

Some Lexical, Morphological and Syntactical Similarities and Differences in Lithuanian, Italian and English Languages

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Abstract. The article is aimed at facilitating parallel teaching and learning Italian by discovering lexical, morphological and syntactical similarities and differences in Lithuanian, Italian and English languages, which correspondingly represent Romance, Germanic and Baltic language branches of the Indo-European language family. Even though the English language is relatively young, having developed in the Middle Ages, it inherited a lot of morphemes and derivatives from Ancient Greek and Latin through Italian which are also rather common in other languages. While analysing the morphemes, the methods of comparative linguistics and contrastive analysis are applied. The major semantic groups of suffixes and prefixes along with their functions are compared in the three languages and are listed with typical examples of their use. Concerning inflectional and derivational morphemes in different parts of speech, grammatical categories such as voice, tense, person, gender and number are also discussed. Taking into consideration that Lithuanian is rather different from other languages, more attention is drawn to common similarities between Italian and English. Some lexical examples of correct and incorrect usage are advanced. In order to illustrate the issues related to interference of the mother tongue, syntactical correlation is also provided. This paper brings to light multidimensional profiles of the subject and suggests a new approach to teaching and learning foreign languages. The comparative analysis is mostly based on the survey of the corresponding scientific literature and dictionaries.

Key words: *morphemes, inflections, suffixes, prefixes, English, Italian, Lithuanian, similarities, differences.*

Introduction

Teaching and learning a foreign language is hardly possible without a sufficient knowledge of one's mother tongue. On the other hand, acquisition of a foreign language has an influence on this knowledge. Previously learnt languages, however, not only may help, but also interfere with the target language. So the teaching staff have to demonstrate their knowledge and professional experience and help students to deal with these issues. Teaching and learning a second or a third foreign language can be based not only on the knowledge of the mother tongue, but also on the abilities to identify, recognize and use similar elements and structures of the previously learnt foreign language(s). Two or more languages can be systematically compared on all levels of those structures.

One of the target languages at the Lithuanian University of Agriculture is Italian. Taking into account that most students who choose Italian as an optional subject have already learned English, this work, beside its theoretical relevance, **is aimed** at facilitating learning Italian by discovering lexical, morphological and syntactical similarities and differences in Lithuanian, Italian and English languages. These three languages correspondingly represent Romance, Germanic and Baltic language branches of the Indo-European language family.

Being the most archaic living Indo-European language, Lithuanian still retains many of the original features of the nominal morphology found in the common ancestors of the Indo-European languages like Sanskrit and Latin (Zinkevičius, 1993). Italian, as an Indo-European Romance language, originated directly from Latin. Modern English is a relatively young language which developed from Anglo Saxon and

Romance languages, particularly via contact with French. It inherited a huge influx of morphemes, words and derivatives of Ancient Greek and Latin origin. According to Nicholls:

In fact, the vocabulary of English almost doubled at that time and the borrowing has continued to this day. It is therefore no surprise, for the Italian learner of English or the English learner of Italian to discover reassuringly familiar words between their mother tongue and the language they are learning. Indeed, we discover that we need only make a few small and apparently systematic orthographical adjustments to words in one language to make them look and sound like words in the other. (Nicholls, 2004, p.1).

Methodology and Theoretical Background

Methods: a review of related scientific literature and grammars in the three languages, dictionaries (Hornby, 2000; Petrauskas, 1993), and comparative analysis of the obtained data.

The method of comparative linguistics underwent a significant criticism and elaboration in the second half of the 20th century, because different scholars, such as A. Baird, J. D. Bowen, B. J. Carroll, C. C. Fries, M. L. K. Halliday, A. McIntosh, A. Hayes, H. W. Kirkwood, R. Lado, W. Mackey, W. Schwab, A. Valdman, R. P. Stockwell, J. D. Bowen and other famous linguists expressed controversial ideas on the subject (Kanarakis, 1969). Most of them did not agree that contrastive analysis could be useful in the language class. For example, Fries (1955) claimed that descriptive contrastive analysis of two languages was not the material to be taught. He assumed that the first step was to learn to use the new language rather than to acquire detailed information about that language, because structural

analyses were not for the ordinary student, but for the training of the teachers. Hayes (1965) shared Fries' opinion that comparisons themselves were not for language teaching, but for prospective linguists and language teachers. Scholars like Baird, Schwab, Halliday and McIntosh not only had reservations on the matter of contrastive analysis and learning problems, but also spoke about a confusion which arose between the diagnosis of errors and their prevention (Kanarakis, 1969). They regarded the use of contrastive analysis in class as valuable only when the students were adults (ibid., p.297). However, Schwab (1963, p.24) pointed out that 'the chief contribution of structural linguistics does not lie primarily in teaching techniques, but in the principle of a point-by-point comparison of the learner's native language with the target language'. Lado (1964, p.21) noted:

Of special interest to the language teacher is contrastive linguistics, which compares the structures of two languages to determine the points where they differ. These differences are the source of difficulty in learning a second language.

According to Halliday et al. (1964, p.112), 'if comparison is to be done, it should be done well, otherwise it may hinder rather than help'. Before comparing one item in Italian with the one in English or Lithuanian it is important to establish that they are comparable. Professor Catford claims that "it is fairly widely recognized that the comparison of two languages provides an important background material in the second language teaching" (Kanarakis, 1969, p.293).

Learning to speak a foreign language is the acquiring of an ability to express oneself in different words through the use of a different grammar. Any sounds words or items of grammar of the foreign language may or may not have counterparts in the native language. These counterparts may have meanings or content which are similar to or considerably different from those of the other language.... The differential description of two languages involves not only the analysis of two languages but a comparison of differences in separate items and of the way they work together. It covers all levels of language and the relation between them – phonetics, grammar, dictionary and stylistic usage (Mackey, 1967, p.80).

All this considered and taking into consideration that students continuously come across differences on a phonological, morphological, syntactical and semantical level, the method of comparative analysis should not be neglected yet. That is why this work is aimed to shed more light on the subject.

Analysis and Discussion

Morphological level. As we know, words consist of morphemes, which are recognized as minimal units having constant meaning and constant form. It does not depend on the number of syllables in the word what we can call a morpheme or not, but words can consist of one or more morphemes and this is characteristic of synthetic languages such as Lithuanian. They can be divided into lexical and grammatical ones which can be free or bound. Bound grammatical morphemes (commonly known as affixes), in their turn, can be divided into inflectional and derivational ones. English has only eight inflectional morphemes:

-s, -'s, -er, -est, -s, -ed, -en, -ing (Denham & Lobeck, 2009, p.158); but there are at least more than 500 derivational affixes (suffixes: *-al, -ance, -ish, -tion, -ure, etc.*, and prefixes: *in-, dis-, over-, re-, un-, ultra-, etc.*). Most affixes derived from Greek and Latin, this is why Italian and English have much in common. Simple forms of adjectives, nouns and verbs represent typical free lexical morphemes, while articles, prepositions and conjunctions are free grammatical ones. Free morphemes can be looked up in a dictionary as separate words. Suffixes help transform nouns into other nouns, verbs into adjectives, adjectives into nouns and adverbs, and nouns into adjectives. One cannot always predict which suffix or prefix will be added to a given word but their meanings are easily recognizable when we know the category. In grammar, inflection is the modification of a word to express different grammatical categories such as tense, mood, voice, aspect, person, number, gender and case. Conjugation is the inflection of verbs; declension is the inflection of nouns, adjectives and pronouns. Italian has more overt inflection than English, especially in verb conjugation. Adjectives, nouns and articles are considerably less inflected, but they still have different forms according to number and grammatical gender. The Lithuanian language is a highly inflected language in which the relationships between parts of speech and their roles in a sentence are expressed by different inflections. Adjectives, pronouns, and numerals are declined for number, gender, and case to agree with the noun they modify or for which they substitute. Verbs are inflected for tense, mood, aspect, and voice.

The Lithuanian language is particularly characterized by unusual richness in suffixes: there are 615 nominal suffixes, including the so-called "international" ones whose number is not large, while in modern English there are only 113 nominal suffixes. On the other hand, modern English has a larger number of prefixes: 52. In Lithuanian there are only 36 prefixes (Klimas, 1974).

Looking through similarities and differences in various parts of speech which occur in English, Italian and Lithuanian languages, we can see that when there are no similarities between Italian and English, they sometimes occur between Italian and Lithuanian. Here I pay more attention to those suffixes and prefixes which can be comparable at least in one of the analysed language pairs.

Verbal morphemes. Many English and some Lithuanian verbs have the same roots as Italian ones, because they are of Latin origin. These usually bear similar suffixes: *-ify* and *-ize (-ise)* which correspond to Italian *-ificare* and *-izzare*, Lithuanian *-fikuoti* and *-izuoti* (see Appendices, Table A.1.).

It is worth mentioning that Italian and Lithuanian verbs are subject to conjugation, while English are not (except for the 3rd person singular Present Indefinite). Italian inflectional morphemes in the Present Indefinite match the Lithuanian ones for the 2nd person singular and for the 1st person plural of all conjugations. They also match for the 3rd person singular and for the 2nd person plural of the 1st conjugation (see Appendices, Table A.2.) and bear some resemblance in other conjugations as well.

Italian inflectional suffix *-av-* (1st conjugation) in *Imperfetto*, when used to describe repeated actions in the past, resembles Lithuanian past iterative tense suffix *-dav-*, which for all persons in English means *used to do* (see Appendices, Table A.3.). Concerning the 2nd and the 3rd conjugations, only the first constituent vowels of the suffix are different (*-ev-*, *-iv-*).

Inflectional morphemes of reflexive verbs can be compared only between Italian and Lithuanian, because they are quite similar in the infinitive form. Italian *-si* and Lithuanian *-s* in both languages attach to the infinitive form, but split into separate particles *mi*, *ti*, *si*, *ci*, *vi*, *si* when conjugated in Italian, while in Lithuanian *-s* remains attached, though for all persons in singular and for the 3rd person plural *-s* changes into *-si* (see Appendices, Table A.4.).

Such English prefixes as *re-* (which means a repeated action), *de-* (separation), *co-* (doing together), *dis-* (opposite action), *mis-* (wrong action), *inter-* (between), *trans-* (changing) have their similar and rather constant Italian counterparts: *ri-*, *de-*, *co-*, *s-*, *mal-*, *inter-*, *tra-*, but different Lithuanian ones: *at-*, *iš-*, *bendr-*, *ati-*, *są-*, *per-* (see Appendices, Table A.5.). However, one should be careful when teaching the vocabulary with such prefixes, because there are a lot of verbs in Italian which exist apart from them (e.g. *definire* – *finire*, *denominare* – *nominare*, etc.) and have other meanings than their English cognates (so called false cognates).

English verbs often combine with adverbial particles, which denote the general spatial direction of the action or its qualitative characteristics, so they make phrasal verbs which create new meanings. Lithuanian has 13 prefixes (*ne-*, *iš-*, *pra-*, *per-*, *už-*, *par-*, *nu-*, *pri-*, *su-*, *į-*, *ap-*, *at-*, *pa-*) instead, which can modify and change the meaning of any verb root morpheme and their function is analogous to that of adverbial elements of English phrasal verbs, and there is nothing to compare with Italian which has different verbs (see Appendices, Table A.6.).

Participial and gerund morphemes. Participial morphemes in the three languages are not quite similar, but they are rather constant in their forms. There are 13 participial and gerundive forms for each verb in Lithuanian, most are inherited from Proto-Indo-European (Klimas, 1969). English present participles have the same morpheme *-ing* as gerunds, while in Italian and Lithuanian it is different from English not only in the form. Italian participial morphemes *-ante* (*-anti*), *-ente* (*-enti*) correspond to Lithuanian *-antis* (*-anti*, *-antys*, *-ančios*), *-intis* (*-inti*, *-intys*, *-inčios*) in the nominative case of the active voice. They can also be inflected by gender, number and the case of the subject/ object and depend on the type of conjugation (see Appendices, Table B.1.). There are no passive voice present participles either in English or in Italian, but in Lithuanian they do exist and are expressed by different inflectional morphemes (suffixes): *-mas* (*-ma*, *-mi*, *-mos*) (e.g., *statomas* – *that is being built* – *che viene costruito*). Besides, Lithuanian has passive voice future participles whose multiple-morpheme suffixes are: *-simas* (*-sima*, *-simi*, *-simos*).

Italian gerund morphemes *-ando*, *-endo* correspond to Lithuanian semi-participial morphemes *-damas*, (*-dama*, *-dami*, *-damos*) and to the sub-participial morpheme *-ant*

which is used in impersonal sentences (e.g., *while going* – *andando* – *einanti*) (see Appendices, Table B.2.). The Italian gerund, unlike English or Lithuanian, cannot be either the subject or an object of the sentence.

English regular past participle morpheme *-ed* corresponds to Italian *-ato* (*-ata*, *-ati*, *-ate*), *-uto* (*-uta*, *-uti*, *-ute*), *-ito* (*-ita*, *-iti*, *-ite*) and Lithuanian *-tas* (*-ta*, *-ti*, *-tos*) in the nominative case of the passive voice. They can also be inflected by gender, number and the case of the subject/ object and depend on the type of conjugation (see Appendices, Table B.3.). We can see that Italian and Lithuanian past participle morphemes almost match in their forms; besides, they have the functions of both verb (passive voice) and adjective.

Noun-verb relation. Since English does not appear to be rich in word alteration, some free morphemes can easily switch from one part of speech or syntactic category to another what is called conversion. Most often this happens with nouns which convert into verbs. For example, *work*, *fall*, *climb* can be both verbs and nouns. In Italian, all of the above verb infinitives take the suffixes *-are*, *-ere*, *-ire* (*lavorare*, *cadere*, *salire*), in Lithuanian *-ti* (*dirbti*, *kristi*, *lipti*). Besides, many Italian verbs can be transformed into nouns (or gerunds) without adding a suffix, but just adding a definite article, e.g., *il lavorare*, *il cadere*, *il salire*, whose counterparts in English (*work*, *fall*, *climbing*) and in Lithuanian (*darbas*, *kritimas*, *lipimas*) differ in the degree of inflection and derivation (contain more than one morpheme), and slightly in the meaning, as they denote a process which in English is usually expressed by gerund.

Noun (substantival) morphemes. Analysing similarities and differences among derivational suffixes, they are categorized in thematic groups according to their functions (see Appendices, Table B.1.). Here we notice more resemblance between Italian and English, both in form and in lexis. We can see that English suffixes (in fact, most of them originated from Greek and Latin) which indicate:

a) state of being, condition, capacity, quality, traits of character:

-acy, *-ancy*, *-ency*, *-ance*, *-ence*, *-ness*, *-ty*,
-y have their Italian equivalents: *-ezza*, *-anza*, *-zia*,
-enza, *-ezza*, *-ità*, *-tà*, *-ia* and Lithuanian ones: *-umas*,
-imas, *-ystė*, *-ybė*, *-as*;

b) action, process, condition, result:

-ification, *-isation*, *-ization*, *-sion*, *-tion* have their Italian equivalents: *-ificazione*, *-zione*, *-sione* and Lithuanian ones: *-avimas*, *-imas*, *-acija*; many words with these suffixes became international and in Lithuanian may take the similar suffix *-cija*; *-ing* has its Italian equivalents: *-mento*, *-aggio*, *-tura* and Lithuanian ones: *-ymas(is)*, *-imas*, *-yba* which are not similar at all; *-ment* has its similar Italian equivalent *-mento* and Lithuanian *-imas*; *-age* has its Italian equivalents: *-aggio*, *-mento* and Lithuanian *-imas*; *-ure* has Italian equivalents *-ura*, *-zione*, *-sione* and Lithuanian *-ūra*, *-imas*, *-cija*; *-tude* has its similar Italian equivalents: *-mento*, *-tudine* but Lithuanian different ones: *-a*, *atvė*, *-uma*;

c) facility or a place for, also result of an activity:

-ery, -ory, -ry, -er's have similar Italian equivalents: -erìa, -orio but Lithuanian different ones: -ykla, -ija, -teka, -inė;

d) person, member, profession, occupation:

-ian, -ee, -er, -or, -ess, -ist have Italian equivalents: -ario (-aria, -ari, -arie), -ico (-ica, -ici, -iche), -ato (-ata, -ati, -ate), -uto (-uta, -uti, -ute), -ente (-enti), -ante (-anti), -aio (-aia, -ai, -aie), -ista (-isti), -tore (-trice, -tori, -trici), -sore (-sori), -essa (-esse), -iere (-ieri) and Lithuanian ones: -as (-ė, -ai, -aie), -ojas (-oja, -ojai, -ojos), -ėjas (-ėja, -ėjai, -ėjos), -is (-ė, -iai, -ės), -ininkas (-ininkė, -ininkai, -ininkės), -ius (-ė, -iai, -ės), -antas (-antė, -antai, -antės), -istas (-istė, -istai, -istės) which are rather different and can be inflected by number and gender in both languages (in Lithuanian, also by case), although at a different degree;

e) nationality:

-an, -ian, -ish, -ese have similar Italian equivalents: -ano (-ana, -ani, -ane), -ino (-ina, -ini, -ine), -ese (-esi) and Lithuanian different ones: -ietis (-ietė, -iečiai, -ietės), -as (-ė, -ai, -ės).

There are a lot of suffixes originated from Greek and Latin which became international ones, so the words to which they attach look much the same in Italian, Lithuanian and in many other languages, e.g., -ism, -cracy which indicate system or condition, -logy, -ics which denote science or subject, -ite, -ate which refer to rocks and minerals, -itis which means diseases, etc.

Apart from some exceptions (suffix -ie), there are almost no diminutive, augmentative or pejorative suffixes in English, but they are rather common in Italian and Lithuanian languages:

a) diminutive:

Italian -ino/ -ina, -ello/ -ella, -etto/ -etta, -otto/ -otta, -uccio/ -uccio and Lithuanian -ukas, -utis, -ytė, -elis;

b) augmentative:

Italian -one corresponds to Lithuanian *didelis* or *-uolis* (e.g., *big window* – *finestrone* – *didelis langas*, *very rich man* – *riccone* – *turtuolis*) (In modern English, augmentatives are usually created with the prefix *super-*);

c) pejorative (contemptuous):

Italian -accio, -aglia and Lithuanian *-ūkštis*.

Most of the above mentioned (usually non-abstract) nouns can also be inflected by number both in Lithuanian and Italian languages. Besides, Lithuanian nouns are inflected by case, which has no comparison with nouns in analytical languages.

Adjectival morphemes. They can be divided into suffixes and prefixes. In Lithuanian, all adjectival suffixes (likewise noun and participial suffixes) have their inflectional forms (endings) depending on gender, number and case. For example, morphemes -a, -ė, -i are characteristic of feminine gender in singular form nominative case, -os, -ės, -ios in

plural; -as, -is, -us are characteristic of masculine gender in singular number, -i, -iai, -ūs in plural. Besides, when declining, the same adjective will receive 16 sets of different endings (Kasparaitis, 2000). In Italian, adjectives can be inflected only by gender and number respectively: in singular -a, -o, -e, in plural -e, -i.

English suffixes which indicate (see Appendices, Table C.2.):

a) ability to receive the action of the verb and suggest fitting, worth:

-able, -ible have their similar Italian equivalents: -abile, -ibile, -evole and different Lithuanian ones: -mas, -inas, -iškas;

b) a kind of agent, quality, feature, relation:

-ent, -ant, -ous, -ic, -al, -ical, -ary, -ory, -ive have quite similar Italian counterparts: -ante, -ente, -oso, -ico, -ale, -ario, -orio, -ivo and different Lithuanian ones: -us, -tis, -mas, -ingas, -inis, -iškas, -yvus;

c) form, resemblance with or style:

-form, -esque have similar Italian equivalents: -forme, -esco and Lithuanian: -iškas, -ingas;

d) every or a particular interval or sequence:

-ly has its Italian equivalents -ale, -iero and Lithuanian -inis;

e) origin from a particular place:

-ese is the same in Italian, but in Lithuanian -iškas/ -ų;

f) an ordinal number:

-th has equivalents in Italian: -to, -esimo and in Lithuanian: -tas;

g) a comparative degree which means *more*:

-er corresponds to Lithuanian *-esnis* and does not have an Italian counterpart (*più* is used instead);

h) a superlative degree: -est has its counterpart in Italian *-issimo* and in Lithuanian *-iausias*.

English suffix *-less*, which means unable or lacking of some quality, does not have an equivalent suffix either in Italian or Lithuanian, but is expressed respectively by the Italian word *senza* or by the prefix *in-* and by the Lithuanian prefix *be-*.

Prefixes *in-*, *im-*, *ir-*, *il-*, *dis-*, which indicate the opposite (negative) meaning of words, are borrowed from Latin so they are the same both in Italian and English (see Appendices, Table D.1.). They have the Lithuanian equivalent *ne-*. The English prefix *un-* corresponds to Italian particle *non* and Lithuanian *ne-*.

Adverbial morphemes. These morphemes are not similar in the analysed languages, however, in English and Italian they are rather constant in their forms (see Appendices, Table C.3.). The English suffix *-ly* which indicates frequency and manner corresponds to Italian morpheme *-mente*, while in Lithuanian it is usually *-ai*, *-iai* or may take a morpheme *kas-*. Suffixes *-ward/ -wards*, which show a particular direction, in Italian can be expressed by the word

verso and in Lithuanian by the suffix *-yn* or by the preposition *j*. English suffixes *-ways*, *-wise*, which indicate manner or direction, in Italian and Lithuanian are usually expressed by additional words.

Suffixes *-cy*, *-acy*, *-cracy*, *-ess*, *-ism*, *-ist*, *-ise*, *-isation*, *-ology*, *-meter*, *-th*, *-ic* came from Greece where they came in use in about 1000 B.C. Suffixes *-ian*, *-or*, *-ance*, *-ence*, *-age*, *-ion*, *-sion*, *-tion*, *-fication*, *-ment*, *-ure*, *-ty*, *-tude*, *-al*, *-ical*, *-able*, *-ible*, *-ant*, *-ent*, *-ese*, *-ive*, *-form*, *-esque*, *-ous*, *-fy* came from Latin and were used by ancient people in central Italy around 700 B.C. Suffix *-ee* came from France. Suffixes *-er*, *-or*, *-ery*, *-ory*, *-ness*, *-ing*, *-less*, *-ish*, *-est*, *-ly*, *-y*, *-ward/wards*, *-ways*, *-wise* have been used in England since 450–1100 A.D. (Ware, n.d.) and (Ebberts, 2004). To give a full list of the remaining suffixes and prefixes would be to extend this section beyond limit.

Lexical level. Villa, a noted member of the Online Italian Forum *lifeinitaly.com*, in his letter to his countryman in the U.S.A. writes:

I truly believe and have come to the conclusion that inside every English speaker there is an Italian speaker trying to get out. Through Latin both languages share a common vocabulary. Fact is the English language has a 60% Latin root vocabulary the same Latin root Italian has. Thousands of words in Italian are similar to or identical with their English equivalents; and a great many words sound almost alike. Then, too, Italian pronunciation is easier. It is straightforward and phonetic without any of the exceptions that occur in English. (Lifeinitaly.com. Italian Online Community. Italian Forum)

There are linguistic markers that make those similarities evident. When we look for likeness and learn to associate two items because of their similarity, we are forming the base for a strong and active memory, and at the same time building a sound vocabulary. These words are called *parole simili* in Italian and ‘cognates’ in English. They have fairly minimal differences in spelling so they are easily recognizable (Lowry, 2006). Obviously, morphological information play the central role in the individuation and retrieval of lexical entries. Although adjectives, nouns and verbs with suffixes of Greek and Latin origin (many of them are named in the section above) have their cognates in Italian, but their amount in Lithuanian (apart from some international words) is rather limited. So we can compare Italian with English only (e.g., *rispondere* – *respond*, *dissuadere* – *dissuade*, *famoso* – *famous*, *miserabile* – *miserable*, *autorità* – *authority*, *conferenza* – *conference*, *sufficientemente* – *sufficiently*).

It is often enough to remove the final vowel from an Italian word and it will look like the English equivalent (e.g., *palma* – *palm*, *finale* – *final*, *tremore* – *tremor*) (those who study Italian based on English, should do an inverse action). In fact, some words changed considerably and it is not as easy to trace their similarity (e.g., *cerco* – *I search*, *fiore* – *flower*, *cucina* – *kitchen*). However, one should be careful not to confuse them with so called ‘false friends’ — words from two different languages that look similar or the same, but have different meanings (e.g., *caldo* which looks like ‘cold’, but means ‘hot’; *mano* which is similar to ‘man’, but means ‘hand’; *camera* in Italian means ‘room’, while in English it is a piece of ‘equipment for taking

photos’; *estate* in Italian means ‘summer’, but in English it is a ‘large area of land’, etc.). Thus, it is important to learn them whenever they are encountered, otherwise improper or wrong usage will lead to misunderstanding. It is worth pointing out that the mother tongue lexis often interfere with the assimilation of new vocabulary. One thing is a word, another — its meaning. Three cases should be observed when two words are being compared: a) the meanings match completely; b) there are more than one connotation in the target language; c) there are more than one connotation in the native language. In this regard, again, more coincidence can be noticed between Italian and English (e.g., verbs: *prendere* – *take*, *salvare* – *save*, *perdere* – *lose*) than Lithuanian. Words which do not have lexical equivalents in another language can be translated only by a phrase (e.g., *to benefit* – *beneficiare* – *gauti naudos*; *was owed* – *ero dovuto* – *man buvo skolingi*, etc.).

Syntactical level. Lithuanian speech is more specific, while Italian is more abstract. It is said that ‘redundancy is an integral feature of the “architecture” of grammar’ (Broccias, 2003, p.14). Lithuanian has no articles, but what is definite can be emphasized by the word order. It is usually stated at the beginning of the sentence. Personal pronouns in Italian and in Lithuanian can be omitted while in English they cannot because of verb/ predicate inflexibility. That is why impersonal sentences in English are expressed by *it*, *you*, *one*, *there*. English structures *there is*, *there are* fairly match with the Italian *c’è*, *ci sono* which have no equivalents in Lithuanian. Sequence of tenses is not necessary in Lithuanian while in English and Italian it is rather important and is comparable. In Lithuanian the verb endings match in conditional and subjunctive mood, in Italian and English they are different. Synthetic inflectional languages such as Lithuanian combine affixes by joining several meanings in one affix (e.g., in the Lithuanian word *pastatyty*, the suffix *-yty* carries the meanings of the: past participle genitive case in plural (*of those that were/ had been built*), subjunctive mood 3rd person singular and plural (*that he/ she/ they should build*), conditional mood 3rd person singular and plural (*he/ she/ they would build*) and also of the subordinate ‘if’ clause (*if he/ she/ they built*). Taking into consideration that Italian has four tenses of the conjunctive mood (two of which correspond to the given example), the same structures in Italian will look like the following:

dei/ delle.....costruiti/e (past participle, genitive case); *che lui/ lei costruiscano*, *che loro costruiscano* (conjunctive mood, present), *che lui/ lei costruisse*, *che loro costruissero* (conjunctive mood, imperfect); *lui/ lei costruirebbe*, *loro costruirebbero* (conditional mood), *se lui/ lei costruisse*, *se loro costruissero* (conditional mood, ‘if’ clause).

Transitive, intransitive and reflexive verbs not always match in two languages. The ones that are transitive in Italian can be intransitive in English or in Lithuanian and vice versa. For example, Italian *suonare* is transitive in the meaning *play* (a musical instrument), but the Lithuanian *groti* is intransitive and takes the ablative case, though, without a preposition.

In analytical languages the word order in the sentence must be observed. English has a strict word order, while in Italian it is less important, because verbs are conjugated and this language is more flexible. Lithuanian, being a synthetic language, distinguishes by a free word order. Although the word order does not perform a grammar function, but different layout of the same words may change the colour of the meaning. Structural criteria should be used in the interlinguistic comparison when it is important to determine which implications the same affix or sentence may hide, because literal translations can result in ungrammatical sentences and obscured meaning. The valid criteria are: tenses, concordance of person, and structural differences.

Hardly anybody will understand the Lithuanian sentence „*Ne vietuje pastatytų automobilių ratai bus blokuojami*“ if we translate it into English or Italian neglecting the right word order and different connotations of the past participle *pastatytų* (*built; parked*), e.g., in English (literally): *Not in place built cars wheels will be blocked off*; in Italian: *Non localmente costruiti automobili ruote saranno bloccate*. In both languages the meaning is skewed and ambiguous. It is not clear whether the cars or their wheels were wrongly equipped, whether the cars or their wheels will be blocked. What wheels? Those used to steer a car, or the ones with tyres? What cars? Built (made) somewhere or parked? It is a great contrast to the correct translation which should sound like this: *Wheels of the cars parked in the wrong place will be blocked off* (English); *Le ruote delle auto parcheggiate nel posto sbagliato saranno bloccate* (Italian).

Even in this case one might get in doubt about the ‘parked’ thing: wheels or cars? However, any inversion of the word order in Lithuanian is possible.

Predicting the students’ mistakes, special attention should be placed on recognizing the meaning of Italian *che* which is equivalent to English *that* as both a conjunction and a relative pronoun, but in Lithuanian, apart from being the conjunction *kad*, it has many inflectional morphemes as a relative pronoun reflecting feminine and masculine gender in singular and plural: *kuris, kuri, kurie, kurios* (nominative case), *kuri, kurią, kuriuos, kurias* (accusative case). This often causes difficulties in understanding the relation between the subject and the object. For example, the structure *...che ha conosciuto...* can be translated as follows: *kad jis/ ji žinojo – that he/ she knew; kuris/ kuri žinojo – the one who knew; kuri/ kurią/ kuriuos/ kurias jis/ ji žinojo – whom he/ she knew*. Thus, only the neighbouring words can help to determine the real meaning. Actually, sometimes it is difficult to escape ambiguities.

Conclusions

While learning a second foreign language it is worth trying to integrate it with the previously learnt language/s. They, however, not only may affect positively, but also interfere with the target language. Language teaching based on similarities is rather effective, because they (similarities) form the base for a strong and active memory and then help to recall the information stored in the long-term memory. Two or more languages can be systematically compared on all levels of their structures. Any sounds,

morphemes, words or items of grammar of the foreign language may or may not have counterparts in the native language. One should be careful not to confuse cognates with ‘false friends’, words that look similar or the same, but have different meanings. Although adjectives, nouns and verbs with suffixes of Greek and Latin origin have their cognates both in Italian and English, their amount in Lithuanian is rather limited. These languages have different degrees of relatedness. Italian and Lithuanian are very distant languages in all aspects: phonetical, morphological, lexical, syntactical and stylistic. This is because of thin relationship between the two cultures. Lithuanian, being highly inflected language, combines affixes by joining several meanings in one affix.

When there are no similarities between Italian and English, they sometimes occur between Italian and Lithuanian. At morpheme level: inflectional verbal morphemes in the Present Indefinite match or are similar; Italian inflectional suffix *-av-* in *Imperfetto* resembles past iterative tense suffix *-dav*; Italian morpheme of reflexive verbs *si* corresponds to *-s/-si* in the Infinitive and the third person both singular and plural; present and past participle morphemes in the nominative case of the active voice, gerund morphemes, adjectival morphemes of the superlative degree, diminutive and pejorative noun morphemes are very similar.

At syntactical level there are more differences than similarities between Italian and Lithuanian. Lithuanian distinguishes by a free word order and is more specific, while Italian is more abstract. The Italian sentence structure is more similar to English, with one specific difference that the attribute usually follows the object and the adverb can be placed according to what you want to put the stress on. English structures *there is, there are* match with the Italian *c'è, ci sono*, but they have no equivalents in Lithuanian. Transitive, intransitive and reflexive verbs not always match in two languages.

Though the method of comparative linguistics underwent a significant criticism, it cannot be rejected yet. The survey is expected to provide valuable information and meet the needs of students who study Italian after having learned English. Similarities are worth investigating further in more detail.

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Rimantas Kalindra

Kai kurie leksiniai, morfologiniai ir sintaksiniai lietuvių, italų ir anglų kalbų panašumai bei skirtumai

Santrauka

Šis straipsnis skirtas palengvinti italų kalbos mokymą(si) atskleidžiant leksinius, morfologinius ir sintaksinius lietuvių, anglų ir italų kalbų panašumus bei skirtumus. Minėtos kalbos priskiriamos skirtingoms indoeuropiečių prokalbės baltų, romanų ir germanų kalbų šakoms. Nors anglų kalba yra palyginti jauna, išsivysčiusi Viduramžiais, tačiau ji paveldėjo daugumą leksemų, morfemų ir vedinių iš senovės graikų ir lotynų kalbų, kurie paplito per italų kalbą ir yra būdingi daugeliui kitų kalbų. Kadangi dauguma italų kalbą pasirinkusių studentų jau būna neblogai įsisavinę anglų kalbą, pastarąja daugeliu atvejų galima labiau remtis negu gimtąja kalba. Straipsnyje pateikti leksiniai ir morfologiniai panašumai bei skirtumai analizuojami panaudojant lyginamosios kalbotyros metodus. Palyginimui pasirinktos pagrindinių kalbos dalių priesagos ir priešdėliai, kurie sugrupuoti pagal jų funkcijas. Palyginimai gausiai iliustruojami trijų kalbų pavyzdžiais. Fleksijos ir derivacinės morfemos pagal galimybes aptartos atsižvelgiant į gramatinės kategorijas: rūšį, laiką, asmenį, giminę ir skaičių bei atkreipiant dėmesį į tai, kad lietuvių kalboje daiktavardžiai, būdvardžiai ir dalyviai yra linksniuojami. Kadangi lietuvių kalba, būdama sintetinė, gerokai skiriasi nuo italų, daugiau dėmesio skiriama lyginant panašumus tarp italų ir anglų kalbų. Taip pat pateikiama panašios ir klaidinančios leksikos pavyzdžių, analizuojama skirtinga sakinio struktūra bei gimtosios kalbos įtaka italų kalbos įsisavinimui.

Straipsnis remiasi literatūros šaltinių sukauptos medžiagos analize.

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APPENDICES

A. VERBAL MORPHEMES

Table A.1. Infinitive (Suffixes and Italian Prefix).

English		Italian		Lithuanian	
<i>-ify</i>	<i>modify</i> <i>justify</i>	<i>-ificare</i>	<i>modificare</i> <i>giustificare</i>	<i>-ifikuoti</i> <i>-inti</i>	<i>modifikuoti</i> <i>pateisinti</i>
<i>-ize/-ise</i>	<i>organize</i>	<i>-izzare</i>	<i>organizzare</i>	<i>-izuoti</i>	<i>organizuoti</i>
<i>-ate*</i>	<i>eliminate</i>	<i>-are</i>	<i>eliminare</i>	<i>-uoti</i>	<i>eliminuoti</i>
<i>-en</i>	<i>lengthen</i>	<i>a-</i>	<i>allungare</i>	<i>-inti</i>	<i>(pa)ilginti</i>

Table A.2. Present Indefinite (1st Conjugation — Italian).

Person	Number	English		Italian		Lithuanian	
		stem	inflectional morphemes	stem	inflectional morphemes	stem	inflectional morphemes
infinitive		<i>speak-</i>	-	<i>parl-</i>	<i>-are</i>	<i>kalb-</i>	<i>-ėti</i>
2	singular		-		<i>-i</i>		<i>-i</i>
3			<i>-s</i>		<i>-a</i>		<i>-a</i>
1	plural		-		<i>-iamo</i>		<i>-ame</i>
2			-		<i>-ate</i>		<i>-ate</i>

Table A.3. Imperfetto — Italian (Past iterative, Past Continuous).

Person	Number	English		Italian		Lithuanian	
		stem	morphemes	stem	inflectional morphemes	stem	inflectional morphemes
infinitive		<i>buy</i>	<i>used to buy</i>	<i>compr-</i>	<i>-are</i>	<i>pirk-</i>	<i>-ti</i>
1	singular				<i>-avo</i>		<i>-davau</i>
2					<i>-avi</i>		<i>-davai</i>
3					<i>-ava</i>		<i>-davo</i>
1	plural				<i>-avamo</i>		<i>-davome</i>
2					<i>-avate</i>		<i>-davote</i>
3					<i>-avano</i>		<i>-davo</i>

Table A.4. Reflexive Verbs (Present Indefinite).

Person	Number	English		Italian		Lithuanian	
		stem	inflectional morphemes	stem	inflectional morphemes	stem	inflectional morphemes
infinitive		<i>get up</i>	-	<i>alz-</i>	<i>-arsi</i>	<i>kel-</i>	<i>-tis</i>
1	singular				<i>mi -o</i>		<i>-iuosi</i>
2					<i>ti -i</i>		<i>-iesi</i>
3					<i>si -a</i>		<i>-iasi</i>
1	plural				<i>ci -iamo</i>		<i>-iamės</i>
2					<i>vi -ate</i>		<i>-iatės</i>
3					<i>si -ano</i>		<i>-iasi</i>

Table A.5. Verbal Prefixes.

	Function	English		Italian		Lithuanian	
1	repeated action	<i>re-</i>	<i>reconstruct</i>	<i>ri-</i>	<i>ricostruire</i>	<i>at-</i>	<i>atstatyti</i>
2	separation	<i>de-</i>	<i>degenerate</i>	<i>de-</i>	<i>degenerare</i>	<i>iš-</i>	<i>išsigimti</i>
3	doing together	<i>co-</i>	<i>collaborate</i>	<i>co-</i>	<i>collaborare</i>	<i>bendr-</i>	<i>bendradarbiauti</i>
4	opposite action	<i>dis-</i>	<i>discover</i>	<i>s-</i>	<i>scoprire</i>	<i>at-</i>	<i>atskleisti</i>
5	wrong action	<i>mis-</i>	<i>mistreat</i>	<i>mal-</i>	<i>maltrattare</i>	<i>blogai</i>	<i>blogai elgtis</i>
6	between	<i>inter-</i>	<i>interact</i>	<i>inter-</i>	<i>interagire</i>	<i>sq-</i>	<i>sqveikauti</i>
7	changing	<i>trans-</i>	<i>transplant</i>	<i>tra-</i>	<i>trapiantare</i>	<i>per-</i>	<i>persodinti</i>

Table A.6. Comparison of a Lithuanian Verb with Prefixes with English Phrasal Verbs and Italian Verbs.

	Lithuanian		English	Italian
1	<i>ne-</i>	<i>neiti</i>	<i>not to go</i>	<i>non andare</i>
2	<i>iš-</i>	<i>išeiti</i>	<i>to go out/ off</i>	<i>uscire</i>
3	<i>pra-</i>	<i>praeiti</i>	<i>to go by</i>	<i>passare</i>
4	<i>per-</i>	<i>pereiti</i>	<i>to go over/ through</i>	<i>attraversare</i>
5	<i>už-</i>	<i>užeiti</i>	<i>to drop by/ in</i>	<i>passare da</i>
6	<i>par-</i>	<i>pareiti</i>	<i>to come back</i>	<i>tornare</i>
7	<i>nu-</i>	<i>nueiti</i>	<i>to go away</i>	<i>andare via</i>
8	<i>pri-</i>	<i>prieiti</i>	<i>to come up</i>	<i>avvicinarsi</i>
9	<i>su-</i>	<i>sueiti</i>	<i>to meet</i>	<i>incontrarsi</i>
10	<i>į-</i>	<i>jeiti</i>	<i>to come in</i>	<i>entrare</i>

11	<i>ap-</i>	<i>apeiti</i>	<i>to bypass</i>	<i>aggirare</i>
12	<i>at-</i>	<i>ateiti</i>	<i>to come</i>	<i>venire</i>
13	<i>pa-</i>	<i>paeiti</i>	<i>to be able to go</i>	<i>poter andare</i>

B. PARTICIPIAL and GERUND MORPHEMES

Table B.1. Present Participles.

Gender	Number	English		Italian		Lithuanian	
		stem	inflectional morphemes	stem	inflectional morphemes	stem	inflectional morphemes
Masculine	singular	<i>tolerat-sit+t-</i>	-ing*	<i>toller-sed-</i>	-ante -ente	<i>toleruojséd-</i>	-antis*
Feminine							-intis
Masculine	plural				-anti -enti		-antys
Feminine							-intys
							-ančios -inčios

Table B.2. Gerunds.

Gender	Number	English		Italian		Lithuanian	
		stem	inflectional morphemes	stem	inflectional morphemes	stem	inflectional morphemes
Masculine	singular	<i>tolerat-sit+t-</i>	-ing*	<i>toller-sed-</i>	-ando -endo	<i>toleruojséd-</i>	-damas
Feminine							-dama
Masculine	plural				-dami		
Feminine							-damos
-	both					<i>toleruojséd-</i>	-ant -int

Table B.3. Past Participles.

Gender	Number	English		Italian		Lithuanian	
		stem	inflectional morphemes	stem	inflectional morphemes	stem	inflectional morphemes
Masculine	singular	<i>approve</i> <i>detain</i> <i>refer</i> <i>close</i>	-ed	<i>approv-</i> <i>deten-</i> <i>rifer-</i> <i>chiu-</i>	-ato -uto -ito -so	<i>patvirtin-</i> <i>sulaiky-</i> <i>nurody-</i> <i>uždary-</i>	-tas
Feminine							-ta
Masculine	plural				-ati -uti -iti -si		-ti
Feminine							-tos

Notes: *the same morphemes can also occur in other parts of speech; morphemes which are similar or quite similar in the compared languages are shown in bold type.

C. SUFFIXES

Table C.1. Substantival (Noun) Suffixes.

	Function	English		Italian		Lithuanian	
1	person or member, profession, occupation	-ist	<i>journalist</i> <i>florist</i>	-ista -aio	<i>giornalista</i> <i>fioraio</i>	-istas -ininkas	<i>žurnalistas</i> <i>gėlininkas</i>
		-or	<i>doctor (m)</i> <i>doctor (f)</i>	-tore	<i>dottore</i>	-ojas	<i>gydytojas</i>
		-ess	<i>professor</i> <i>actress</i>	-essa -sore	<i>dottoressa</i> <i>professore</i>	-oja -us*	<i>gydytoja</i> <i>profesorius</i>
		-er*	<i>writer</i> <i>singer</i>	-trice -ante*	<i>attrice</i> <i>scrittrice</i> <i>cantante</i>	-ė -oja -ininkas	<i>aktorė</i> <i>rašytoja</i> <i>dainininkas</i>
		-ee	<i>addressee</i> <i>employee</i>	-ario -ente*	<i>destinatario</i> <i>dipendente</i>	-as* -ysis*	<i>adresatas</i> <i>dirbantysis</i>
		-ian*	<i>musician</i> <i>mathematician</i>	-ista -ico*	<i>musicista</i> <i>matematico</i>	-antas -as*	<i>muzikantas</i> <i>matematikas</i>
2	nationality	-an -ian* -ish	<i>American</i> <i>Algerian</i> <i>Scottish</i>	-ano -ino* -ese	<i>americano</i> <i>algerino</i> <i>scozzese</i>	-tis -tis -as*	<i>amerikietis</i> <i>alžyrietis</i> <i>škotas</i>

		-ese	<i>Chinese</i>	-ese	<i>cinese</i>	-as*	<i>kinas</i>
3	abstract nouns: tendency, state, status, quality, trait, condition, order, system	-ence -ance -ancy -ency -cracy -ness -ty -y* -tude -ship	<i>preference</i> <i>abundance</i> <i>infancy</i> <i>tendency</i> <i>democracy</i> <i>laziness</i> <i>sweetness</i> <i>generosity</i> <i>reality</i> <i>variety</i> <i>jealousy</i> <i>solitude</i> <i>relationship</i>	-enza -anza -anzia -enza -crazia -zia -ezza -tà -ìa -tudine -zione	<i>preferenza</i> <i>abbondanza</i> <i>infanzia</i> <i>tendenza</i> <i>democrazia</i> <i>pigrizia</i> <i>dolcezza</i> <i>generosità</i> <i>realità</i> <i>varietà</i> <i>gelosia</i> <i>solitudine</i> <i>relazione</i>	-ybė -umas -ystė -cija -kratija -umas -umas -umas -ybė -ovė -as* -atvė -ystė	<i>pirmenybė</i> <i>gausumas</i> <i>kūdikystė</i> <i>tendencija</i> <i>demokratija</i> <i>tingumas</i> <i>saldumas</i> <i>dosnumas</i> <i>realybė</i> <i>įvairovė</i> <i>pavydas</i> <i>vienatvė</i> <i>giminystė</i>
4	facility, place for	-ry* -er's	<i>library</i> <i>laundry</i> <i>territory</i> <i>butcher's</i>	-ria -rio -ria	<i>libreria</i> <i>lavanderia</i> <i>territorio</i> <i>macelleria</i>	-teka -ykla -ija -inė*	<i>biblioteka</i> <i>skalbykla</i> <i>teritorija</i> <i>mėsinė</i>
5	doctrine, belief	-ism	<i>fascism</i>	-ismo	<i>fascismo</i>	-izmas	<i>fašizmas</i>
6	science	-ics -logy	<i>physics</i> <i>geology</i>	-ica -logia	<i>fisica</i> <i>geologia</i>	-ika -logija	<i>fizika</i> <i>geologija</i>
7	mineral, rock, sub- stance	-ite* -ate*	<i>pyrite</i> <i>pegmatite</i> <i>carbonate</i>	-ite* -ato*	<i>pirite</i> <i>pegmatite</i> <i>carbonato</i>	-itas -atas	<i>piritas</i> <i>pegmatitas</i> <i>karbonatas</i>
8	disease	-itis	<i>arthritis</i>	-ite*	<i>artrite</i>	-itas	<i>artritas</i>
9	condition, state of being, action, process, function, result	-ment	<i>imprisonment</i>	-mento	<i>imprigionamento</i>	-imas	<i>įkalinimas</i>
		-sion	<i>division</i>	-sione	<i>divisione</i>	-imas	<i>padalijimas</i>
		-tion	<i>circulation</i> <i>observation</i>	-zione	<i>circolazione</i> <i>osservazione</i>	-cija -imas	<i>cirkuliacija</i> <i>stebėjimas</i>
		-age	<i>passage</i>	-aggio	<i>passaggio</i>	-imas	<i>praėjimas</i>
		-al*	<i>arrival</i> <i>approval</i>	-o* -zione	<i>arrivo</i> <i>approvazione</i>	-imas	<i>atvykimas</i> <i>pritarimas</i>
		-ing*	<i>learning</i> <i>washing</i> <i>painting</i>	-mento -aggio -tura	<i>apprendimento</i> <i>lavaggio</i> <i>pittura</i>	-ymasis -imas -yba	<i>mokymasis</i> <i>plovimas</i> <i>tapyba</i>
		-th*	<i>growth</i> <i>depth</i> <i>length</i>	-ita -ità -ezza	<i>crescita</i> <i>profondità</i> <i>lunghezza</i>	-imas -is	<i>augimas</i> <i>gylis</i> <i>ilgis</i>
-ure	<i>exposure</i> <i>pressure</i> <i>procedure</i>	-zione -sione -ura	<i>esposizione</i> <i>pressione</i> <i>procedura</i>	-cija -imas -ūra	<i>ekspozicija</i> <i>slėgimas</i> <i>procedūra</i>		
10	diminutive	-ie - - - -	<i>doggie</i> <i>tootsie</i> <i>tiny rain</i> <i>small fish</i> <i>little house</i>	-ino* -etta -ella -iotto -uccia	<i>canino</i> <i>gambetta</i> <i>pioggerella</i> <i>pesciotto</i> <i>casuccia</i>	-ukas -ytė -utis -ytė/ -elė -elis	<i>šuniukas</i> <i>kojytė</i> <i>lietutis</i> <i>žuvytė, žuvelė</i> <i>namelis</i>
11	pejorative	- -	<i>naughty boy</i> <i>mean soldier</i>	-accio -aglia	<i>ragazzaccio</i> <i>soldataglia</i>	-ūkštis	<i>berniūkštis</i> <i>kareiviūkštis</i>

Notes: *the same suffixes can also occur in other parts of speech; morphemes which are similar or quite similar in the compared languages are shown in bold type.

Table C.2. Adjectival Suffixes.

	Function	English		Italian		Lithuanian	
1	fitting, feature, worth	-able -ible	<i>potable</i> <i>horrible</i> <i>incredible</i> <i>amicable</i>	-abile -ibile -evole	<i>potabile</i> <i>orribile</i> <i>incredibile</i> <i>amichevole</i>	-mas -us* -inas -iškas	<i>geriamas</i> <i>baisus</i> <i>neįtikėtinas</i> <i>draugiškas</i>
2	indication, kind of agent, kind of state, quality, property, feature, streak, relation	-ant -ent	<i>abundant</i> <i>confident</i> <i>dependent</i>	-ante* -ente	<i>abbondante</i> <i>confidente</i> <i>dipendente</i>	-us* -tis -mas	<i>gausus</i> <i>pasitikintis</i> <i>priklausomas</i>
		-ive	<i>sensitive</i> <i>instinctive</i> <i>persuasive</i>	-ivo	<i>sensitivo</i> <i>istintivo</i> <i>persuasivo</i>	-us* -yvus -tis	<i>jautrus</i> <i>instinktyvus</i> <i>įtikinantis</i>
		-ate*	<i>fortunate</i>	-ato*	<i>fortunato</i>	-ingas	<i>laimingas</i>
		-ous	<i>generous</i> <i>nervous</i>	-oso	<i>generoso</i> <i>nervoso</i>	-us* -ingas	<i>dosnus</i> <i>nervingas</i>
		-ful	<i>useful</i> <i>harmful</i>	-oso -ivo	<i>vantaggioso</i> <i>nocivo</i>	-ingas	<i>naudingas</i> <i>žalingas</i>
		-al* -ic(al)	<i>functional</i> <i>practical</i>	-ale -ico	<i>funzionale</i> <i>pratico</i>	-inis -iškas	<i>funkcinis</i> <i>praktiškas</i>
		-ary -ory*	<i>sedimentary</i> <i>voluntary</i> <i>consolatory</i> <i>advisory</i>	-ario -orio -ivo	<i>sedimentario</i> <i>volontario</i> <i>consolatorio</i> <i>consultivo</i>	-inis -iškas -antis* -inis	<i>nuosėdinis</i> <i>savanoriškas</i> <i>raminantis</i> <i>konsultacinis</i>

		-y*	<i>sunny</i> <i>windy</i> <i>happy</i> <i>lazy</i>	-oso -to* -o*	<i>luminoso</i> <i>ventoso</i> <i>contento</i> <i>pigro</i>	-ėtas -uotas -ingas -us*	<i>saulėtas</i> <i>vėjuotas</i> <i>laimingas</i> <i>tingus</i>
3	missing feature	-less	<i>fearless</i>	---	<i>senza paura</i>	---	<i>bebaimis</i>
4	colour like, resembling	-ish* -like	<i>reddish</i> <i>childlike</i>	-astro -ile	<i>rossastro</i> <i>infantile</i>	-svas -iškas	<i>rausvas</i> <i>vaikiškas</i>
5	style, form	-esque -form	<i>Romanesque</i> <i>cuneiform</i>	-esco -forme	<i>romanesco</i> <i>cunifforme</i>	-iškas	<i>romaniškas</i> <i>pleištiškas</i>
6	origin	-ian* -ese*	<i>Toscanian</i> <i>Japanese</i>	-ese*	<i>toscanese</i> <i>giapponese</i>	-iškas	<i>toskanietiškas</i> <i>japoniškas</i>
7	frequency	-ly*	<i>yearly</i>	-ale	<i>annuale</i>	-inis	<i>metinis</i>
8	comparative	-er*	<i>stronger</i>	---	<i>più forte</i>	-esnis	<i>stipresnis</i>
9	superlative	-est	<i>longest</i>	-issimo	<i>lunguissimo</i>	-iausias	<i>ilgiausias</i>
10	ordinal numbers	-th*	<i>twelfth</i>	-esimo	<i>dodicesimo</i>	-tas*	<i>dvyliktas</i>

Table C.3. Adverbial Suffixes.

	Function	English		Italian		Lithuanian	
1	frequency, manner	-ly*	<i>daily</i> <i>jealously</i>	-mente -mente -mente	<i>giornalmente</i> <i>gelosamente</i> <i>lateralmente</i>	---	<i>kasdien</i> <i>pavydžiai</i>
		-ways -ward -wards -wise	<i>sideways</i> <i>downward</i> <i>westwards</i> <i>clockwise</i>	---	<i>verso il basso</i> <i>verso ovest</i> <i>in senso orario</i>	---	<i>šonu</i> <i>žemyn</i> <i>į vakarus</i> <i>laikrodžio rodyklės</i> <i>kryptimi</i>

Table D.1. Adjectival and Substantival Prefixes of Negative Meaning.

	Function	English		Italian		Lithuanian	
1	adjectival	<i>il-</i> <i>im-</i> <i>in-</i> <i>un-</i> <i>dis-</i> <i>ir-</i>	<i>illegal</i> <i>impossible</i> <i>inactive</i> <i>unachievable</i> <i>dishonest</i> <i>irresponsible</i>	<i>il-</i> <i>im-</i> <i>in-</i> <i>non</i> <i>dis-</i> <i>ir-</i>	<i>illegale</i> <i>impossibile</i> <i>inattivo</i> <i>raggiungibile</i> <i>disonesto</i> <i>irresponsabile</i>	<i>ne-</i>	<i>neteisėtas</i> <i>nejmanomas</i> <i>neaktyvus</i> <i>nepasiekiamas</i> <i>nesąžiningas</i> <i>neatsakingas</i>
2	substantival	<i>il-</i> <i>im-</i> <i>in-</i> <i>un-</i> <i>dis-</i> <i>ir-</i>	<i>illegality</i> <i>impossibility</i> <i>inactivity</i> <i>unbelief</i> <i>dishonesty</i> <i>irresponsibility</i>	<i>il-</i> <i>im-</i> <i>in-</i> <i>dis-</i> <i>ir-</i>	<i>illegalità</i> <i>impossibilità</i> <i>inattività</i> <i>incredulità</i> <i>disonestà</i> <i>irresponsabilità</i>	<i>ne-</i>	<i>neteisėtumas</i> <i>negalimumas</i> <i>neveiklumas</i> <i>netikėjimas</i> <i>nesąžiningumas</i> <i>neatsakingumas</i>

Notes: *the same suffixes can also occur in other parts of speech; morphemes which are similar or quite similar in the compared languages are shown in bold type.