (Ružė 2008:67):

- | | | | |
|-----|---|-----|---|
| (5) | Lithuanian (Ružė 2008:67)
darb-inink-ė
work-er-F.SG.NOM
'female worker' | (6) | Lithuanian (Ružė 2008:67)
graf-ienė
count-F.SG.NOM.
'countess' |
| (7) | Lithuanian (Ružė 2008:67)
puodž-iuvienė
potter- F.SG.NOM.
'the wife of the potter' | (8) | Lithuanian (Ružė 2008:67)
lap-inas
fox-M.SG.NOM.
'male fox' |

Each suffix that is used to derive nouns has a meaning, and if the noun is inanimate, gender is assigned automatically according to the grammatical form of the suffix. Ružė (2008:58-69), for example, lists only a few suffixes that can be used to derive different nouns as all of them cannot be listed due to their vast number. Nevertheless, it can be seen from a few examples given by Ružė (2008) that the suffix determines the gender of the inanimate noun in the derivative. For example, some suffixes that are classified into the category of denoting tools have feminine gender like *-yklė* (*šaudyklė* 'shuttle_{F.SG.NOM.}'), but the majority has masculine *-eklis*, or *-tukas* (*žarsteklis* 'rake_{M.SG.NOM.}'/ *plaktukas* 'hammer_{M.SG.NOM.}') (Ružė 2008:63).

The rules of noun derivation consists of numerous suffixes which are listed in the literature, however, this is just a brief overview and the main rules and principles are enough to conduct the analysis. The next section discusses the organisation of the noun phrase.

4.6. THE ORGANISATION OF A NOUN PHRASE

Rijkhoff (2002:23) points out that the inner organisation of a NP can be significantly different in respect to other NPs. It is also claimed that a spoken language and its NPs are less complex in grammatical structure compared to the written noun phrases (Rijkhoff 2002:23; Linell 1982, Perkins 1992:89). This study is not concerned with complex noun phrases as the data was collected from spoken language, therefore, all the examples that were gathered are presented in a noun phrase containing an adjective and a loan noun that were used by the speaker.

Di Sciullo and Williams (1987:23) explains that the morphological and syntactic head is determined by its control over other constituents and Haspelmath (2002:90) presents the syntactic head or the 'controller' of the phrase having such properties and functions:

- Being the "morphosyntactic locus;"
- Having control over the constituents of the phrase;
- Agreeing with the rest of the constituents in person/number.

Consequently, the head of the NP is the noun, which is the case in Lithuanian language as a noun is the main unit carrying meaning while other constituents of the phrase follows syntactic characteristics of the noun.

Syntactic relations, as stated by Paulauskienė (2007:25) are interrelated with morphological forms of the word, therefore, sometimes it is hard to separate the two domains. Nevertheless, syntactic relations always follow the hierarchy of the noun phrase in the Lithuanian language. As mentioned in this section, the noun carries the information of gender, number and case together with the meaning of 'a thing' (Kasparaitis 2005:3). Ambrazas (2006b:134), Paulauskienė (2007:64) and Ružė (2008:72) argue that adjectives (ADJ) are words denoting the qualities of an object, according to the syntactic rules they have to agree with head of the phrase and, as a result, they are inflected for gender, number and case the same as the head noun. It can be seen from this characterisation, that the noun is the head of the noun phrase in the Lithuanian language, controlling other constituents, in this study mostly adjectives.

Ambrazas (2006b:138) and Ružė (2008:78) claim that adjectives also have comparative and superlative forms and have different declensions, however this information is not used in the research and therefore not presented.

4.7. SUMMARY

This section discussed the grammatical characteristics of the Lithuanian noun for the purpose of better understanding the processes and restrictions imposed upon the loan word while adapting it into the Lithuanian discourse. Number, semantic gender, grammatical gender, gender assignment rules to loan words, case, declension, noun derivational rules, and the organisation of the noun phrase were presented.

It was established that Lithuanian nouns are inflected by two numbers: singular and plural, which denote the opposition between semantic meaning of 'one' and 'more than one'. According to Holvoet and Semėnienė (2006:120), in the Lithuanian language 'gender' is motivated on the basis of semantic differentiation and this explains the

overlapping grammatical and natural genders of the Ns in most cases; additionally, they argue that this correspondence is the basis of the gender differentiation into two, masculine and feminine gender classes (*ibid.*). They further clarify that the distinct suffix of gender classes support the requirements that are usually made for grammatical categories, therefore 'gender' can be seen as carrying two different functions: a) denoting a semantic category of masculine and feminine distinction, and b) conveying the grammatical category of agreement (Holvoet and Semėnienė 2006:204).

As Paulauskienė (2007:70) states, all nouns can be classified into three main classes following gender assignment rules and classification: a) humans, b) animals, and c) all other nouns denoting objects, names of actions etc. This classification is made according to the rules applied while distinguishing and assigning gender. Humans are assigned gender following the corresponding biological gender; and inanimate nouns, names of actions etc. acquire gender corresponding with morphological and phonological similarities to animate nouns. Ambrazas (2006b:98) declares that, following the stem, case suffix and modifiers, the inanimate nouns acquire specific gender.

In the section discussing loan nouns and their integration into the Lithuanian language, it was established that there are specific patterns that are similar to gender assignment for Lithuanian nouns. As stated by Ružė (2008:58) there are some nouns that are indeclinable in the Lithuanian language and all of those nouns are of foreign origin. These nouns have accentuated vowel suffixes *-ė*, *-i*, *-o* and *u*, un-accentuated vowel suffixes *-i*, *-o*, and *-u*, and proper nouns that refer to last names of women and end in consonants (Ružė 2008:58). All of these nouns, as expressed by Ružė (2008), are ascribed to certain genders following semantic and grammatical rules while all other borrowings follow the classification corresponding the similarity between L1 and L2 words. As Vaicekauskienė (2007:223) explains, Lithuanian and its grammar is highly influential and a strong system, therefore borrowed words are easily integrated into the speakers' discourse; the adaptation process follows the main rules of morphological derivational and inflectional principles and keeping the authenticity of the Lithuanian grammar.

In Lithuanian there are six cases that are closely related to five declensions and all nouns are classified into one of them. As discussed, all five declension classes are closely related to gender and nouns are ascribed into a certain declension according to gender, stem vowel and case suffixes.

Some derivational processes were discussed in section 4.5. In Lithuanian, as gender assignment for animate nouns follows derivational processes, some of the rules were overviewed. As Kasparaitis (2005:2) declares, the main function of suffixes in the Lithuanian language is to show syntactic relations between the words like accusative case, gender or number in the phrase or sentence levels. The same suffix, as stated by Kasparaitis (*ibid.*), can carry more than one grammatical distinction and a different meaning at the same time. Therefore, when a noun is said to have masculine gender, it inevitably belongs to a certain declension, following certain inflectional and derivational patterns.

As seen from the short overview of the noun phrase organisation, the noun is the controller of the syntactic characteristics of the entire phrase. All other units, such as

determiners, numerals, adjectives etc. have to agree with the noun and express the same syntactic restrictions. However, it needs to be pointed out that in some cases, as mentioned in the gender section, some nouns that have masculine semantic gender, but are expressed through feminine grammatical gender, transfer the semantic gender to other constituents of the phrase.

5. GENDER ASSIGNMENT ON ENGLISH LOAN NOUNS IN LITHUANIAN

5.1. INTRODUCTION

In this study the main question is the assignment of gender to English loan nouns when they are used in Lithuanian discourse. As mentioned in section 4, there are certain grammatical and semantic patterns that occur while assigning gender. This depends on the noun whether it is animate or inanimate, on the last vowel of the stem, and there are certain emerging patterns involving suffixes which were combined from L1 and L2 morphemes.

Overall, 88 phrases with loan words were collected which occurred 305 times during the informal interviews. After the gathered data was processed, some patterns occurred in loan word adaptation. All of these phrases were organised according to the suffix used and there were 28 phrases used with masculine suffix *-is*, 51 phrases used with masculine suffix *-as*, 5 phrases used with feminine suffix *-ė*, and one phrase that the noun was adapted to correspond with Lithuanian noun having only plural and masculine gender with the suffix *-iai*. This information with all examples is presented in Appendix 1 (Table 1, Table 2, Table 3, and Table 4). All of these findings are discussed in this section analysing the loan nouns according to the classification animate/ inanimate, and corresponding the emerging patterns using suffixes that were derived from English and Lithuanian. This study adapts the model of Construction Morphology and some features of the Morpheme-based Model as discussed in section 3. These two models were merged into one model called the Integrated Construction Morphology Model and this is presented in the next section.

5.2. ADAPTED MODEL

As discussed in section 3, this research will be following the Construction Grammar model, in particular Construction Morphology, and the Morpheme-based Model. For an optimal analysis and the detailed representation of processes, both models are combined to form a unitary system. This section discusses the correlation between the two models and presents schemas following which the analysis is conducted. There is no unitary agreement between the models and scholars following these models, whether morphemes are, or are not, listed in the lexicon as conveying separate meanings. Di Sciullo and Williams (1987) discuss the notion of listedness of the elements whose meanings cannot be predicted, as a result, they have a separate entry in the lexicon. This unpredictability concerns the meanings of morphemes (*ibid.*). Goldberg (1995:4) correlates Morpheme-based and the CG theories by agreeing with Di Sciullo and Williams and calling these 'listemes' constructions. Goldberg (1995) clarifies this by agreeing with Saussure (1916) that morphemes are constructions as they cannot be broken down to smaller parts; they also carry specific meaning and this meaning cannot be predicted from their form.

Additionally, it has been discussed in early scholarly work by Wierzbicka (1988:1) that morphemes, bound or free, as well as constructions, carry a specific meaning; this is motivated by structural semantic differences existing between similar or related constructions pointing out that language is cohesive structure in which every unit in every subsystem is bound to be meaningful like words, grammatical rules or intonations. Following the above mentioned points of view, both models, Morpheme-based and Construction Grammar, can be adapted as valid theoretical basis for the analysis.

As described by Jackendoff (2002) and Booij (2010), the architecture of the construction processes correlate three main levels of word: phonological, syntactic and semantic. These three levels contribute to the form and meaning of the word. This model's limitation is the non-existent level of morphological representation, which is needed to explain and analyse the phenomenon of word insertion from one language to another. Lithuanian is a highly inflectional language and most of the derivational and inflectional processes need to be analysed using morpheme-by-morpheme glosses, therefore the MbM is the ideal model for this purpose. In section 3 a tripartite architecture was presented which shows the correlation between the three word levels (see Figure 1). The morphological level can be added to this schema to include the interface levels between the phonology, syntax and semantics. This is presented in the Figure 3.

This structure shows how morphological formation rules influence the morphological system, which ultimately influences other three levels. Taking into consideration the phonological constraints, morphological rules form the word through the processes of word formation. Consequently, following the rules of syntactic interface, the morphological system is adapted into the syntactic environment. As morphemes carry meaning and the word is a construction of morphemes, the semantic level is directly influenced by the morphological system through the morpho-conceptual interface rules. This structure shows that all three levels - phonological, syntactic and semantic - are influenced by morphological structure and accordingly, morphological structure is influenced following the rules and constraints of the other three systems.

As the Construction Morphology model has its limitations in presenting a clear relation between the meaningful morphemes in the word structure, a new model is proposed and will be referred to as the Integrated Construction Morphology Model (ICMM).

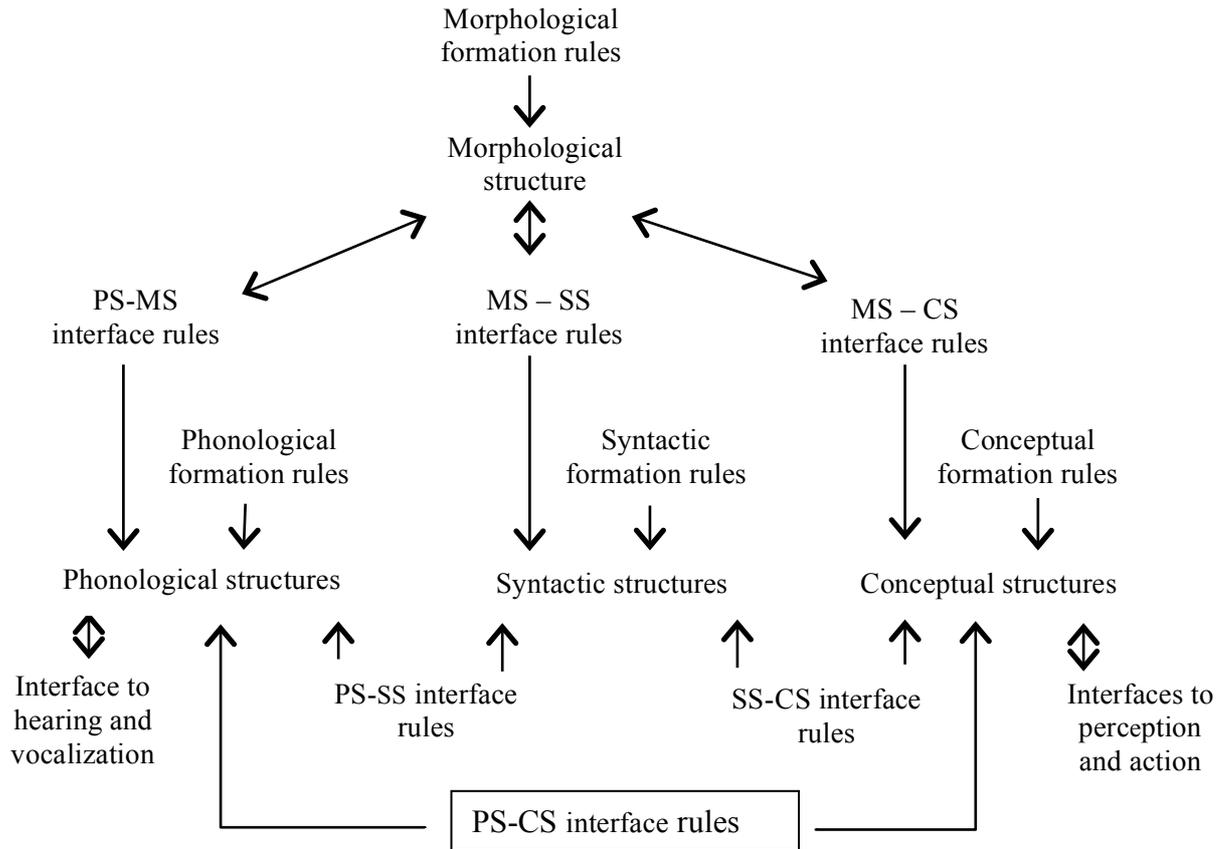


Figure 3: Adapted schema of four level architecture

When adapting the tripartite parallel architecture, the lexical representation needs to be reviewed also, to match the needs of the analysis, following the MbM. In this research phonological notations will be used when needed, however in the most cases only the spelling will be presented. This is presented in Figure 4 where notation from Figure 2 is adapted to represent construction phenomenon and notation from example (2) is adapted for morpheme processes; ω stands for phonological word, σ stands for a syllable, W stands for a transcribed word, m stands for morpheme and \leftrightarrow stands for ‘correspondence’:

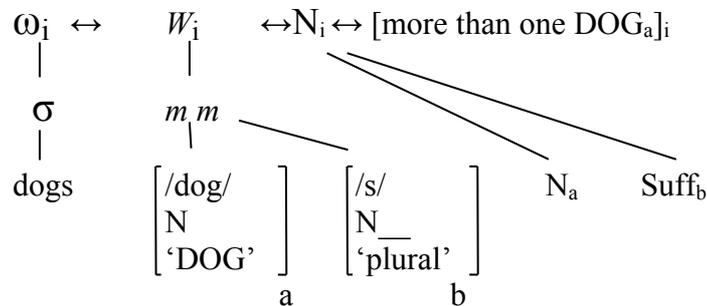


Figure 4: The adapted lexical representation of dog

As this research is mostly concerned with the processes of morphological adaptation, phonological representation is rarely used. Therefore the simplified lexical representation will be used, omitting phonological level following the meanings of Figure 4:

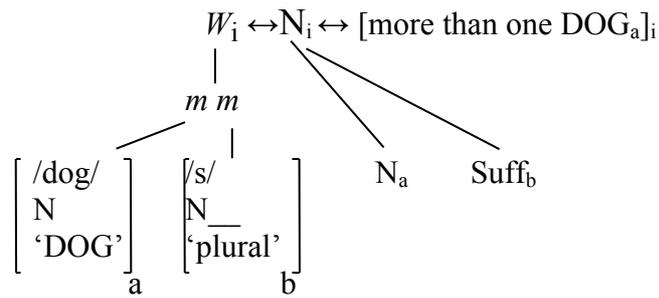


Figure 5: The simplified lexical representation of dog

The schemas in Figure 4 and Figure 5 are the main two schemas that will be used in the analysis in order to represent phonological, morphological, syntactic and semantic processes.

To conclude, the ICMM, which fuses the elements of the MbM, helps to show interrelation between morphemes and syntactic rules that need to be adapted in the syntactic interface and CM’s main theory is adapted to show the correlation between phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics. Both models on their own could not give the flexibility to show all of the processes at once and their main ideas do not reflect the complex differentiation of gender in Lithuanian language.

5.3. ANIMATE LOAN NOUNS

Out of all phrases collected during the research there were 17 Lithuanian phrases with the English loan word denoting animate objects, more accurately, human beings. Out of these phrases there are 14 that denote masculine gender, like in example (9) and that denote feminine gender referents such as in example (10):

- | | |
|---|---|
| <p>(9) a. English
<i>big loser</i>
 big ˈlu:sə </p> <p>b. Lithuanian with a loan word
<i>didel-is lūzer-is</i>
big-M.SG.NOM loser- M.SG.NOM
‘big loser’</p> <p>c. Lithuanian equivalent
<i>didel-is nevykėl-is</i>
big-M.SG.NOM loser- M.SG.NOM
‘big loser’</p> | <p>(10) a. English
<i>usual member</i>
 ˈju:ʒvəl ˈmembə </p> <p>b. Lithuanian with a loan word
<i>pastov-i member-ė</i>
usual-F.SG.NOM member-F.SG.NOM
‘usual member’</p> <p>c. Lithuanian equivalent
<i>pastov-i nar-ė</i>
usual-F.SG.NOM member-F.SG.NOM
‘usual member’</p> |
|---|---|

It needs to be noted that English nouns are adapted either phonologically or orthographically when incorporated into Lithuanian discourse. In the Lithuanian language, words are usually written as they are pronounced and sounds like long vowels have their own individual orthographic representation. For example, in example (9) the word *loser* is transcribed in English with *o* which produces the long vowel [u:] in speech. When it is inserted into Lithuanian, pronunciation of the long vowel [u:] is transcribed *ū* and still pronounced as an English equivalent [u:], and, therefore, the loan word *loser* becomes *lūzer-is*. Most of the data collected was orthographically and phonologically adapted.

Besides the phonological and orthographical adaptation, the word *loser* had to acquire grammatical characteristics of gender, which is the main focus of this study. Following the ICMM model, the example (1) is analysed using the proposed schema in Figure 4 and presented in Figure 6. This schema presents the adaptation processes that are involved while adapting the loan word following phonological changes, morphological changes that are related to syntactic changes, and finally semantic changes that occur to the word *loser*.

As Haspelmath (2002:57) argues, when applying derivational or inflectional rules to the word or morpheme one of the changes that can occur is semantic change. In this case, semantic meaning of a ‘one male person’ is added to this word.

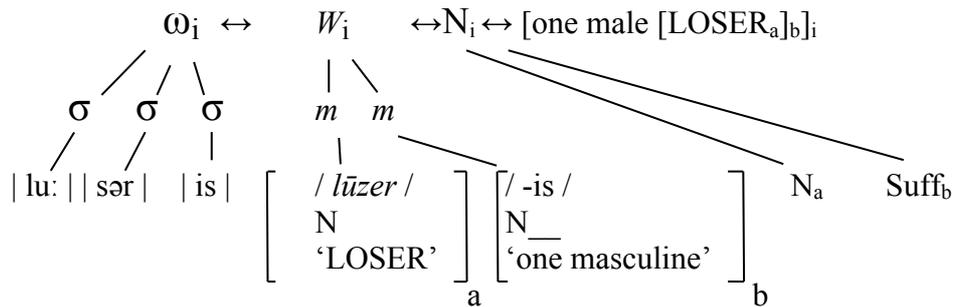


Figure 6: *Phonological, morphological, syntactic, and semantic representation of lūzeris*

Vaicekauskienė (2007:175) claims that only animate nouns whose sex is known to the speaker are ascribed the natural, semantically relevant gender. Ambrasas (2006b:90) states that as Lithuanian language is highly inflectional, suffixes carry more than one meaning at a time. In the example (9) the speaker was referring to a one male person, therefore, the suffix referring to masculine gender, singular number was assigned. This schema can evoke some ambiguous discussion, as number is considered to be carrying a grammatical function rather than semantic. As discussed in section 4, number in Lithuanian is closely related to gender and case as all three categories are expressed through one suffix. This study follows the differentiation of gender and number falling under different morphological processes, number being a grammatical category in the case of animate nouns and gender adding a semantic meaning to the noun, consequently, number will not be reflected further in the analysis unless needed under specific circumstances.

Moreover, as phonological adaptation is not the focus of this research, a simplified schema, which was proposed and presented in Figure 5, will be used through the rest of the analysis as presented in Figure 7 for the same word *lūzeris*:

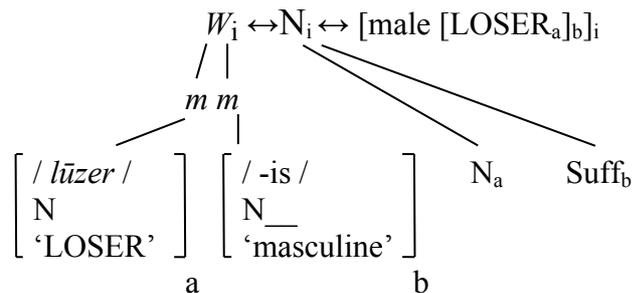


Figure 7: *Morphological, syntactic, and semantic representation of lūzeris*

As mentioned above, from the data collected there were 14 instances of masculine gender and only 3 feminine gender assignments to borrowed English nouns. 14 masculine examples contain 13 examples that contain loan patterns mentioned by Vaicekauskienė (2004b, 2007) relating to the derived suffixes from English and Lithuanian. These nouns involve such examples as *didelis lūzeris* ‘big loser’ (suffix *-eris*), analysed earlier in this section in Figure 7, and *geras bliuzmenas* ‘good bluesman’ (suffix *-menas*). The type of adaptation using pattern suffixation is discussed in section 5.5 in detail. The only noun phrase that was used not according to the Vaicekauskienė’s pattern of suffixation is *įžūlus stafas* ‘rude staff’ and the full gloss is presented in the example (11). The meaning of the phrase in English is ambiguous as it is not clear whether the referents are animate objects, or it is a noun referring to a unit which contains live objects.

In this case, the noun ‘staff’ is classified as animate as Lithuanian equivalent refers to ‘workers’.

- (11) a. English
rude staff
 | ru:d sta:f |
- b. Lithuanian with a loan word
įžūl-us staf-as
 rude-M.SG.NOM staff-M.SG.NOM
 ‘rude staff’
- c. Lithuanian equivalent
įžūl-ūs darbuotoj-ai
 rude-M.PL.NOM workers-M.PL.NOM
 ‘rude staff’

The loan noun *staff* is a singular noun, while the Lithuanian equivalent *darbuotojai* ‘workers’ is plural. Moreover, masculine gender is assigned to the loan word and it acquires suffix *-as*, as presented in the Figure 8:

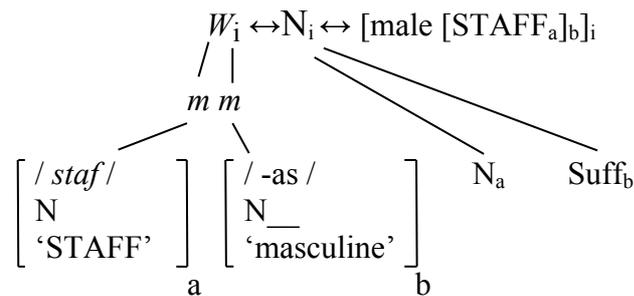


Figure 8: Morphological, syntactic, and semantic representation of *stafas*

The noun *staff* which does not have a gender in English, acquired masculine gender after adaptation into Lithuanian discourse. This gender can be treated as semantic, as it refers to Lithuanian word *darbuotojai*_{M.PL.NOM} ‘workers’ which are of masculine gender, however, in the plural number. The assignment of masculine gender can be triggered according to a) the Lithuanian gender assignment rule for the group of people with mixed gender where masculine is a default gender as in *studentės* ‘students_{F.PL.NOM}’ and *studentai* ‘students_{M.PL.NOM}’ can be referred to as *studentai* ‘students_{M.PL.NOM}’; or b) following the last vowel of the stem and ascribing a certain

declension, which automatically assigns certain gender. In this case, *staff* has vowel *a* therefore automatically it acquires declension I and suffix *-as*.

There were only 3 examples of feminine gender assignment for animate nouns from the collected data *bloga tyneidžerė* ‘bad teenager_{F.SG.NOM}’, *pakeičiama slakerė* ‘replaceable slacker_{F.SG.NOM}’, and *pastovi memberė* ‘usual member_{F.SG.NOM}’. As mentioned in section 4 feminine gender is distinguished according by suffixes *-a*, and *-ė*. For all of three loan nouns the gender and the L1 equivalent gender corresponded accurately including the suffixes *-ė* as presented in the examples (12), (13) and (14). The main reasons for feminine gender assignment, as stated by Vaicekauskienė (2007:174), are phonological similarities of loanwords to feminine Lithuanian nouns and gender transfer to all nouns that have final vowel *-a*. These examples, on the other hand, show that gender was transferred according to the biological gender while speaking about female human beings and instead of proposed vowel *-a*, vowel *-ė* was used. One of the nouns *slakerė* from example (13) is analysed following the ICMM in Figure 9.

In addition, the data shows that all three female loan nouns have *-er* suffixes in the English equivalents. Therefore, one of the conclusions that can be drawn is that firstly, one of the Vaicekauskienė’s proposed patterns was used containing suffix *-eris*, and then from that a feminine equivalent was derived.

- | | |
|--|---|
| <p>(12) a. English
 <i>bad teenager</i>
 bæd 'ti:neɪdʒə </p> <p>b. Lithuanian with a loan word
 <i>blog-a tyneidžer-ė</i>
 bad_{F.SG.NOM} teenager_{F.SG.NOM}
 ‘bad teenager’</p> <p>c. Lithuanian equivalent
 <i>blog-a paaugl-ė</i>
 bad_{F.PG.NOM} teenager_{F.SG.NOM}
 ‘bad teenager’</p> | <p>(13) a. English
 <i>replaceable slacker</i>
 rɪ'pleɪsəbəl 'slækə </p> <p>b. Lithuanian with a loan word
 <i>pakeičiam-a slaker-ė</i>
 replaceable_{F.SG.NOM} slacker_{F.SG.NOM}
 ‘replaceable slacker’</p> <p>c. Lithuanian equivalent
 <i>pakeičiam-a tingin-ė</i>
 replaceable_{F.SG.NOM} slacker_{F.SG.NOM}
 ‘replaceable slacker’</p> |
| <p>(14) a. English
 <i>usual member</i>
 'ju:ʒvəl 'membə </p> <p>b. Lithuanian with a loan word
 <i>pastov-i member-ė</i>
 usual_{F.SG.NOM} member_{F.SG.NOM}
 ‘usual member’</p> <p>c. Lithuanian equivalent
 <i>pastov-i nar-ė</i>
 usual_{F.SG.NOM} member_{F.SG.NOM}
 ‘usual member’</p> | |

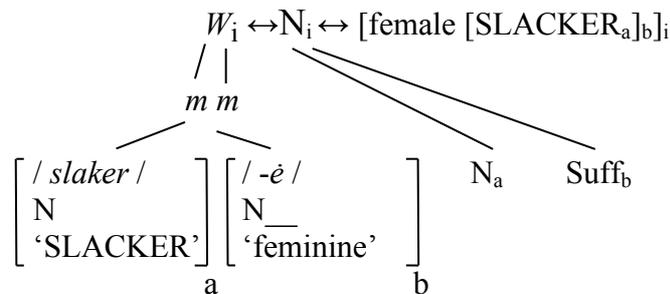


Figure 9: Morphological, syntactic, and semantic representation of *slakerė*

Paulauskienė (2007: 20) gives an example how a feminine meaning of a wolf is derived from *vilkas* ‘wolf_{M.SG.NOM}’ dividing the word into the stem *vil-* and a suffix *-as*, then using the stem and adding a feminine suffix *-ė* a feminine noun is constructed *vilkė* ‘wolf_{F.SG.NOM}’. The same pattern can be seen from the examples above, suffix *-eris* is divided into the two original suffixes *-er* and *-is*, then *-er* is used with feminine suffix *-ė* to gain the result *-erė*, and then it is added to the word *slack*. As Haspelmath (2002:241) indicates that there are specific affixes for feminine gender marking in most languages, while masculine does not; this phenomenon can be explained by the organisation of the societal distributions of gender roles, where men are usually associated with most of the occupations and specialised roles. Lithuanian feminine equivalents of the nouns are also derived from the masculine as seen from the example *vilkas* ‘wolf_{M.SG.NOM}’ / *vilkė* ‘wolf_{F.SG.NOM}’.

The number of animate loan nouns with masculine gender is greater than with feminine gender. One of the reasons for this phenomenon is the discourse of the conversation as most of the times there were male referents involved rather than females. The number of inanimate nouns in the data prevails over the number of animate loan nouns and the processes involved with gender assignment to inanimate nouns is discussed in the next section.

5.4. INANIMATE LOAN NOUNS

During the interviews there were 68 phrases with inanimate loan nouns collected. 66 of them were in masculine, like *didelis pintas* ‘big pint_{M.SG.NOM}’ in example (15) and only 2 in feminine and as in example (16) *brangi puzzle* ‘expensive puzzle_{F.SG.NOM}’.

- | | | | | | |
|------|----|--|------|----|--|
| (15) | a. | English | (16) | a. | English |
| | | <i>big pint</i> | | | <i>expensive puzzle</i> |
| | | big pint | | | ik'pensiv 'pʌzɫ |
| | b. | Lithuanian with a loan word | | b. | Lithuanian with a loan word |
| | | <i>didel-is paint-as</i> | | | <i>brang-i puzzl-ė</i> |
| | | big _{M.SG.NOM} pint _{M.SG.NOM} | | | expensive _{F.SG.NOM} puzzle _{F.SG.NOM} |
| | | ‘big pint’ | | | ‘expensive puzzle’ |
| | c. | Lithuanian equivalent | | c. | Lithuanian equivalent |
| | | <i>didel-is bokal-as</i> | | | <i>brang-i delion-ė</i> |
| | | big _{M.SG.NOM} pint _{M.SG.NOM} | | | expensive _{F.SG.NOM} puzzle _{F.SG.NOM} |
| | | ‘big pint’ | | | ‘expensive puzzle’ |

Out of 66 phrases that were assigned to masculine gender there are 18 that follow Vaicekauskienė’s proposed patterns using *-eris* suffix and 3 with *-ingas* suffix. These cases will be discussed in section 5.5 in greater detail. The rest of the 45 phrases have acquired masculine gender using *-as* and *-is* suffixes. As discussed in section 4, in the Lithuanian language gender for inanimate nouns is not motivated by semantics and is used purely for syntactic features of agreement. There are certain gender assignment characteristics that Lithuanian nouns have to follow in order fall under certain declensions, which are closely related to certain genders. In short, all five declensions have certain exceptions. The main rules that a noun has to follow in order to fall under a certain declension are presented in a Table 2 below adapted from Ružė (2008) and Paulauskienė (2007):

Declension	I	II	III	IV	V
Stem vowel	<i>a, ia</i>	<i>o, io, é</i>	<i>i</i>	<i>u, iu</i>	<i>-en, -n-, -er</i>
SG. NOM.	<i>-as, -ias, -is, -ys</i>	<i>-(i)a, -é, -i</i>	<i>-is</i>	<i>-(i)us</i>	<i>-uo, é</i>
SG. DAT.	<i>-(i)o</i>	<i>-(i)os, -és</i>	<i>-ies</i>	<i>-(i)aus</i>	<i>-s</i>
Gender	masculine	mainly feminine	mainly feminine	masculine	masculine

Table 2: Lithuanian noun declension patterns

In this section the analysis is carried out in order to distinguish whether the nouns are assigned corresponding with the grammatical requirements imposed by declensions and whether gender assignment is related to a noun being assigned to a certain declension. The analysis is presented following the data classification into the nouns with similar last vowel of the stem. Firstly, the nouns that have *a*, *ai* and *au* are analysed, then analysis of nouns having *o* and *ou* follows. Thirdly the nouns with stem vowel *i* are analysed, followed by the nouns having *e*, *ei*, and *en*. Finally, the nouns that have the last stem vowel *y* are analysed.

5.4.1. INANIMATE NOUNS WITH STEM VOWELS A, AI and AU

All of the inanimate loan nouns were classified according to the last stem vowel and there are 14 nouns that have *a*, *ai* and *au* vowels. These vowels are grouped under one section because the pronunciation of vowel *a* is more articulated. The data produce such phrases as *baltas vanas* ‘white van_{M.SG.NOM}’, *greitas baikas* ‘fast bike_{M.SG.NOM}’, and *didelis diskauntas* ‘big discount_{M.SG.NOM}’ glossed in the example (17), example (18), and example (19). These nouns in the singular nominative acquired *-as* suffix and in singular dative suffix *-o* was acquired producing *balto vano* ‘white van_{M.SG.DAT}’, *greito baiko* ‘fast bike_{M.SG.DAT}’, and *didelio diskaunto* ‘big discount_{M.SG.DAT}’. Furthermore, these nouns can be analysed according to the ICMM schema. The integrated loan noun *vanas* schema is presented in Figure 10.

It needs to be clarified that all inanimate nouns do not acquire an extra semantic meaning of masculine or feminine gender when it is assigned to them. According to Singleton (2000:37) inflectional morphemes do not form words; their function is not to change the actual grammatical category of the word, which is one of the main processes of word formation, but they slightly modify the words making “important grammatical consequences.”

(17) a. English

white van
| waɪt væn |

b. Lithuanian with a loan word

balt-as *van-as*
white_{M.SG.NOM} van_{M.SG.NOM}
‘white van’

c. Lithuanian equivalent

balt-as *autobusiuk-as*
white_{M.SG.NOM} van_{M.SG.NOM}
‘white van’

(18) a. English

fast bike
| fa:st baɪk |

b. Lithuanian with a loan word

greit-as *baik-as*
fast_{M.SG.NOM} bike_{M.SG.NOM}
‘fast bike’

c. Lithuanian equivalent

greit-as *motocikl-as*
fast_{M.SG.NOM} bike_{M.SG.NOM}
‘fast bike’

- (19) a. English
big discount
 |big 'dɪskɑʊnt|
- b. Lithuanian with a loan word
didel-is diskaunt-as
 big-M.SG.NOM discount-M.SG.NOM
 'big discount'
- c. Lithuanian equivalent
didel-ė nuolaid-a
 big-F.SG.NOM discount-F.SG.NOM
 'big discount'

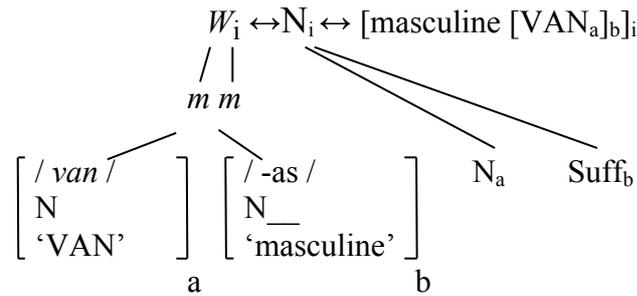


Figure 10: Morphological, syntactic, and semantic representation of vanas

He gives the examples of noun inflections denoting number or grammatical case to support this statement. In this case gender is considered to be a grammatical feature not carrying a semantic meaning. As mentioned before, in Haspelmath’s (2002:61-65) opinion, inflectional categories are thought to be carrying strictly grammatical agreement and syntactic functions and having no identifying semantic meaning. Gender in animate nouns is thought to add an additional meaning of male or female, however, in the case of inanimate nouns, gender is purely arbitrary. Following this difference, in the semantic section of Figure 10 ‘male’ semantic meaning is changed into term ‘masculine’ denoting a grammatical feature that an inanimate noun has to gain in accordance with syntactic restrictions. Moreover, as seen from the analysis, nouns that have the last vowel *a*, *ai* and *au* in their stem fall under the pattern of the first declension, therefore, acquiring masculine gender.

5.4.2. INANIMATE NOUNS WITH STEM VOWELS O and OU

Following the second declension, nouns that have vowels *o* as their last vowels of the stem, should fall under the inflectional pattern of this declension usually acquiring feminine and rarely masculine gender. In singular nominative case they should have –(i)a, –ė, or –i suffixes and in singular dative –(i)os, –ės suffixes. There were 8 phrases that occurred having *o* and 1 having *ou* vowels in the stem of the noun. These are such phrases as *didelis šopas* ‘big shop_{M.SG.NOM}’ as presented in the example (20) and *skanus fomas* ‘tasty foam_{M.SG.NOM}’ as in example (21):

- | | |
|--|---|
| <p>(20) a. English
<i>big shop</i>
 big ʃɒp </p> <p>b. Lithuanian with a loan word
<i>didel-is šop-as</i>
big-M.SG.NOM shop-M.SG.NOM
'big shop'</p> <p>c. Lithuanian equivalent
<i>didel-ė parduotuv-ė</i>
big-F.SG.NOM shop-F.SG.NOM
'big shop'</p> | <p>(21) a. English
<i>tasty foam</i>
 'teisti fəʊm </p> <p>b. Lithuanian with a loan word
<i>skan-us foun-as</i>
tasty-M.SG.NOM foam-M.SG.NOM
'tasty foam'</p> <p>c. Lithuanian equivalent
<i>skan-i put-a</i>
tasty-F.SG.NOM foam -F.SG.NOM
'tasty foam'</p> |
|--|---|

It is apparent that they do not follow the pattern of declension II and have suffixes *-as*, denoting masculine gender. The analysis of example (20) is presented in Figure 11:

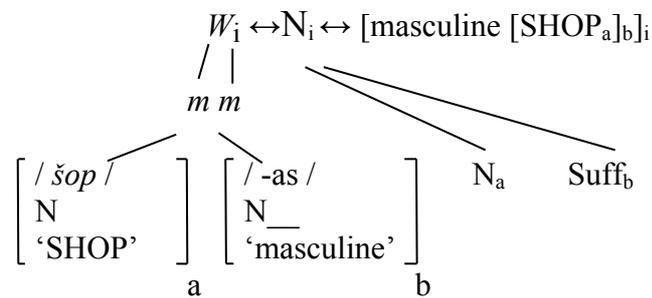


Figure 11: Morphological, syntactic, and semantic representation of *šopas*

In addition, in the dative case of declension II the noun has to acquire suffixes *-(i)os, -ės*, while these loan nouns acquire suffix *-o* as in *didelio šopo* 'big shop_{M.SG.DAT}' and *skanaus founo* 'tasty foam_{M.SG.DAT}'. This suggests that these nouns do not fall under the second declension and the patterns are identical to the first declension.

5.4.3. INANIMATE NOUNS WITH STEM VOWELS I

From the data collected there were 6 phrases that contained loan nouns with the stem vowel *i* such as *žalias binas* 'green bin_{M.SG.NOM}', and the gloss of this phrase is presented in example (22):

- | |
|--|
| <p>(22) a. English
<i>green bin</i>
 gri:n bn </p> <p>b. Lithuanian with a loan word
<i>žal-ias bin-as</i>
green-M.SG.NOM bin-M.SG.NOM
'green bin'</p> <p>c. Lithuanian equivalent
<i>žal-ia šiūkšl-ių dėž-ė</i>
green-F.SG.NOM rubbish-F.PL.GEN. bin-F.SG.NOM
'green bin'</p> |
|--|

Following the ICMM the noun can be analysed accordingly as presented in Figure 12.

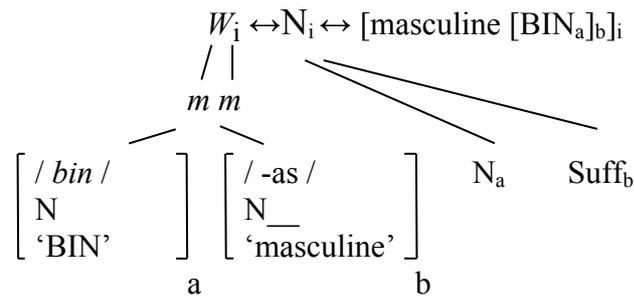


Figure 12: Morphological, syntactic, and semantic representation of binas

The nouns in Lithuanian language that have last stem vowel *i* are ascribed to the third declension class, are usually of a feminine gender and acquire suffix *-is* in the singular nominative and *-ies* in the singular dative. This example, on the other hand, has *-as* in the SG. NOM. and in SG. DAT. it acquires suffix *-o*, as in *žalio bino* ‘green bin_{M.SG.DAT.}’. This similarly happens to the rest of the examples with the same stem vowel. The suffix in the NOM. and DAT. cases indicate that the nouns with the *i* stem vowel belong also to the first declension acquiring masculine gender.

5.4.4. INANIMATE NOUNS WITH STEM VOWELS *E*, *Ei*, and *EN*

In the data collected there are 14 nouns that have *e*, *ei* and *en* stem vowel and vowel consonant combinations. In Lithuanian *en* is the only one that is considered to be a possible stem vowel consonant combination, leaving *e* and *ei* ungrouped. As the main vowel of *en* is *e*, in this study nouns having *e*, *ei* and *en* are grouped together. The nouns, according to the declension classification, containing *en* are ascribed to the last, fifth, declension. This declension has *-uo* and *ė* in the SG. NOM. and *-s* in SG. DAT. and nouns are of masculine gender. The data produced such examples as *juodas baketas* ‘black bucket_{M.SG.NOM.}’ glossed in example (23), *geras leiblas* ‘good label_{M.SG.NOM.}’ glossed in example (24), and *didelis gardenas* ‘big garden_{M.SG.NOM.}’ glossed in example (25):

- | | |
|--|---|
| <p>(23) a. English
<i>black bucket</i>
 blæk 'bʌkɪt </p> <p>b. Lithuanian with a loan word
<i>juod-as baket-as</i>
black-_{M.SG.NOM.} bucket-_{M.SG.NOM.}
‘black bucket’</p> <p>c. Lithuanian equivalent
<i>juod-as kibir-as</i>
black-_{M.SG.NOM.} bucket-_{M.SG.NOM.}
‘black bucket’</p> | <p>(24) a. English
<i>good label</i>
 gʊd 'leɪbəl </p> <p>b. Lithuanian with a loan word
<i>ger-as leibl-as</i>
good-_{M.SG.NOM.} label-_{M.SG.NOM.}
‘good label’</p> <p>c. Lithuanian equivalent
<i>ger-a etiket-ė</i>
good-_{F.SG.NOM.} label-_{F.SG.NOM.}
‘good label’</p> |
| <p>(25) a. English
<i>big garden</i>
 bɪg 'gɑːdɪn </p> <p>b. Lithuanian with a loan word
<i>didel-is garden-as</i>
big-_{M.SG.NOM.} garden-_{M.SG.NOM.}
‘big garden’</p> <p>c. Lithuanian equivalent
<i>didel-is sod-as</i>
big-_{M.SG.NOM.} garden-_{M.SG.NOM.}
‘big garden’</p> | |

Furthermore, these examples are analysed according to the ICMM and the schema of a noun *baketas* ‘bucket’ is presented in Figure 13.

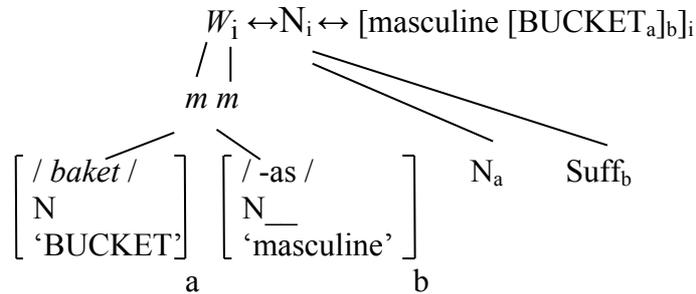


Figure 13: Morphological, syntactic, and semantic representation of *baketas*

As in previous examples from sections 5.4.2 and 5.4.3 which discussed nouns containing such stem vowels as *o*, *ou* and *i*, these nouns also follow the pattern of the first declension and have *-as* suffix in the singular nominative and *-o* suffix in the singular of dative (*juodo baketo* ‘black bucket_{M.SG.DAT}’, *gero leiblo* ‘good label_{M.SG.DAT}’, and *didelio gardeno* ‘big garden_{M.SG.DAT}’).

5.4.5. INANIMATE NOUNS WITH STEM VOWELS Y

The last group of nouns are the ones that have long vowel *y* (pronounced [i:]) and they do not fall under any declension stem vowel requirements. There were only 2 phrases with such nouns obtained. One of the phrases, *ilgas risytas* ‘long receipt_{M.SG.NOM}’ is glossed in the example (26) below:

- (26) a. English
long receipt
 | lɒŋ rɪ'si:t |
- b. Lithuanian with a loan word
ilg-as risyt-as
 long-M.SG.NOM receipt-M.SG.NOM
 ‘long receipt’
- c. Lithuanian equivalent
ilg-as ček-is
 long-M.SG.NOM receipt-M.SG.NOM
 ‘long receipt’

Figure 14 shows the processes of the gender assignment of the noun *risytas* using the ICMM.

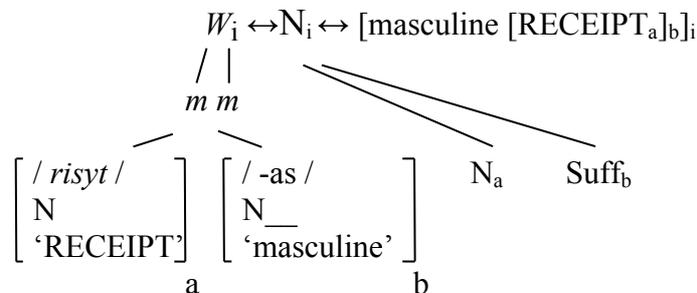


Figure 14: Morphological, syntactic, and semantic representation of *risytas*

It needs to be pointed out that this noun is used with the suffix *-as* in the nominative case and with the suffix *-o* in the dative case (*ilgo risyto* ‘long receipt_{M.SG.DAT.}’). From the grammatical patterns and from the analysis it is evident that this group of nouns also follows the inflectional pattern of the first declension and has masculine gender assigned.

5.4.6. SUMMARY OF INANIMATE LOAN NOUNS

From the data collected, all inanimate nouns were classified according to the last stem vowel in order to answer such questions: is the noun assigned to a certain declension and therefore assigned to a gender imposed by the requirements of the declension?

The phrases were classified into five groups, where the first group of nouns has *a*, *ai* and *au* stem vowels, the second group has *o* and *ou* stem vowels, the third group is comprised of nouns with stem vowel *i*, followed by the group of nouns with *e*, *ei*, and *en*. Finally, the last group of nouns has the last stem vowel *y*.

The analysis revealed that all five groups followed the pattern of the first declension gaining suffixes *-as* in the SG. NOM. and *-(i)o* in the SG. DAT. case. In addition, all of the nouns were assigned to masculine gender. The stem vowels of certain nouns, however, suggested that they should be assigned to a different declension and assigned to feminine gender. Nevertheless, all of the inanimate nouns were assigned to the first declension and gained masculine gender suffix. Vaicekauskienė (2007:174) points out that in her research, masculine gender was assigned to most of the borrowed nouns reaching 88 per cent, while feminine gender was assigned only to 12 per cent of the borrowed cases. In this study 100 per cent of inanimate nouns acquired masculine gender.

The conclusion can be drawn following the results of this analysis that masculine gender is seen as a default gender in inanimate nouns. Paulauskienė (2007:86) states that declensions are enumerated according to the number of nouns that fall under that declension. This might also be a valid explanation, that all inanimate nouns were ascribed to the first declension as the majority of Lithuanian nouns are declined following this pattern.

5.5. GENDER ASSIGNMENT ACCORDING TO ADAPTED PATTERNS

One of the proposed methods of loan words integration into Lithuanian discourse is the use of emerging suffixation patterns, where suffixes are derived from the fusion of morphemes from two languages. Vaicekauskienė (2004b:67) declares that there are tendencies in adapting an English noun into Lithuanian language using specific suffixes which are combined from an English and a Lithuanian suffix. In the data collected, some patterns were noted that involve suffixes mentioned by Vaicekauskienė.

These suffixes, *-eris*, *-ingas* and *-menas*, were used 33 times out of 88 phrases and occur both with animate and inanimate nouns. Suffixes *-ingas* and *-menas* were used 3 times each and 27 instances were recorded using the suffix *-eris*. Suffix *-ingas* was used strictly with inanimate nouns, suffix *-menas* occurred with all human referents, while suffix *-eris* was used with both, animate and inanimate loan nouns. The example (27) with suffix *-ingas* is glossed below:

- (27) a. English
wide parking
 | waɪd 'pa:kɪŋ |
- b. Lithuanian with a loan word
plat-us parking-as
 wide-M.SG.NOM parking-M.SG.NOM
 'wide parking'
- c. Lithuanian equivalent
plat-i stovėjim-o aikštel-ė
 wide-F.SG.NOM parking-M.SG.GEN. site-F.SG.NOM.
 'wide parking'

The analysis of the noun *parkingas* using ICM is presented in Figure 15:

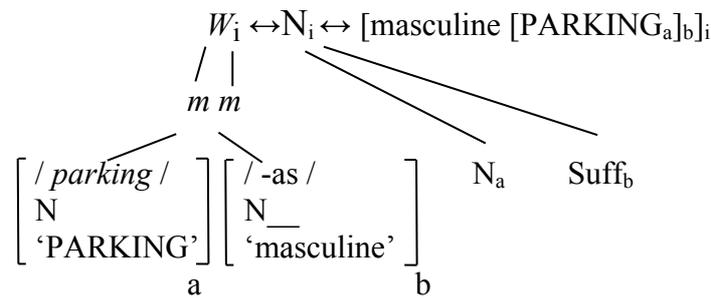


Figure 15: Morphological, syntactic, and semantic representation of *parkingas1*

The loan noun has the suffix *-as* in the singular nominative case, while in the singular dative it has the suffix *-o* (*plataus parkingo* 'wide parking_{M.SG.DAT.}'). This analysis also suggests that this noun follows the pattern of the first declension.

This analysis, however, raises additional questions as the affixation in this can be seen from two different perspectives: a) as analysed above assuming that the suffixation was made on the level of *parking* acquiring the suffix *-as*; or b) as suggested by Vaicekauskienė (2004b: 67) on the level that *park* acquired the suffix *-ingas*. If the latter occurred then a separate analysis is needed. Firstly, the derivation has occurred, on the different level: a verb *to park* was taken as an initial word from which a noun, denoting a name of the action and having masculine gender was derived adding a 'hybrid' suffix *-ingas*. This process is presented in the Figure 16:

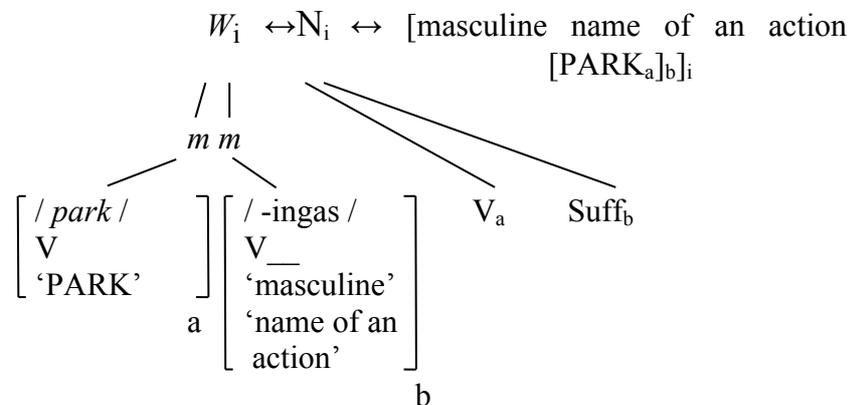


Figure 16: Morphological, syntactic, and semantic representation of *parkingas2*

Both of the processes are valid possibilities as most of the speakers that were interviewed know English and Lithuanian languages to an extent that these processes are known to them. Furthermore, this brings new perspective on the processes that are occurring in the languages when two are in a close contact with each other. If the process of suffixation is perceived by the users as a regular derivational process, using the suffix –*ingas* will become a standard procedure in order to derive nouns with the meaning ‘name of an action’ and there will be no question regarding gender assignment while using this suffix. The gender in that case will be assigned automatically as it will be encoded mechanically in the entire meaning of the suffix.

The same processes occur to the nouns that have –*eris* and are inanimate. For example, a noun *skaneris* from the phrase *baltas skaneris* (‘white scanner_{M.SG.NOM}’) can be analysed following the two processes; first, assuming that the adaptation process occurs to the noun *scanner*, or assuming that the verb *to scan* is being adapted using suffix –*eris* adding the meaning ‘the item which performs the action’. It needs to be noted, that if the speaker understands the adaptation to occur following the second pattern, then the process no longer belongs to the domain of the inflectional morphology. These suffixes, –*ingas* and –*eris* change the category of the part of speech adding an extra meaning, therefore, it falls under derivational morphology. Gender, however, in this case is not considered to reflect the natural gender as the nouns are inanimate and shows grammatical organisation and agreement rather than adding meaning, but is encoded in the meaning of the suffix.

Other types of processes occur with animate nouns. Vaicekauskienė (2004b, 2007) mentions the suffix –*menas* which refers to human beings and there were 3 examples in the data with this suffix used. One of the examples, *geras bliuzmenas* ‘good bluesman_{M.SG.NOM}’, is glossed in the example (28) below:

- | | | | |
|------|--|------|--|
| (28) | a. English
<i>good bluesman</i>
 gʊd blu:zmæn | (29) | a. English
<i>good skater</i>
 gʊd 'sketə |
| | b. Lithuanian with a loan word
<i>ger-as bliuzmen-as</i>
good- _{M.SG.NOM} bluesman- _{M.SG.NOM}
‘good bluesman’ | | b. Lithuanian with a loan word
<i>ger-as skeiter-is</i>
good- _{M.SG.NOM} skater- _{M.SG.NOM}
‘good skater’ |
| | c. Lithuanian equivalent
<i>ger-as bliuz-o atlikėj-as</i>
good- _{M.SG.NOM} blues- _{M.SG.GEN} performer-
M.SG.NOM
‘good bluesman’ | | c. Lithuanian equivalent
<i>ger-as riedutinink-as</i>
good- _{M.SG.NOM} skater- _{M.SG.NOM}
‘good skater’ |

The noun *bliuzmenas* also follows inflectional pattern of the first declension and acquired –*o* suffix in singular dative case, *gero bliuzmeno* ‘good bluesman_{M.SG.DAT.}’. A very similar course of action takes place in the animate loan nouns that acquired –*eris* suffix. For example, *geras skeiteris* ‘good skater_{M.SG.NOM.}’ was used with the suffix –*as* in singular nominative and when dative case is used it is inflected using the suffix –*io* which also belongs to the declension I (*gero skeiterio* ‘good skater_{M.SG.DAT.}’). The gloss of the phrase is presented in the example (29).

The processes that happen to these nouns, however, are slightly different from the ones that happen to the inanimate nouns. As discussed in section 4 and explained in detail in section 5.3, animate loan nouns acquire the meaning of masculine or feminine gender

depending on the natural sex of the referent. Similarly, these processes occur in these instances, as presented in Figure 17 for the word *bluizmenas* ‘bluesman’ and Figure 18 for the noun *skeiteris* ‘skater’:

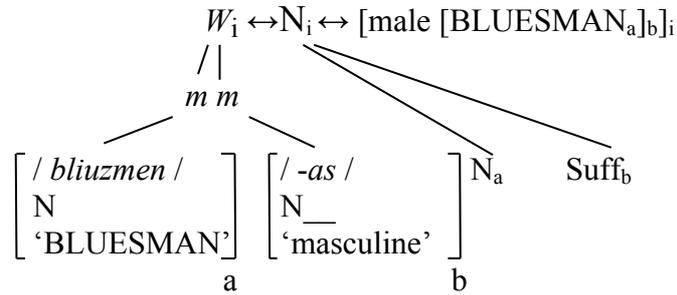


Figure 17: Morphological, syntactic, and semantic representation of *bluizmenas1*

It can be seen that in the semantic field of the schema, ‘male’ term is used in order to represent the meaning added to the noun:

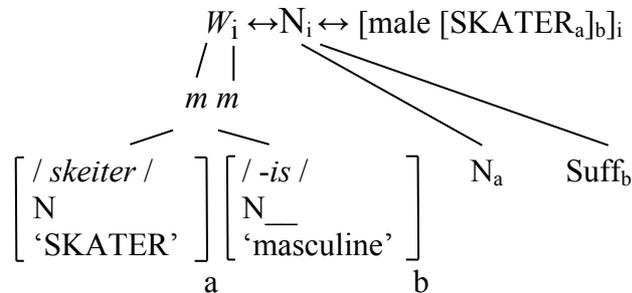


Figure 18: Morphological, syntactic, and semantic representation of *skeiteris1*

Moreover, if one follows the second type of process, when derivation is involved assuming that *-menas* and *-eris* are separate suffixes, the situation is more complicated. As presented in Figure 19 and Figure 20, there are more complicated steps that need to be followed in order to derive these nouns:

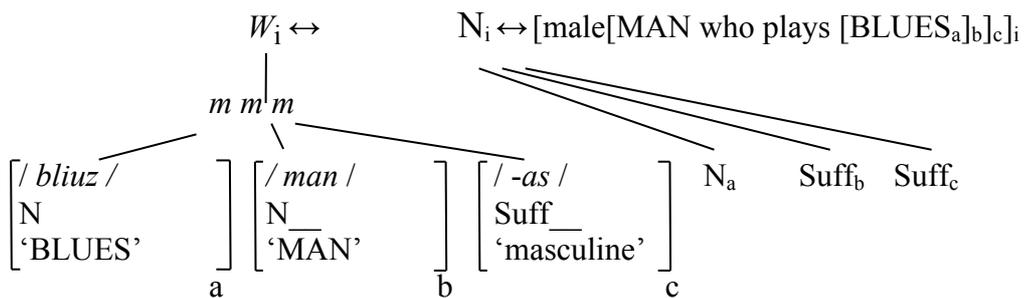


Figure 19: Morphological, syntactic, and semantic representation of *bluizmenas2*

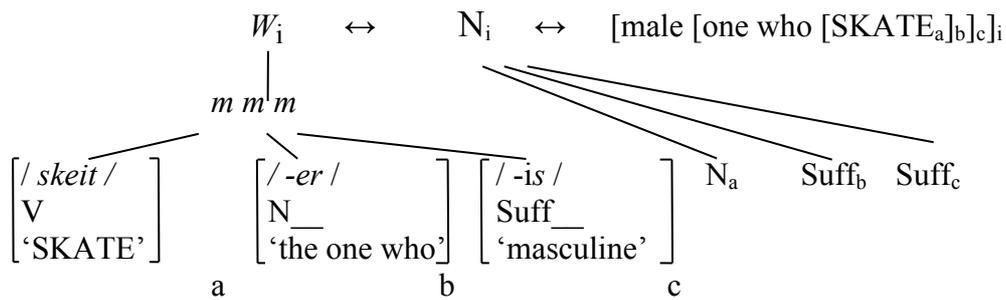


Figure 20: Morphological, syntactic, and semantic representation of *skeiteris2*

Adaptation process in inanimate nouns is less complicated as gender is a grammatical category and does not change or add any meaning to the noun, however, in the case of animate nouns gender is perceived as adding a lexical meaning and, together with other lexical items adds the meaning of male or female. In the case of *bliuzmenas* ‘bluesman’, compounding process of N and N is in place and additional suffix *-as* to add masculine gender. In the case of *skeiteris* ‘skater’, the derivational process from V to N takes place adding suffix *-er* and a suffix *-as* to add gender meaning. These processes can be more complicated in cases where feminine gender is involved as feminine gender is derived from masculine. In order to derive a feminine equivalent for *skeiteris*, firstly, the processes that are presented in Figure 20 need to be followed and then *-is* suffix needs to be substituted by the suffix *-ė* constructing *skeiterė* ‘skater_{F.SG.NOM.}’.

5.6. SUMMARY OF ANALYSIS

In this section all of the data collected was analysed following the adapted model. This model, Integrated Construction Morpheme Model, clearly presented phonological, morphological, syntactic and semantic processes that occurred during the adaptation of the English noun into Lithuanian discourse. The integration of the Morpheme-based Model into Construction Morphology allowed morphological processes to be presented.

All phrases that were obtained were divided according the classification of animate/inanimate. The analysis of the animate nouns confirmed that natural gender plays a major role in assigning gender to loan nouns. Nevertheless, most of the nouns were ascribed to masculine gender. The analysis also revealed that while assigning gender to loan nouns, English nouns gain extra meaning that is encoded with the suffix which expresses gender. If the noun refers to a male referent, the concept of ‘male’ is added to the meaning of an English noun through the suffix *-as* or *-is*. For these reasons, gender assignment to animate loan nouns is categorized to be a derivational process.

As Goldberg (1995:24) points out, the grammatical category of a speech unit (the construction) is not governed only by syntactic rules and it is not only a “top-down” process that takes place; Furthermore, morphological rules and syntactical rules are interrelated and that all constructions undertake “top down” and “bottom-up” processes (Goldberg 1995:24). The process of natural gender assignment includes grammatical gender assignment. This is obvious from gender assignment to the noun *stafas* (‘staff_{M.SG.NOM.}’) which is glossed in the example (11) and analyses presented in Figure 8. The noun denoted masculine gender according to the discourse and refers to males. However, it also follows the restrictions of the first declension having the stem vowel *a*, therefore, grammatical and natural genders coincide.

All inanimate nouns were classed into five main groups according to the last vowel of the stem: nouns with the *a*, *ai* and *au* stem vowels, nouns with *o* and *ou* stem vowels, nouns with stem vowel *i*, nouns with stem vowels *e*, *ei* and *en*, and finally nouns with stem vowel *y*. Example phrases were analysed from each group and the results revealed that all nouns do not follow the restrictions of adequate declension classes. On the contrary, they all fall under the first declension gaining masculine gender and syntactic restrictions of certain inflectional suffixation even if some nouns should gain different declension and consequently different gender. Vaicekauskienė (2007:174) explains that masculine gender is assigned most likely as a default or neuter gender to the majority of loan nouns. The results of this study support Vaicekauskienė's conclusion. Moreover, if masculine gender for inanimate nouns is becoming the default gender, feminine gender is becoming relevant only in the cases of nouns that are referring to animate objects. In this case, Lithuanian is becoming less complex and this phenomenon should be investigated in greater detail.

The last section analysed animate and inanimate nouns that follow Vaicekauskienė's (2004b:67) proposed suffixation patterns. These nouns gained such suffixes as *-menas*, *-ingas* and *-eris*. Analysing the data collected, it was suggested that the adaptation of these nouns can be treated as a) loan noun inflectional processes for inanimate nouns or b) a loan noun derivational processes. The inflectional processes of inanimate nouns which have *-ingas* suffix follow the same stages of adaptation as other inanimate nouns discussed in the section 5.4 where all loan nouns were ascribed to the first declension and masculine gender (see Figure 15). The derivational processes of the loan noun incorporation into Lithuanian discourse occur in both, animate and inanimate nouns. If the speaker perceives suffixes *-ingas*, *-eris* and *-menas* as derivational suffixes, word formation rules need to be followed and gender is perceived as either grammatical category for inanimate nouns, or as a lexical meaning for animate nouns, encoded in the meaning of the suffix. The conclusion can be drawn that the close contact of Lithuanian and English languages produced new suffixes that make Lithuanian discourse more productive.

Singleton (2000:6) explains that the idea of 'semantic content' of a word is just a metaphor and that the meaning is given not by words or dictionaries; people assign meanings to words and words are just the tools of meaning transfer. In this case, the speakers assigned meaning to suffixes that were coined from two languages. This study confirmed the statement made by Haspelmath (2002:98), that both processes, the word-formation and inflection, are productive. As seen from the analysis above, the incorporation of English loan nouns into the Lithuanian language produces new phrases and new grammatical patterns emerged.

6. CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSION

6.1. MEETING THE AIMS OF THIS STUDY

Bilingualism and language mixing are phenomena that surround everyone due to large migration of people. This environment produces opportunities for loan word borrowing from L2 to L1. The aim of this study was to identify the patterns and rules of gender assignment to English loan words while incorporating them into Lithuanian. This was done in order to analyse the contact of two different grammars and investigate how morphological, syntactic and semantic restrictions are met during the processes of loan

noun integration. This research was done by conducting an informal interview with Lithuanian nationals who live in Ireland.

6.2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This study adapted the main framework of Construction Morphology (CM) and followed the main theoretical consideration presented in *Construction Morphology* written by Booij (2010). As stated by Booij (2010), Goldberg (1995), Jackendoff (2008) and other researchers that follow the CG approach, the construction is the smallest element that exists in the lexicon carrying specific meaning, and the morpho-syntactic restrictions are encoded in the lexicon together with its meaning. This approach, however, is mainly concerned with the organisation of syntax. Booij (2010) following some theoretical considerations proposed by Jackendoff (2008) was the first to discuss in greater detail the morphological processes in phrases and words. The tripartite architecture of processes (see Figure 1), adapted from CM, represents in great detail the interrelation between phonological, morpho-syntactic and semantic levels. Nevertheless, this model does not allow detailed analysis of morphological processes concerning suffixation, which is the main focus of this research.

The Morpheme-based Model, on the other hand, offers an in-depth analysis of processes. MbM, leaving aside the main consideration that morphemes are the smallest constituents of the lexicon, was fused with the tripartite architecture of the CM to form an Integrated Construction Morphology Model (ICMM) (see Figure 3). The new model allows the detailed description and analysis of the processes that occur in the four levels: phonological, morphological, syntactic and semantic levels. The lexical representation of these models was adapted and the schema was used in the analysis of the nouns and gender assignment processes (see Figure 4 and Figure 5). The ICMM model demonstrates not only syntactic restrictions of the word, but also reveals the adaptation process that occurs inside the word.

6.3. EMPIRICAL FINDINGS

The main empirical findings are summarized within the respective sections: section 5.3 discussed animate loan nouns, section 5.4 discussed inanimate loan nouns following the classification according to the last vowel of the stem, and section 5.5 discussed loan nouns that followed the patterns of suffixation. This section will synthesize the empirical findings to answer the study's research question: what are the patterns and rules of gender assignment to English loan nouns in Lithuanian discourse?

The analysis revealed that animate nouns are ascribed to gender corresponding with their natural sex and an extra categorisation of masculine or feminine is acquired by a noun. As the suffix that is ascribed to the noun refers to a male referent and carries a lexical meaning of 'male', the English loan noun gains its meaning. This process is considered derivational as after gender is assigned to the noun, the meaning of the noun is altered.

The analysis of inanimate nouns revealed that loan nouns do not follow the grammatical patterns of gender assignment. Inanimate nouns do not acquire the meaning of masculine or feminine and gender is perceived as an agreement marker following inflectional processes. Lithuanian nouns are classified into declension classes according to their last vowel of the stem and each declension is closely related to

masculine or feminine gender. The inanimate loan nouns did not follow this gender assignment rule and all were ascribed to the first declension and to masculine gender. The findings of this research suggest that masculine gender is thought as a default gender.

Finally, the analysis was conducted on loan nouns that followed Vaicekauskienė's (2004b:67) suggested suffixation patterns where suffixes *-menas*, *-ingas* and *-eris* are involved. These suffixes were derived from the fusion of English and Lithuanian suffixes. The analysis revealed that there are two types of processes involved: a) inflectional for inanimate nouns, where the English word containing an original suffix gains gender agreement suffix for syntactic purposes; and b) derivational processes, where an animate noun gains the meaning of a specific gender. Moreover, the analysis revealed that there is another type of derivational processes that can occur in these specific cases. Derivational processes where the suffixes *-menas*, *-eris* and *-ingas* are considered to be one unit comprised of the two meaningful elements. In this case, the derivational processes do not occur to the noun, for example *parking*, but the word formation processes take place on a verb or noun involving a suffix that carries masculine or feminine gender automatically (*park-ingas* 'parking_{M.SG.NOM.}'/ *slak-erė* 'slacker_{F.SG.NOM.}').

These findings reveal the complexity of processes that occur in the bilingual person while mixing languages. They also show that the Lithuanian language is losing the feminine gendered inanimate nouns and masculine gender is becoming a default gender in these cases. Furthermore, new derivational patterns are noted that combine the fused suffixes of two languages, which suggests that if this tendency continues, these suffixes will be used as valid derivational suffixes in spoken language, or even added to the list of the allowed derivational suffixes. Furthermore, this study confirmed the notion of two different 'genders': grammatical and inherent, where the first one functions as syntactic marker, and the latter conveys meaning which is encoded in the lexicon.

6.4. SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

This research was focused on gender assignment to English loan nouns while being adapted to the discourse of Lithuanian. A new model was introduced that combined two different grammatical approaches and allowed detailed analysis of morphological processes to be revealed. This study, however, did not take into consideration the phonological adaptation process which occurs during insertion of loan nouns. Further research is suggested in order to fully reveal the interrelation of phonology and morphology.

Moreover, further research needs to be done in order to understand morphological and syntactic relations of such phrases. In this study, only spoken language was analysed and mainly the nouns of the phrases. In order to fully understand the phenomenon of integration and gender assignment, data from written sources containing loan nouns needs to be analysed in detail. Such research can reveal more complex processes and display tendencies of language change in progress.

7. APPENDIX 1

7.1. Loan words according to the acquired suffix:

Table 1: List of loan phrases with acquired suffix –is:

No	Lithuanian with a loan word	Gloss	English Equivalent
1	<i>balt-as skaner-is</i>	white-M.SG.NOM scanner- M.SG.NOM	‘white scanner’
2	<i>didel-is lūzer-is</i>	big-M.SG.NOM loser- M.SG.NOM	‘big loser’
3	<i>ger-as supervaizer-is</i>	good-M.SG.NOM supervisor- M.SG.NOM	‘good supervisor’
4	<i>balt-as stymer-is</i>	white-M.SG.NOM steamer- M.SG.NOM	‘white steamer’
5	<i>ger-as skeiter-is</i>	good-M.SG.NOM skater- M.SG.NOM	‘good skater’
6	<i>juod-as dajer-is</i>	black-M.SG.NOM diary- M.SG.NOM	‘black diary’
7	<i>juod-as printer-is</i>	black-M.SG.NOM printer- M.SG.NOM	‘black printer’
8	<i>juod-as toner-is</i>	black-M.SG.NOM toner- M.SG.NOM	‘black toner’
9	<i>kvail-as menedžer-is</i>	stupid-M.SG.NOM manager- M.SG.NOM	‘stupid manager’
10	<i>kvail-as refer-is</i>	silly-M.SG.NOM referee- M.SG.NOM	‘silly referee’
11	<i>juod-as toster-is</i>	black-M.SG.NOM toaster- M.SG.NOM	‘black toaster’
12	<i>maž-a dišvošer-is</i>	small-F.SG.NOM dishwasher-F.SG.NOM	‘small dishwasher’
13	<i>maž-as steipler-is</i>	small-M.SG.NOM stapler- M.SG.NOM	‘small stapler’
14	<i>maž-as vaučer-is</i>	small-M.SG.NOM voucher- M.SG.NOM	‘small voucher’
15	<i>medin-is loker-is</i>	wooden-M.SG.NOM locker- M.SG.NOM	‘wooden locker’
16	<i>pastov-us jūzer-is</i>	usual-M.SG.NOM user-M.SG.NOM	‘usual user’
17	<i>sen-as bukmeiker-is</i>	old-M.SG.NOM bookmaker-M.SG.NOM	‘old bookmaker’
18	<i>skan-us kukumber-is</i>	tasty-M.SG.NOM cucumber-M.SG.NOM	‘tasty cucumber’
19	<i>skan-us hamburger-is</i>	tasty-M.SG.NOM hamburger-M.SG.NOM	‘tasty hamburger’
20	<i>suged-ęs adapter-is</i>	broken-M.SG.NOM adapter-M.SG.NOM	‘broken adapter’
21	<i>suged-ęs trol-is</i>	broken-M.SG.NOM trolley-M.SG.NOM	‘broken trolley’
22	<i>suged-ęs taimer-is</i>	broken-M.SG.NOM timer-M.SG.NOM	‘broken timer’
23	<i>šun-ų handler-is</i>	dog-M.SG.NOM handler-M.SG.NOM	‘dog handler’
24	<i>tikr-as kiler-is</i>	real-M.SG.NOM killer-M.SG.NOM	‘real killer’
25	<i>visišk-as slaker-is</i>	total-M.SG.NOM slacker-M.SG.NOM	‘total slacker’
26	<i>žal-ias gliter-is</i>	green-M.SG.NOM glitter-M.SG.NOM	‘green glitter’
27	<i>žol-ės kater-is</i>	grass-M.SG.GEN cutter-M.SG.NOM	‘grass cutter’
28	<i>nešvar-us kaunter-is</i>	dirty-M.SG.NOM counter- M.SG.NOM	‘dirty counter’

Table 2: List of loan phrases with acquired suffix –as:

No	Lithuanian with a loan word	Gloss	English Equivalent
1	<i>balt-as van-as</i>	white-M.SG.NOM van- M.SG.NOM	‘white van’
2	<i>didel-is diskaunt-as</i>	big-M.SG.NOM discount-M.SG.NOM	‘big discount’
3	<i>didel-is garden-as</i>	big-M.SG.NOM garden-M.SG.NOM	‘big garden’
4	<i>didel-is paint-as</i>	big-M.SG.NOM pint-M.SG.NOM	‘big pint’
5	<i>didel-is šiūboks-as</i>	big-M.SG.NOM shoebox-M.SG.NOM	‘big shoebox’
6	<i>didel-is trafik-as</i>	big-M.SG.NOM traffic-M.SG.NOM	‘big traffic’
7	<i>ger-as prezenteišen-as</i>	good-M.SG.NOM presentation-M.SG.NOM	‘good presentation’
8	<i>ger-as pab-as</i>	good-M.SG.NOM pub-M.SG.NOM	‘good pub’
9	<i>graž-us čest-as</i>	beautiful -M.SG.NOM chest -M.SG.NOM	‘beautiful chest’
10	<i>greit-as baik-as</i>	fast-M.SG.NOM bike-M.SG.NOM	‘fast bike’
11	<i>didel-is prezent-as</i>	big-M.SG.NOM present-M.SG.NOM	‘big present’
12	<i>didel-is šop-as</i>	big-M.SG.NOM shop-M.SG.NOM	big shop’
13	<i>ger-as bliuzmen-as</i>	good-M.SG.NOM bluesman-M.SG.NOM	‘good bluesman’
14	<i>ger-as biznismen-as</i>	good-M.SG.NOM bluesman-M.SG.NOM	‘good businessman’
15	<i>ger-as leibl-as</i>	good-M.SG.NOM label-M.SG.NOM	‘good label’
16	<i>ger-as relaks-as</i>	good-M.SG.NOM relax-M.SG.NOM	‘good relax’
17	<i>ger-as sekond-hend-as</i>	good-M.SG.NOM second-hand-M.SG.NOM	‘good second-hand’ (store)
18	<i>įdom-us horror-as</i>	interesting-M.SG.NOM horror-M.SG.NOM	‘interesting horror’(movie)
19	<i>įdom-us mač-as</i>	interesting-M.SG.NOM match-M.SG.NOM	‘interesting match’
20	<i>ilg-as draft-as</i>	long-M.SG.NOM draft-M.SG.NOM	‘long draft’
21	<i>ilg-as imeil-as</i>	long-M.SG.NOM email-M.SG.NOM	‘long email’
22	<i>ilg-as lanč-as</i>	long-M.SG.NOM lunch-M.SG.NOM	‘long lunch’
23	<i>ilg-as risyt-as</i>	long-M.SG.NOM receipt-M.SG.NOM	‘long receipt’
24	<i>juod-as baket-as</i>	black-M.SG.NOM bucket-M.SG.NOM	‘black bucket’
25	<i>laiming-as end-as</i>	happy-M.SG.NOM end-M.SG.NOM	‘happy end’
26	<i>lėt-as barmen-as</i>	slow-M.SG.NOM barman-M.SG.NOM	‘slow barman’
27	<i>linksm-as vykend-as</i>	fun-M.SG.NOM weekend-M.SG.NOM	‘fun weekend’
28	<i>maž-as trak-as</i>	little-M.SG.NOM truck-M.SG.NOM	‘little truck’
29	<i>maž-as laptop-as</i>	small-M.SG.NOM laptop-M.SG.NOM	‘small laptop’
30	<i>didel-is stor-as</i>	big-M.SG.NOM stor-M.SG.NOM	‘big store’
31	<i>įžūl-us staf-as</i>	rude-M.SG.NOM staff-M.SG.NOM	‘rude staff’
32	<i>nuobodus fitting-as</i>	boring-M.SG.NOM fitting-M.SG.NOM	‘boring fitting’
33	<i>patog-us kauč-as</i>	comfortable-M.SG.NOM couch -M.SG.NOM	‘comfortable couch’
34	<i>pig-us beibysiting-as</i>	cheap-M.SG.NOM babysitting-M.SG.NOM	‘cheap babysitting’
35	<i>pašt-o spam-as</i>	postal-M.SG.GEN. spam-M.SG.NOM	‘postal spam’

36	<i>pig-us</i>	<i>karvoš-as</i>	cheap-M.SG.NOM	carwash-M.SG.NOM	‘cheap carwash’
37	<i>plat-us</i>	<i>parking-as</i>	wide-M.SG.NOM	parking-M.SG.NOM	‘wide parking’
38	<i>skan-us</i>	<i>foum-as</i>	tasty-M.SG.NOM	foam-M.SG.NOM	‘tasty foam’
39	<i>skan-us</i>	<i>hot-dog-as</i>	tasty-M.SG.NOM	hot-dog-M.SG.NOM	‘tasty hot-dog’
40	<i>skan-us</i>	<i>sanvidž-as</i>	tasty-M.SG.NOM	sandwich-M.SG.NOM	‘tasty sandwich’
41	<i>skan-us</i>	<i>snek-as</i>	tasty-M.SG.NOM	snack-M.SG.NOM	‘tasty snack’
42	<i>skan-us</i>	<i>steik-as</i>	tasty-M.SG.NOM	steak-M.SG.NOM	‘tasty steak’
43	<i>stipr-us</i>	<i>drink-as</i>	strong-M.SG.NOM	drink-M.SG.NO	‘strong drink’
44	<i>stipr-us</i>	<i>šot-as</i>	strong-M.SG.NOM	shot-M.SG.NOM	‘strong shot’
45	<i>sunk-us</i>	<i>asainment-as</i>	difficult-M.SG.NOM	assignment-M.SG.NOM	‘difficult assignment’
46	<i>tinkam-as</i>	<i>dedlain-as</i>	suitable-M.SG.NOM	deadline-M.SG.NOM	‘suitable deadline’
47	<i>trump-as</i>	<i>breik-as</i>	short-M.SG.NOM	break-M.SG.NOM	‘short break’
48	<i>uždaryt-as</i>	<i>til-as</i>	closed-M.SG.NOM	till-M.SG.NOM	‘closed till’
49	<i>vien-as</i>	<i>šopstryt-as</i>	one-M.SG.NOM	shop-street-M.SG.NOM	‘one shop-street’
50	<i>žal-ias</i>	<i>bin-as</i>	green-M.SG.NOM	bin-M.SG.NOM	‘green bin’
51	<i>žaisming-as</i>	<i>piknik-as</i>	fun-M.SG.NOM	picnic-M.SG.NOM	‘fun picnic’

Table 3: List of loan phrases with acquired suffix –ė:

No	Lithuanian with a loan word	Gloss		English Equivalent
1	<i>blog-a</i> <i>tyneidžer-ė</i>	bad-F.SG.NOM	teenager-F.SG.NOM	‘bad teenager’
2	<i>brang-i</i> <i>puzl-ė</i>	expensive-F.SG.NOM	puzzle-F.SG.NOM	‘expensive puzzle’
3	<i>įdom-i</i> <i>fantaz-ė</i>	interesting-F.SG.NOM	fantazy-F.SG.NOM	‘interesting fantasy’
4	<i>pakeičiam-a</i> <i>slaker-ė</i>	replaceable-F.SG.NOM	slacker-F.SG.NOM	‘replaceable slacker’
5	<i>pastov-i</i> <i>member-ė</i>	usual-F.SG.NOM	member-F.SG.NOM	‘usual member’

Table 4: List of loan phrases with acquired suffix –iai:

No	Lithuanian with a loan word	Gloss		English Equivalent
1	<i>didel-i</i> <i>taks-ai</i>	big-M.PL.NOM	tax-M.PL.NOM	‘big tax’

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