ŠIAULIAI UNIVERSITY

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NOMINALIZATION AS A COHESIVE DEVICE IN POLITICAL DISCOURSE

BACHELOR THESIS

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CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION

Language is a vital means of communicating thoughts and ideas. Politics like all spheres of social activity has its own particular language. The language of politics deals with "the narrative interpretation of events and ideas and establishes criteria and contexts for comparing and evaluating political systems" (Mihas, 2005: 125). In addition, Feldman and De Landtsheer sate that the main purpose of the speeches of politicians' is the manipulation for the specific political effect (1998: 410-411). Therefore, it must be written in a clear, economical and coherent way. Thus, the sentences are not simply strung together in sequence, but also display some kind of mutual dependence, i.e. they must be connected in a contextually appropriate way that helps the reader or listener associate previous statements with subsequent ones. In other words, the speeches of politicians as a whole must exhibit the property of cohesion. According to Halliday and Hasan (2005: 18-19), cohesion is the set of possibilities in the language that make the text hang together. Cohesion is typically established by linguistic devices which help the reader or listener to notice the semantic ties inside the text. In addition, nominalization which is an important phenomenon in the linguistic system is a small but significant part of lexico-grammatical cohesives (Valeika, 1985).

In accordance with McArthur (1996: 403), "nominalization is the process or result of forming a noun from a word belonging to another word class", for instance, the word *nominalization* is derived from *nominalize* by adding the suffix *-ation*, whereas Halliday (1989) calls this phenomenon *grammatical metaphor*. Sušinskienė (2009) claims that the usefulness of nominalization lies in the fact that it helps to reduce the text. Thus, nominalization is a prominent feature in scientific writings and has become a central instrument for condensing the information. However, the presence of nominalization is also highly perceived as a text-unifying factor which greatly contributes to the general coherence of the text.

The **object** of the present paper is the verb-based nominalizations and the cohesive role they play in political texts.

The **aim** is to explore the verb-based nominalizations as cohesive devices in political discourse. To verify the aim, the following **objectives** have been set:

1) to present the theoretical material concerning the phenomenon of cohesion, nominalization and political discourse;

2) to make the inventory of verb-based nominalizations found in the politicians' speeches;

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3) to classify the selected examples according to the suffixation of the nominalizations and indicate their semantic groups;

4) to analyze the textual functions of the nominalizations;

The relevance of the work. Cohesion has been a very prominent term in discourse analysis and text linguistics. Thus, cohesion and the associated ideas about text analysis are popular among applied linguistics and language teachers. The investigation of different discourses results in a great number of linguistic reports and articles. The theories of various discourses on cohesion have been widely analyzed by many linguists such as Taboada (2004), Beaugrande (1996), Tanskanen (2006), Halliday (2004), Crystal (2005), Brown and Yule (1983) as well as Lithuanian linguist Valeika (1985). Similarly, great theoretical reviews on the phenomenon of nominalization and its contribution to language economy were presented by Downing and Locke (2002), Banks (2003), Heyvaert (2003), whereas Halliday (2004) analyzed the nominalization as a grammatical metaphor. Thus, a lot of works have been written already, but comparatively little attention has been paid to the usage of nominalization as a cohesive device. Hence, it would seem that further investigation is needed in revealing the peculiarities how the phenomenon of nominalization creates cohesion in the text. That is why the research in this field is necessary, useful and interesting.

In the present paper, the following qualitative and quantitative **methods** of investigation have been applied:

Qualitative:

1. Descriptive – theoretical analysis provided a possibility to review theoretical data concerning nominalization, cohesion, and political discourse.

2. Descriptive - analytical method helped to analyze the selected examples of verb-based nominalizations.

3. Critical discourse analysis was used in order to investigate the impact of nominalizations to political text.

4. The transformational method was employed to show the relationship between the underlying proposition and the respective nominalization.

Quantitative:

1. The statistical method was used to show the incidence of the features of nominalizations revealed by the analysis.

The scope of the research and research material[1]**.**

For the purpose of investigation 971 examples of verb-based nominalizations have been drawn from *100 top speeches of American rhetoric* in a corpus of 52.932 words. To be more precise, the analysis comprises of sixteen speeches of the politicians.

The structure of the present research consists of an Introduction, two major Parts, Conclusions, and a list of References and Sources. The Introduction presents the phenomenon of nominalization and defines the field of cohesion. It also formulates the object, aim, objectives, methods, relevance, structure and practical value of the present paper. The theoretical part provides theoretical grounding of phenomenon under investigation: introduces to the term *cohesion*, presents the theory on the subject of *nominalization* and, finally, reveals the peculiarities of *political discourse*. In the second part of the present paper (*Chapter 5. Nominalization as a cohesive device in political discourse)* the examples of verb-based nominalizations are analyzed according to their suffixation, semantic group and textual function. Seven figures (three pie charts, two bar charts and two organization charts) are used to illustrate and systematize the present paper. The results of the research are generalized in the part of Conclusions.

The practical value of the work.

We presume that our research and the data collected for it might be useful for students and linguists conducting research dealing with discourse analysis and text linguistics. The obtained results may be used in the course of text analysis or word formation. The data provided in this work will help to develop theoretical and practical skills about the phenomenon of nominalization and its function as a cohesive device. Thus, it might be used as a teaching and learning aid. Moreover, the received results can be included in the process of the text-book writing and used for the aim of language learning.

Dissemination of research results.

On the basis of the material of the present research, a presentation was given at the scientific conference "Studentų darbai – 2011", Šiauliai University, Faculty of Humanities, 7 April, 2011.

 A survey of theoretical issues necessary for the analysis is presented below.

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[1] For more information on materials and methods, see Chapter 4. Methodological considerations.

I. THEORETICAL REVIEW OF COHERENCE AND COHESION

Language is an inseparable part of communication as it is the fundamental and most sophisticated means of transferring information. In order to make it comprehendible (both spoken and written form) the producer should use clear and coherent text. Hence, to understand what makes the text consistent it is expedient to discuss the concept of the *text* itself.

The concept of a text has been widely analyzed by such linguists as Halliday and Hasan (1976), Brown and Yule (1983), Beaugrande (1996), Crystal (2003), and Lyons (1996). Brown and Yule (1983: 190) give a simple definition: "Text is a verbal record of a communicative event", whereas Halliday and Hasan (1976) are more concerned with the principles of connectivity which bind a text together and create co-interpretation. According to the scholars (1976: 1), the word *text* in linguistics refers to "any passage, spoken or written, of whatever length, that does form a unified whole". In other words, a text is not defined by its size, thus, a single word is already a text as well as a whole play or long discussion. Beaugrande (1996: 10-11) compares the sequence of words we hear or see with the tip of an iceberg saying that every even a very short utterance condenses a huge amount of information. Accordingly, he adds that it is crucial to understand that a text is not just a sequence of words and utterances; conversely, it is a communicative event in which linguistic, cognitive, and social actions merge. Consequently, text is a system of connections among many different components (words, sounds, meanings etc.). Since these components certainly are of various types, we can draw a conclusion that a text is a multi-system composing multiple interactive systems. Thus, the units of a text are multifunctional, e.g. a word is made of sounds and is a part of phrase providing the meaning at the same time (ibid). Crystal (2003: 232) concurs with Beaugrande stating that sentences almost never are isolated. Usually they occur in a sequence such as a dialogue, a speech, a book etc: "Any set of sentences which cohere in this way is called a text – a term which applies to both spoken and written material" (ibid). However, as noted by Lyons (1996: 263), not all texts satisfy this definition since the greatest part of everyday colloquial texts is made of a collection of sentences, sentence-fragments and adaptable locutions. As a result, the elements of which the text is composed (whether they are sentences or not) are not just barely joined together in a sequence, but must be connected in some contextually appropriate way. It means that the text as a plausible unit must expose the allied, but distinct, properties of cohesion and coherence. Moreover, Lyons (ibid, 258) adds that text and context are complementary since they presuppose each other. Texts

are components of the contexts in which they are produced, whereas contexts are made, and continually transformed and transmuted, by the texts that speakers and writers create in special situations. Thus, even short utterances contain a good deal of contextual information, which is usually implicit.

Halliday and Hasan (2005: 1) specify that a text is a semantic unit of meaning and is realised by sentences. When the speaker of English comes across a passage which consists of more than one sentence, he/she can easily decide whether it makes a unified whole or is just an incoherent sequence of sentences. This distinction between a text and a disconnected collection of separate sentences depends on some certain objective factors which are properties of text in English, contribute to its total unity and make the difference between the two. Here we deal with coherence and cohesion of the text.

The terms of *cohesion* and *coherence* have been widely discussed in discourse studies and are of fundamental importance in text. It is a topic that captured the attention of such linguists as Crystal (2005), Tanskanen (2006), Halliday and Hassan (1976), Taboada (2004), Brown and Yule (1983), etc. These two concepts are strongly related to each other since they both contribute to the meaning of the text. However, the main difference is that cohesion refers to the grammatical and lexical elements which form connections between parts of the text. Coherence, on the other hand, does not lie in the text, but to some extent is the consequence of a dialogue between the text and its listener or reader (Tanskanen, 2006: 7). Hence, coherence deals with the language users' knowledge of the world, the inference he/she makes and the assumptions he/she holds. Brown and Yule (1983: 194-199) state that a text which is marked by cohesive ties must not be inevitably coherent as cohesion is a feature of the text only when the interpretation of an expression can be reconstructed from some other verbally explicit element within the text. Enkvist supports the idea that cohesive ties explicate how the sentences are linked; however, they are not responsible of telling the whole story. Indeed, it is possible to create the sequence of sentences that would be greatly cohesive but nevertheless incoherent (Enkvist, 1978: 110, as cited in Crystal, 2005: 20):

A week has seven ***days***. Every ***day*** I feed my ***cat***. ***Cats*** have four legs. ***The cat*** is on the ***mat***. ***Mat*** has three letters.

The example above proves that the cohesive devices not necessarily create coherence of the text. The repeated lexical items *day*, *cat*, *mat* serve a cohesion function as repetition is one of the main features of cohesion. In spite of that, this sequence of sentences does not make any continuity of sense. Hence, the conclusion could be made that the consistent text commonly has

to be both coherent and cohesive and the concepts as well as the exposed relations must be relevant to each other, thus allowing us to create reasonable implications about the underlying meaning.

It is worth noting that not all the scholars who discuss the concept of cohesion see it as an obligatory factor of the text. While Halliday and Hasan (1976) insist that cohesion is a necessary property for the forming of plausible unity of text, Brown and Yule (1983: 195) criticize this perception stating that the frequent usage of cohesive items is not enough to make the text connected. Conversely, the linguists (ibid) believe that cohesion is even not essential to make a unified whole as coherence between the propositional units of the text is much more important since it can create "covert aboutness"[2] where their propositional content coheres. Booth and Gregory (1987: 150) agree with both notions and claim that every text must have coherence (an efficient design) and cohesion (a precise set of "hooks" and "ties" that stick the text together and guarantee the reader's/listener's attention and perception). Hence, even though the concepts of cohesion and coherence can be kept distinct they are not contradictory since cohesive elements play a big role in creating coherence.

Halliday and Hasan introduced the concept of *cohesion* in "Cohesion in English" in 1976. This work has emphasized the importance of cohesion as an indicator of text unity. According to the scholars, cohesion refers "to relations of meaning that exists within a text and that define it as a text" (1976: 4). A text is a passage of discourse which is coherent in two points. Firstly, it is coherent with respect to the context of situation, and, secondly, it is coherent with respect to itself, and, hence, is cohesive (ibid, 23). In addition, the mentioned linguists use the term *texture* meaning "the property of being the text". Texture is the fact which makes the text a unity with regard to its setting. The particular linguistic features form a unified whole as well as create cohesive relation which is also called the texture of the text (ibid, 6).

According to Tanskanen (2006: 1), cohesion is the way how the sequences we hear or see hang together. In other words, it is the transaction between speakers and listeners, writers and readers, with the help of which speakers and writers can indicate the unity within and between sequences and listeners and readers can comprehend it. Thus, it means that cohesion, as noted by (Beard, 2000: 117), is "a term which refers to the patterns of language created within a text, mainly within and across sentence boundaries, and which collectively makes up the organisation of larger units of text". Similarly, Crystal (2003: 81) suggests the following definition of the term

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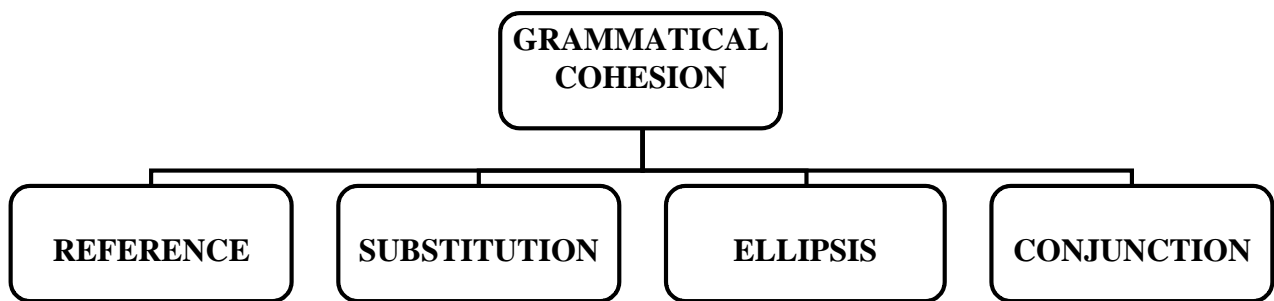[2] The relevance of a text to its reader.

cohesion: "<…> surface-structure features of an utterance or text which link different parts of sentences or larger units of discourse". Therefore, we can see that even though different linguists have distinct definitions of this term they all concentrate on the fact that cohesion is the linguistic tool that links various parts of the text and make the plausible unity in that way.

While analysing the function of cohesion it is necessary to mention the concept of the term *tie* which is a relation between the cohesive device and the element which it presupposes. For instance (Halliday and Hasan, 2005: 2):

*Wash and core **six cooking apples**. Put **them** into a fireproof dish.*

The example above clearly reveals the cohesive relation between *six cooking apples* and *them* as both lexical items indicate the same thing. It is obvious that the pronoun *them* in the second sentence presupposes the meaning *six cooking apples* in the preceding sentence. Hence, there is a cohesive tie between these two elements and the two sentences form a unified whole. Consequently, a tie is the relational concept, however it may be also called directional one as the tie between cohesively related items is irregular (Halliday and Hasan, 2005: 329). The cohesive tie may deal with *exophora* where antecedent is found outside the text or *endophora* where antecedent is textual and which is further divided into *anaphora* and *cataphora* (ibid). Thus, the direction of cohesive tie may be anaphoric or cataphoric. Anaphoric relations look backwards for their interpretation (presupposing element follows the presupposed. The linguistic exponents of an anaphoric tie are the anaphor itself and the antecedent. The cataphoric relations look forwards where the interpretation of a given meaning depends on the existence in the succeeding linguistic context of an expression of the same meaning (Crystal, 2005: 20). Accordingly, the mentioned example deals with the anaphoric cohesion with its anaphor *them* and the antecedent *six cooking apples*.

Cohesion is a semantic relation. Thus, like all elements of the semantic system it is realized through the lexicogrammatical system. Consequently, cohesion is expressed partially through the grammar and partially through the vocabulary. Hence, we can distinguish grammatical and lexical cohesion (Halliday and Hasan, 2005). According to Taboada (2004: 160), the kinds of ties created by grammatical cohesion are all properties found in the grammar of the language. Furthermore, they are a part of cohesive relations only when they relate to another lexical item outside the clause they belong to. Grammatical cohesion which is expressed through the grammatical system and refers to the structural content is divided into the following types:

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                    ┌─────────────────┐
                    │  GRAMMATICAL    │
                    │    COHESION     │
                    └────────┬────────┘
         ┌────────────┬──────┴──────┬─────────────┐
┌──────────────┐ ┌──────────────┐ ┌──────────┐ ┌──────────────┐
│  REFERENCE   │ │ SUBSTITUTION │ │ ELLIPSIS │ │ CONJUNCTION  │
└──────────────┘ └──────────────┘ └──────────┘ └──────────────┘
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Figure 1. Grammatical cohesion according to Halliday and Hasan, 2005.

There are certain items in any language which cannot be interpreted semantically in their own right rather they make reference to something else within the text for their interpretation. This is called reference. To put it other way round, reference is a semantic relation between meanings. Reference, as it is noted by Halliday and Hasan (2005: 308-309), is the relation between the lexical items where one determines the interpretation of the other. The latter may be a personal pronoun, a demonstrative or a comparative expression (ibid, 37). The difference between substitution (replacement of one linguistic item by another) and reference is that the former is the relation in the wording whereas the latter deals with the relation in meaning. Meantime, ellipsis is a special case of substitution where one linguistic item is replaced by nothing/zero. Therefore, it can be perceived as an omission of an item (ibid, 142). Finally, conjunction describes words which link linguistic units such as clauses. They are such words as *and*, *but*, *therefore*, etc. (Beard, 2000: 118). Furthermore, it should be noted that reference, substitution and ellipsis are clearly grammatical since they hold such grammatical features as person, number, proximity, and degree of comparison, whereas conjunction is quite ambiguous as the set of conjunctive elements can be expressed both grammatically and lexically (Halliday and Hasan, 2005: 303-304).

As it has been mentioned before, lexical cohesion is a part of cohesive relations achieved by the selection of vocabulary. According to Halliday and Hasan (2005: 318-320), lexical cohesion is established through the structure of the lexis and embraces two distinct though related aspects:

1. Reiteration – the repetition of a lexical item, or the usage of synonym, in the context of reference. Such being the case, the two occurrences have the same referent.
2. Collocation – the tendency of certain lexical items to co-occur. As a consequence, a word is in some way associated with another word in the preceding text since they occur in the same lexical environment.

Thus, lexical cohesion is created by repetition (reiteration) of the same lexeme and it is a relation between lexical items which has a semantic aspect. In other words, lexical cohesion is determined by certain lexical elements which are related to the relevant preceding expressions through some prominent semantic relations. Furthermore, it can be expressed through synonymy, hyponymy, meronymy, and antonymy (Johnson and Johnson, 1999: 55-56).

Contrary to Halliday and Hasan, Valeika (1985: 73-102) distinguish four groups of cohesive devices:

1) grammatical (substitution, ellipsis, and word order);

2) lexico-grammatical (articles, pronouns, conjunctives, conjunctive adjectives, particles, modal words, quantifiers, nominalizations);

3) lexico-syntactic (periphrasis, parenthesis);

4) lexical cohesion (lexical repetition, synonyms, antonyms, general nouns, hyponyms, paronyms).

As can be seen, this classification identifies a greater number of cohesive tools and nominalization belongs to one of the relatively large group of them. Obviously, different kinds of genres include particular types of cohesive devices. For instance, conjunction is widely used in argumentative essays whereas certain literary pieces are full of lexical cohesion features. In addition, since politicians must be clear and succinct nominalization is frequently met in their speeches.

To sum up the main points presented in the discussion, cohesion is an important part of what makes a text whereas nominalization is just a small part of all the cohesives; however, it is a significant means contributing to the unity of the text and its cohesion. Therefore, in the following chapter the concept of the nominalization is defined and its role in the text is discussed.

II. THE NOMINALIZATION AS A COHESIVE DEVICE

2.1 The concept of nominalization

We can do many things with nouns in English: count, specify, describe, classify, and qualify them. These are all things we can not do with the other parts of clause, because we can just expand them but not add any more content. In much everyday language, participants are realized by noun groups, processes are realized by verb groups, and qualities are realized by adjective groups. However, these relationships can be reorganized so that processes and qualities are expressed by noun groups. Such a phenomenon is called nominalization (Lock, 1996: 63).

Nominalization has been widely analyzed by such linguists as Halliday (1994), Lock (1996), Martin (1991), Eggins (1994), Downing and Locke (2002), Banks (2003), Heyvaert (2003), Warnock (2003), Spencer (2005) to mention the most prominent ones. Therefore, a variety of theoretical attitudes is recognized. To quote Martin (1991), nominalization, a pervasive element of academic and particularly scientific texts, is the expression as a noun or noun phrase of meanings that might more typically be expressed in a verb, adjective, or a whole clause. Eggins (1994: 94) supports this idea saying that nominalization is a process turning things that are not normally nouns into nouns, with consequences for other parts of sentences. To use Warnock's expression (2003: 140), "every nominalization is holding a verb beneath the surface". Meantime, Spencer states that usually nominalization names either the event or the fact of the event happening (2005: 84). Thus, all the scholars who discuss the concept of nominalization agree that nominalization is a noun derived from another lexical category.

Different dictionaries and encyclopaedias give a great variety of definitions of the term nominalization too. According to *A Dictionary of Stylistics* (2001: 272), nominalization is a derivation of nouns from another part of speech. Similarly, Bussman in his book *Routledge Dictionary of Language and Linguistics* suggests the following definition of the concept of nominalization: "productive process of word formation through which words of all word classes can be used as nouns" (Bussman, 2001: 327). Trask in *A Dictionary of Grammatical Terms in Linguistics* (1992) defines nominalization as "a noun derived from a member of another lexical category, especially from a verb". Besides, it is added that nominalization can also refer to a noun phrase originated from another word class which is not a projection of the lexical category *Noun*, especially from a verb phrase or a sentence. Bearing in mind such assumptions on the phenomenon of nominalization, the conclusion could be drawn that the term nominalization is

used to describe both: a noun or a noun phrase that is derived from another lexical category and the process of noun formation.

As already pointed out, nominalization is the process that changes a verb into its noun form. The verb *discuss* becomes *discussion*, for instance, the verb *depend* becomes *dependence*, *recognize – recognition* etc. The noun forms often result in wordiness, stiffness or awkward constructions as the following example shows:

*I had the **knowledge** that my **speech** in Spanish was poor.*

*I **knew** very well that I **spoke** Spanish poorly.*

The first utterance is expressed with the help of nominalizations (*knowledge*, *speech*), while the second sentence puts the emphasis on verbs (*knew*, *spoke*).

Another aspect of nominalization, given by Ziff (1984: 25), is that nominals are the results of the linguistic process of nominalization. Due to this, they function as nouns in the text and take place in the same positions where nouns are found in the sentence. Therefore, syntactically speaking, nominalization is a quite simple and elaborate process at the same time.

In connection to what has been said above, nominalization, as noted by Thibault (1991: 282), accumulates meanings by classing processes as technical terms. That is why the extensive use of nominalization is a mean of "packing" the process-participant relations into a single grammatical entity. This assumption indicates that a high proportion of the lexical content of the text is encoded in these grammatical forms. Lock (1996: 60) supports this idea and claims that packing the content of clauses into noun groups is known as nominalization. Consider:

*Arthur now **has** a new car*

*Arthur's **possession** of a new car*

This is the simplest type of nominalization. However, any case in which a process is represented by a noun can be considered as nominalization. For instance, in the example above the noun *possession* is not related to the verb *has*. However, since the second expression represents as a noun the process of *having*, it can be regarded as nominalization. Apart from this the linguist Lock (ibid, 60) states that the representation of the process by a noun can make some other changes in the expression. Consider:

*I <u>strongly</u> **believe** in what we are doing*

*My <u>strong</u> **belief** in what we are doing*

In this example the adverb *strongly* has been changed to the adjective *strong*.

Special mention should be made of the fact that nominalization can represent not only a process but a quality as well. For instance the expression *they are **very tall*** can be reorganized

into a noun group such as *their **great height***. Here the noun *height* stands for not a process but a quality, which in the original clause acted as an adjective *tall* (ibid). Hence, this example proves that nominalization can be also derived from adjectives as well as the other classes of words.

Heyavert (2003: 41-42) asserts that nominalization has been widely discussed in literature; however, no systematic and coherent theoretical-descriptive approach of nominalization has been given. The linguist suggests that nominalizations should be viewed as constructions in their own right as they have been reclassified from non-nominal to nominal units. He adds that nominalizations encode ideational, interpersonal and textual meaning, and distinguishes three types of nominalizations (ibid, 49):

1. Nominalizations at the level of the word (e.g., *teacher, development*).
2. Nominalizations which nominalize a structure that lies in between a word and a full clause (e.g., *Tom's cleaning the table*).
3. Nominalizations which consist of a full clause (e.g., *that Tom cleaned the table*).

So, we can see that the process of nominalization involves not only a single word, but also a clause or a part of a sentence.

As already indicated, nominalization is a common linguistic feature which deals with the variation of the word class and lexical density of the discourse is highly used in the English language. However, as Langacker (1991: 22) indicates, nominalization is not only pervasive but theoretically significant too. Eggins (1994: 95-98) supports this idea by stating that despite the fact that a great usage of nominalizations can make the text sound pretentious and obscure, the main motive for nominalization is functional one as the nominalized text lets us do the things we can not do in the unnominalized writing. Firstly, nominalization allows us to deviate from dynamic and real-world sequencing which is common to spoken language. By nominalizing actions and logical relations we can organize the text rhetorically (not in terms of ourselves, but in terms of ideas, reasons, causes etc.). Secondly, nominalization plays a big role of packing in a more lexical content per sentence. By turning verbs and other parts of speech into nouns, we increase the possible content of our text and upsurge its lexical density in this way. Written language usually has a much higher rate of content carrying words than spoken text. Therefore, this ability of nominalization to condense meaning is a very important phenomenon of scientific discourse.

Weiss (2005: 33) argues that nominalizations[3] are typical of legal documents, political press conferences, social sciences, and all other discourses in which the aim is to make ordinary commentary look more like scientific or technical reporting. However, he states that there are people who use nominalization incessantly and this can cause perplexing impression to the reader or listener. Consequently, some parts of the text can become inexplicit and ambiguous due to a high rate of nominalizations. Thus, linguists analyze many aspects of the usage of nominalization. One of these is the approach of the linguist Lock (1996: 61), who proposes the main advantages of nominalizations in the scientific language:

1. Nominalized language deals with the conciseness. Packing information into a noun group leaves the rest of the clause available for adding new information.

2. It is much easier and practical to start a clause or a sentence with a noun group rather than with a verb group.

3. Nominalization is an implement which helps scientists to treat processes as if they were things. It reflects science's concern with categorizing, labelling, and describing phenomena and is a crucial thing in scientific discourse.

Bearing in mind that our focus is on verb-based nominalizations, we should specify the main methods that can be used to form a noun from a verb. According to Banks (2003: 129), there are many different ways of creating nationalized forms of processes, but not necessarily all these ways are available for a particular verb. Thus, he distinguishes three basic types of options to nominalize a verb:

1. Nominalizations which are morphological identical with the agnate verb (e.g. *estimate*, *change*, *haul*).

2. Nominalizations which have no agnate verb, but which still point out a process (e.g. *trend*, *occasion*).

3. Nominalizations which have an agnate verb, but are not morphologically identical (e.g. *growth*, *translation*, *occurrence*).

It is worth mentioning that the third type of nominalization, which is formed from a verb, but is not morphologically alike, is made by adding different suffixes and is the most common form of derivation in the English language. Such suffixes are added to verbs in order to form verb-based nominalizations[4]:

- -age (e.g. to pass → passage);

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[3] Accoding, to Weiss (2005: 33), sometimes they can even be called "smothered verbs".
[4] More information about the suffixation of the verb-based nominalization is presented in the chapter 5.1.

- -al (e.g. to remove → removal);
- -ance/ -ence (e.g. to assist → assistance; to exist → existence);
- -er/-or (e.g. to read → reader);
- -(e)ry (e.g. to discover → discovery);
- -ion/ -sion/ -tion/ -ation (e.g. to confess → confession; to identify → identification);
- -ing (e.g. to walk → walking);
- -ment (e.g. to excite → excitement);
- -sis (e.g. to analyze → analysis);
- -th (e.g. to grow → growth);
- -ure (e.g. to fail → failure).

Unlike the other linguists, Moltman (2006) looks at the question of nominalization from a different angle. He reveals the intriguing philosophically ambiguous nature of nominalization since it helps to form singular terms that seem to refer to rather abstract or derived object that typically is often considered to be controversial. Ritchie (2007: 363) claims that there are three standard views about the semantics of nominalization. Firstly, it marks basic meaning onto object. Secondly, it refers to implicit argument. To put it other way, nominalization does not add anything new but collects items that would be present in any event in the semantic structure of a corresponding sentence without a nominalization. Finally, nominalization suggests new objects on the basis of their compositional semantics. In this case nominalization creates new object and enhances the ontology referring to the meaning of expression. Accordingly, Moltman (2006) argues that there is the fourth category of nominalization which needs a quite different handling. This kind of nominalization produces a new object; however, it characterizes it only partially and mostly refers to event or trope (as cited in Ritchie, 2007: 363).

Another criterion, according to which the phenomenon of nominalization could be discussed, is its role in the sentence. In accordance with Sušinskienė (2009), nominalizations are one of the lexico-grammatical ways of linking up sentences when they form a cohesive tie with its source. Mostly it is due to language economy. "The absence of an explicit verbal source is interpreted by the reader as a device of economy: the missing verbal source is restored in thought whenever the text is read" (ibid). This quotation claims that nominalization is perceived as a cohesive element which helps to reduce the text. Similarly, Biber (1988) clarifies the property of nominalization as reflecting referential explicitness which is generally related to precise writing but also with prepared spoken texts such as lectures and speeches (as cited in Aarts and

McMahon, 2006: 672). Thus, it is right to state that nominalization plays an important role in the cohesion and overall textual structure of political speeches.

In conclusion it can be noted that nominalization (i.e. forming a noun from a word belonging to another word class), is a usual phenomenon in written texts. Moreover, the use of nominalization is based on the employment of longer noun groups. Apparently, it helps to reduce the text and achieve information density, which is crucial in written discourse and political speeches. Having reviewed the concept of nominalization it is worth to take a deeper look into nominalization as the form of grammatical metaphor which is discussed in the following part of the present study.

2.2 Nominalization as the form of grammatical metaphor

Scientific views of the linguist Halliday on the subject of nominalization are very significant as he was one of the first scholars who saw the process of nominalization from a different perspective. According to Halliday (1985), a nominalization is the consequence of the metaphorization of the process. Processes are congruently encoded as verbs; when they are encoded as something else, such as nouns, it becomes a non-congruent form which constitutes a grammatical metaphor. Thus, nominalization is an instance of what Halliday (ibid) calls grammatical metaphor.

Downing and Locke (2002: 147-148) argue that any situation can be expressed in more than one way; the first or typical realization may be called the 'congruent' one; the other, or others – the 'metaphorical'. The latter is the place where grammatical metaphor flourishes effectively. Consider:

*We **walked** in the evening along the river to Henley.*

*Our evening **walk** a long the river took us to Henley.*

The first example is the 'typical' or 'congruent' version[5], while the second sentence shows the metaphorical interpretation of the first utterance. The material process *walk* has now become an agent. "<…> in the congruent form, the process is mapped onto the Predicate; in the non-congruent form, it is turned into a participant and, consequently, it can perform other semantic functions" (Sušinskienė, 2004: 78). Thus, the second interpretation is the example of grammatical metaphor or, to put in Downing's and Locke's terms (2002: 147-148), an alternative

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[5] According to Downing and Locke (2002: 147-148), it may be also called a lexico-grammatical realization.

realization of semantic functions, which occurs all the time, in different degrees, in adult language, especially in particular written texts.

While treating nominalization as a grammatical metaphor, it is necessary to clarify how a grammatical metaphor differs from a simple metaphor. In tradition literary criticism, metaphor is a figure of speech in which one thing is described in terms of another that is not usually associated with it, e.g. *a man is a lion* (Cuddon and Preston, 1998: 507). Meantime, grammatical metaphor is a part of lexical morphology (i.e. nominalization) and deals with the meaning construed in a different way by means of a different grammatical construction, e.g. *the brakes failed = brake failure*[6], when the verb *failed* becomes the noun *failure*.

A great usage of metaphorical realizations increases lexical density since the nominal groups evolve into long and heavy expressions. This is the reason why nominalization is the form of grammatical metaphor regularly perceived under various labels. For example, when a verb is nominalized, what we have is an 'event' or 'happening'. Thus, such a process as *translate* can be seen as en entity *translation*, which can function as all nominals. The fact that languages abound in nouns such as these shows that grammatical metaphor is a very important alternative in the presenting of information (Downing and Locke, 2002: 152).

Grammatical metaphor is a characteristic feature mostly of the written English. According to Kies (1995)[7], it occurs quite commonly in all types of written English, from the informal varieties to the formal ones met in scientific and technical discourses. It is created through the grammatical process of 'derivation' when a verb or an adjective is converted into a noun, mostly by adding an ending to the verb or adjective.

To conclude this part, grammatical metaphor, the substitution of one grammatical class or structure for another, is a form of nominalization frequently met in scientific discourse which has been identified and analysed by the linguist Halliday (1985, 1994).

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[6] *Grammatical Metaphor*. Available from http://folk.uio.no/hhasselg/systemic/metaphor.htm. Accessed on 13 March, 2011.

[7] Kies, 1995. *Modern English Grammar*. Available from http://papyr.com/hypertextbooks/grammar/style3.htm. Accessed on 28 March, 2010.

III. THE PHENOMENON OF POLITICAL DISCOURSE

Every thought hinges on language. People must engage words and grammar to communicate and reveal their ideas, feelings, emotions, i.e. a particular discourse must be used. Evidently, political discourse is not an exception.

Before starting to analyze the phenomenon of political discourse, we should define what is meant by the concept discourse. The term *discourse* has been frequently met in many different subjects: critical theory, sociology, linguistics, philosophy, psychology and lots of other fields. However, it is usually left undefined due to its wide range of signification (Mills, 2004: 1). Scholars working in these diverse disciplines tend to concentrate on the different aspects of discourse. Thus, the concept of discourse is the matter of heated discussion, and since it has evolved into one of the most essential terms in the vocabulary of the humanities and the social sciences, it is not astonishing that it is a controversial notion.[8]

Linguists have different perception of the term discourse as well. Firstly, according to Brown and Yule (2003: 1), the function of a certain text can be a distinguishing feature of diverse discourses. Secondly, for such theorists as Sinclair, Carter and Simpson it is "an extended piece of text, which has some form of internal organization, coherence or cohesion", while for others the phenomenon of the particular expressions in a text plays a big role (for instance, the discourse of religion, advertising, etc.) (as cited in Mills, 2004: 8). Therefore, it is an indisputable fact that there are various kinds of discourses in communication. In addition, each of it has its own features and particular vocabulary which hinges on its type. However, the peculiarities of political discourse are of primary importance in the present study.

Political discourse has been described as "a complex study of human activity" (Chilton and Shäffner, 2002: 207). Thus, language is a vital part of politics. According to Schäffner (1996), language plays an important role in the process of manifesting a political will, since any political action deals with it. The study of political discourse covers a broad range of subject matters: "bilateral and multilateral treaties, speeches made during electioneering campaign or at debate, editorial or commentaries in newspapers, a press conference with the politician or a politician's memoirs" (Schäffner, 1996: 202).

The nature of the term political discourse is reflexive and possibly questionable. The term is suggestive of at least two theories: first, discourse which is itself political, and second, a study

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[8] *Mcllveny, P.* Available from http://diskurs.hum.aau.dk/english/discourse.htm. Accessed on 15 April, 2010.

of political discourse as simply an example discourse type, without explicit reference to political content or political context (Tannen et al, 2005: 398). According to *Webster's Dictionary*[9], political discourse is "the formal exchange of reasoned views as to which of several alternative courses of action should be taken to solve a societal problem". Mihas (2005: 126) states that political discourse has to do with the narrative interpretation of events and ideas which determines criteria and contexts for comparing and evaluating political systems. The material of political narratives alters to a great extent; however, they follow certain standard trajectories, including the recounting of events in the form of retrospections and predictions. Whereas Crystal (2003) argues that the language of politicians, especially when they are speaking in public, is an interesting mixture of old and new: it displays much of ritual phraseology and consciousness of precedent which we associate with religion or law; and it makes use of many of the rhetorical and dramatic techniques which we associate with advertising or the media. Van Dijk (2001) characterizes political discourse not just as genre, but as a class of genres defined by social domain, namely that of politics. Thus, government deliberations, parliamentary debates, party programs, and speeches by politicians are among the many genres that belong to the domain of politics and have fuzzy boundaries. This means that an informal conversation of a politician is not seen as a political discourse: the discourse must be produced by the speaker in his/her professional role of a politician and in an institutional setting. To put it other way round, we may claim that discourse is political when it accomplishes a political act in a political institution, such as governing, legislation, electoral campaigning, etc.

Beard (2000: 2) focuses his attention on the people who use political discourse. The linguist emphasizes that it is essential to perceive the language of politics as an occupation because it helps us to realize how language is used by those who wish to gain, exercise and keep power. Consequently, he reasons that "analyzing the language of a political text, therefore, it is important to look at the way the language reflects the ideological position of those who have created it, and how the ideological position of the readers will affect their response too" (ibid, 18). Thus, it can be stated that political discourse has a clear and central purpose which is revealed through its influential and instructive language.

Schäffner (1996: 202) states that a political text can be defined according to its functional and thematic criteria. She distinguishes several characteristic features of political discourse.

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[9] *Dictionary and Thesaurus: Merriam-Webster online*. Availabe from http://www.merriam-webster.com. Accessed on 2 May, 2011.

Firstly, political texts are a part of and/or the result of politics. Secondly, they are based on particular function which they have to perform due to various political activities. Thirdly, their topics are primarily connected to politics, i.e. political ideas, beliefs, movements, relations, etc. Finally, the language of politics usually is dedicated to a wider community. To add, Schäffner (ibid) underlines that it is difficult to separate political language from language that is political since "In linguistic literature political language has been used to either denote the use of language in the context of politics, i.e. a specific language use with the purpose of achieving a specific politically motivated function, or it has been to denote the specific political vocabulary, i.e. words and phrases that refer to extralinguistic phenomena in the domain of politics".

Politics like all fields of social activity has its own specific language and special purposes of using it. Johnson and Johnson (1999: 206) distinguish four main purposes of the usage of political discourse. They are the following: 1) to elucidate citizens' awareness of the issue, 2) to help citizens reach their best reasoned judgment as to which course of action will solve a problem, 3) to motivate citizens' involvement in the political procedures, and finally 4) to prepare the next generation to take part in social activities.

In connection to what has been mentioned, it is important to discuss political speeches which belong to a specific sub-genre of political texts. The speeches of politicians play a crucial role in realizing political values, ideas, and political acts. Making speeches is a significant part of the politician's role in announcing policy and persuading people to accept it. Cockcroft and Cockcroft (1992) define *rhetoric* as "the art of persuasive discourse" referring to both spoken and written communication. Beard (2000: 35) argues that although *rhetoric* deals with all kinds of communication, this word is commonly used to denote the genre of speech and even more specifically a particular kind of formal public speaking. Hence, the rhetorical skills, needed for persuasive public speaking, have always been a vital factor of the speeches of politicians. Due to this, politicians use the particular persuasive devices that make their speeches compelling, clear and succinct. Needless to say, the effectiveness of political speeches strongly depends on the speaker's intonation, stress patterns as well as pauses he/she makes; however, special vocabulary and the structure of lexicon are non the less crucial. And this is where nominalization as a micro-structural item of the political discourse comes into view.

It can be summarized, that political discourse deals with the special language choice which is employed for a certain political effect. Consequently, it must be clear, consistent as well as compelling at the same time. To add, this is often aided by the usage of nominalization.

IV. METHODOLOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The analysis is based on the verb-based nominalizations drawn from *100 top speeches of American rhetoric*. The top 100 speeches is a significant database of full text transcriptions of the 100 most important American political speeches produced during the 20th century. It is created according to a list compiled by professors Stephen E. Lucas and Martin J. Medhurst. The list reveals the opinions of 137 leading scholars of American public address as they were asked to propose speeches on the basis of social and political impact, and rhetorical artistry. For the analysis 16 speeches were taken at random regardless their topic or the time they were delivered: Barbara Charline Jordan (1976); Lyndon Baines Johnson (1963); John F. Kennedy (1961); Franklin Delano Roosevelt (1933); Hilary Rodham Clinton (1995); Douglas MacArthur (1962); Russell Conwell (1900-1925); Ronald Reagan (1964); Carrie Chapman Catt (1916); Martin Luther King, Jr. (1963); Barbara Bush (1990); Spiro Theodore Agnew (1969); Eleanor Roosevelt (1948); Mary Fisher (1992); Shirley Anita St. Hill Chisholm (1970); Barry Goldwater (1964).

The research consists of 2 main parts. Firstly, by means of descriptive method, 971 verb-based nominalizations were identified and classified according to their formation and semantic roles. The formation of nominalizations were grouped into material suffixation with suffixes: *-age* (e.g. *heritage*), *-al* (e.g. *proposal*), *-ance/-ence* (e.g. *assitance*), *-er/-or* (e.g. *performer*), *-ery* (e.g. *recovery*), *-ing* (e.g. *planning*), *-ion/-sion/-tion/-ation* (e.g. *discrimination*), *-ment* (e.g. *movement*), *-sis* (e.g. *emphasis*), *-th* (e.g. *birth*), and *-ure* (e.g. *pressure*), zero suffixation (e.g. *call*) and other cases of derivation (e.g. *choice*). Furthermore, *Macmillan English Dictionary* (2007) was used to check the nominalizations with zero suffixation. If a verb was indicated the first in the dictionary then the conclusion was made that the nominalization was derived from the source verb and this example was included in the corpus under the investigation, otherwise, the word was not used with the implication that it was not the verb-based nominalization. Having done this, according to their meanings the nominalizations were grouped into 7 semantic groups: *result*, *process*, *state*, *agent*, *profession*, *object*, and *fact of something*. Secondly, the transformational method was employed to reveal the relationship between the underlying proposition (i.e. the source verb) and the respective nominalization. Finally, by means of statistical method the incidence of the features of nominalizations revealed by the analysis was shown. The descriptive analyses of the data (tables using a spreadsheet program MCExcel) were depicted within the frequency distribution.

Having observed the methodology of the study, the following section will investigate the verb-based nominalizations found in the present research.

V. NOMINALIZATION AS A COHESIVE DEVICE IN POLITICAL DISCOURSE

The focus of this chapter is on the suffixation and textual functions of the verb-based nominalizations. First, an attempt will be made to analyze the derivation of verb-based nominalizations and the semantic groups they denote. In what follows, the contribution of nominalizations to the cohesion of the political discourse will be discussed. To substantiate the research some of the collected examples are provided.

5.1 The formation of verb-based nominalizations

Bauer establishes two reasons of word-formation. Firstly, it functions as a lexical enrichment when a new word is created in order to denote new concepts, and, secondly, it serves a transpositional function, whereby lexemes are allowed to appear in a new word class so that the same meaning can be transferred to a new function in a sentence (as cited in Aertsen et al., 2004: 283). Accordingly, the derivation of a new word deals with both the morphological changes and the new semantic group it denotes.

Marchand who has made a big contribution to the theory of word-formation has been very influential in this field. With respect to the semantic properties of suffixes, Marchand (1969: 215) argues that "unlike a free morpheme, suffix has not meaning in itself". However, it acquires its meaning only when it is combined with the base word which it transfers and forms a class of words with the same semantic basis. Thus, it does not name a semantic class, but barely implies it. To add, the linguist explains that we do not appear to be able to distinguish the various existing nominalization suffixes semantically since we can not assign any meaning of nominalizations as a class to one of the suffixes (ibid, 287). Similarly, Chomsky (1970: 83) points out that the forms of English nominalizations are unpredictable and that the semantics of English nominalizations is neither regular nor constrained by the particular suffix or other morphological process used to create the nominalization. According to Stone et al. (eds.), adding a suffix can change a meaning of the word or its role in a sentence. To add, the semantic content of suffixes carries grammatical

information too. Some suffixes have relatively concrete meanings. For instance, the suffix *-ment* usually means *result* or *process* as it is in the word *enjoyment* (the result of joy), whereas the suffix *-tion* in the word *production* adds both semantic (the state or condition of) and grammatical information that marks the word as a noun. However, usually suffixes have meanings that are quite abstract (2004: 319-328).

The Lithuanian linguist Jakaitienė (1980: 28) states that in the current linguistics lexis is viewed as a system in which each word has its place according to its relations with the other words. Consequently, the meanings of words, as the certain parts of semantic system, are not isolated from each other. Moreover, she believes (1988: 30) that the semantics of the word is one of the most interesting and most complex scientific challenges of our time. There are many different aspects of the word meaning that are complementary, criticizing, or even denying each other. The concept of semantic group is understood and defined differently even by the scholars who focus on the same linguistic investigations. Thus, to establish a universally acceptable concept of the semantic group is particularly difficult. As a consequence, nominalizations formed with the same suffix may denote different semantic groups. In the present research seven semantic groups of the nominalizations are distinguished: *result*, *process*, *state*, *agent*, *profession*, *object*, and *fact of something*.

There is a rather wide range of morphological kinds which are used to encode nominalized processes and reveal their meanings. The nominalizations used in the corpus were derived in three ways: 1) by the use of 'material' suffixes, 2) by the use of 'zero' suffixes (conversion) and 3) by the use of other cases of derivation.

5.1.1 Material suffixation

The addition of the suffix to the verb is the most frequent resource used to form the nominalization. The most general definition of suffix has been given by Marchand (1969: 209): "a suffix is a bound morpheme which in syntagma AB occupies the position B"[10] (as cited in Grafe, 2001: 3). In addition, the suffix may not only change the word class but it may also function as a categorizing means which is able to transpose words from one semantic class to another. Thus, the nominalizations serve the function of condensing information and at the same

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[10] The "syntagma AB" stands for "the derived word AB" consisting of the lexical root or stem A and the suffix B (Grafe, 2001: 3).

time they refer to a particular semantic group. The following part of the research paper contains suffixations ending in: *-age*, *-al*, *-ance/-ence*, *-er/-or*, *-ery*, *-ing*, *-ion/-sion/-tion/-ation*, *-ment*, *-sis*, *-th*, and *-ure*.

5.1.1.1 Suffix -age

Suffix ***-age*** was used to form nouns that denoted:

- result of something;
- process.

RESULT OF SOMETHING

(1) *If we do not, we not only blaspheme our political **heritage**, we ignore the common ties that bind all Americans* (Barbara Charline Jordan, 1976 Democratic National Convention Keynote Address, delivered July 12, 1976, New York).

PROCESS

(2) *First, no memorial oration or eulogy could more eloquently honor President Kennedy's memory than the earliest possible **passage** of the Civil Rights Bill for which he fought so long* (Lyndon Baines Johnson, "Let Us Continue", delivered November 27, 1963, Washington, DC.).

5.1.1.2 Suffix -al

Suffix ***-al*** was used to form abstract nouns denoting 'fact of' (the last phase of the process):

(3) *Let both sides, for the first time, formulate serious and precise **proposals** for the inspection and control of arms, and bring the absolute power to destroy other nations under the absolute control of all nations* (John F. Kennedy, Inaugural Address, delivered January 20, 1961, Washington, DC.).

5.1.1.3 Suffix -ance/-ence

The nominalizations formed by means of the suffix ***-ance/-ence*** denoted:

- state or quality/condition;
- process;
- result of an action.

STATE

(4) *We will carry on the fight against poverty, and misery, and disease, and **ignorance**, in other lands and in our own* (Lyndon Baines Johnson, "Let Us Continue", delivered November 27, 1963, Washington, DC.).

PROCESS

(5) *These, my friends, are the lines of attack. I shall presently urge upon a new Congress in special session detailed measures for their fulfillment, and I shall seek the immediate **assistance** of the 48 States* (Franklin Delano Roosevelt, First Inaugural Address, delivered March 4, 1933, Washington, DC.).

RESULT

(6) *The great challenge of this conference is to give voice to women everywhere whose **experiences** go unnoticed, whose words go unheard* (Hilary Rodham Clinton, "Women's Rights Are Human Rights", delivered September 5, 1995, Beijing).

5.1.1.4 Suffix -er/-or

Suffix ***-er/-or*** was added to verbs to form nouns showing:

- agent (person who performs an action – the doer);
- profession.

AGENT

(7) *The **unbelievers** will say they are but words, but a slogan, but a flamboyant phrase* (Douglas MacArthur, Thayer Award Acceptance Address, delivered 12 May 1962, West Point, N.Y.).

PROFESSION

(8) *No town officer ever took any notice of me before I went to war, except to advise the **teacher** to thrash me, and now I was invited up on the stand with the town officers* (Russell Conwell, "Acres of Diamonds", delivered over 5000 times at various times and places from 1900-1925).

5.1.1.5 Suffix -(e)ry

The suffix ***-(e)ry*** was generally used with nominalizations denoting the result of the process. Consider:

(9) *It is the strongest assurance that **recovery** will endure* (Franklin Delano Roosevelt, First Inaugural Address, delivered March 4, 1933, Washington, DC.).

5.1.1.6 Suffix -ing

Suffix ***-ing*** was added to the verbs to form nouns showing:

- process;
- result of something;
- state.

PROCESS

(10) *I have met new mothers in Indonesia, who come together regularly in their village to discuss nutrition, family **planning**, and baby care* (Hilary Rodham Clinton, "Women's Rights Are Human Rights", delivered September 5, 1995, Beijing).

RESULT

(11) *They've just declared Rice County, Kansas, a depressed area. Rice County, Kansas, has two hundred oil wells, and the 14,000 people there have over 30 million dollars on deposit in personal **savings** in their banks* (Ronald Reagan, "A Time for Choosing", delivered October 27, 1964, Los Angeles, CA).

STATE

(12) *Continue to work with the faith that unearned **suffering** is redemptive* (Martin Luther King, Jr., "I Have A Dream", delivered August 28, 1963, the Lincoln Memorial, Washington, D.C.).

5.1.1.7 Suffix -ion/-sion/-tion/-ation

The nominalizations in ***-ion/-sion/-tion/-ation*** denoted:

- state;
- process;
- result of the process.

STATE

(13) *As long as **discrimination** and inequities remain so commonplace everywhere in the world, as long as girls and women are valued less, fed less, fed last, overworked, underpaid, not schooled, subjected to violence in and outside their homes the potential of the human family to create a peaceful, prosperous world will not be realized* (Hilary

Rodham Clinton, "Women's Rights Are Human Rights", delivered September 5, 1995, Beijing).

PROCESS

(14) *These great national problems are not for your professional **participation** or military solution* (Douglas MacArthur, Thayer Award Acceptance Address, delivered 12 May 1962, West Point, N.Y.).

RESULT OF THE PROCESS

(15) *We have so many people who can't see a fat man standing beside a thin one without coming to **the conclusion** the fat man got that way by taking advantage of the thin one* (Ronald Reagan, "A Time for Choosing", delivered October 27, 1964, Los Angeles, CA).

5.1.1.8 Suffix -ment

Suffix ***-ment*** was used to create nouns which referred to:

- process;
- result of an action;
- object of an action;
- agent of an action.

PROCESS

(16) *To them, **the movement** has been a steady, normal growth from the beginning and must so continue until the end* (Carrie Chapman Catt, "The Crisis", delivered September 7, 1916, Atlantic City, N.Y.).

RESULT

(17) *He belongs to the present, to us, by his virtues and by his **achievements*** (Douglas MacArthur, Thayer Award Acceptance Address, delivered 12 May 1962, West Point, N.Y.).

OBJECT OF AN ACTION

(18) *Conspicuous **advertisements** invite women to attend agricultural, milking and motorcar schools* (Carrie Chapman Catt, "The Crisis", delivered September 7, 1916, Atlantic City, N.Y.).

AGENT

(19) ***The government** said it was necessary as a warning to others to make the system work* (Ronald Reagan, "A Time for Choosing", delivered October 27, 1964, Los Angeles, CA).

5.1.1.9 Suffix -sis

Only one nominalization with **-sis** was found in the present study and it denoted the process. Consider:

(20) *Our Constitution is so simple, so practical that it is possible always to meet extraordinary needs by changes in **emphasis** and arrangement without loss of essential form* (Franklin Delano Roosevelt, First Inaugural Address, delivered March 4, 1933, Washington, DC.).

5.1.1.10 Suffix -th

Nominalizations formed by means of the suffix **-th** generally denoted process and result of it. Consider respectively:

PROCESS

(21) *To them, the movement has been a steady, normal **growth** from the beginning and must so continue until the end* (Carrie Chapman Catt, "The Crisis", delivered September 7, 1916, Atlantic City, N.Y.).

RESULT OF AN ACTION

(22) *At this very moment, as we sit here, women around the world are giving **birth**, raising children, cooking meals, washing clothes, cleaning houses, planting crops, working on assembly lines, running companies, and running countries* (Hilary Rodham Clinton, "Women's Rights Are Human Rights", delivered September 5, 1995, Beijing).

5.1.1.11 Suffix -ure

Similar to the previous case, the suffix **-ure** was used with nominalizations denoting process and result:
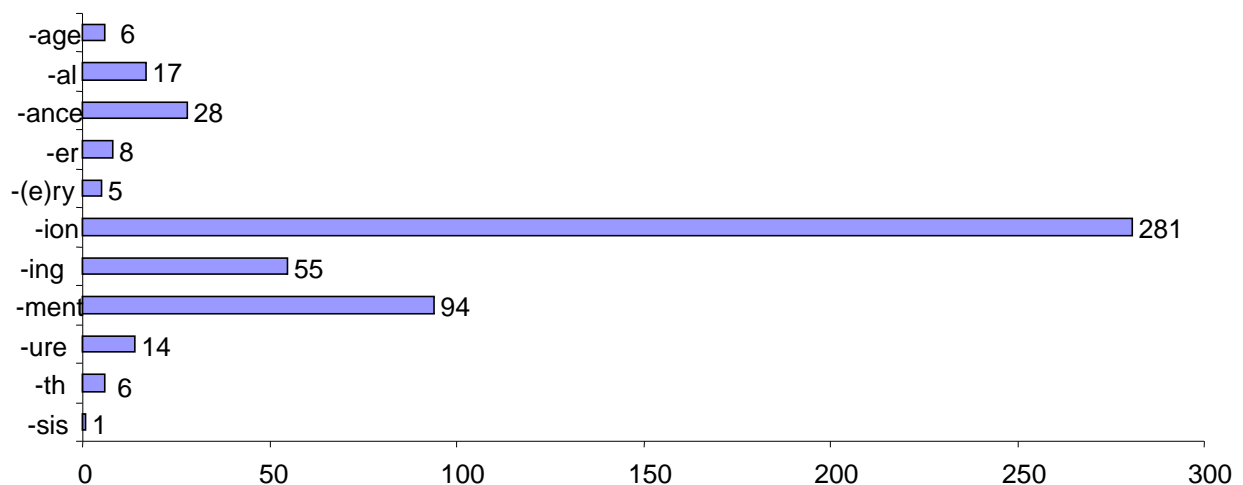
PROCESS

(23) *He has told them that we're retreating under the **pressure** of the Cold War, and someday when the time comes to deliver the final ultimatum, our surrender will be voluntary, because by that time we will have been weakened from within spiritually, morally, and economically* (Ronald Reagan, "A Time for Choosing", delivered October 27, 1964, Los Angeles, CA).

RESULT OF AN ACTION

(24) *And yet our distress comes from no **failure of substance*** (Franklin Delano Roosevelt, First Inaugural Address, delivered March 4, 1933, Washington DC.).

Hence, there are many kinds of suffixes that can be used to form the verb-based nominalization. The suffixes which formed the verb-based nominalizations in the present study demonstrated different frequency of occurrence. The relative frequency is presented below:

```
-age   ▮ 6
 -al   ▮ 17
-ance  ▮ 28
 -er   ▮ 8
-(e)ry ▮ 5
-ion   ▮ 281
-ing   ▮ 55
-ment  ▮ 94
-ure   ▮ 14
 -th   ▮ 6
-sis   ▮ 1

       0     50    100   150   200   250   300
```

Figure 2. The relative frequency of the suffixes forming the verb-based nominalizations in the present research.

The relative frequency of suffixes in the Figure above shows that in a corpus of 515 material nominalizations the suffix *-ion/-sion/-tion/-ation* (281 tokens) was the most frequent in the present research. Other relatively frequent suffixes were *-ment* (94 tokens), *-ing* (55 tokens), and *-ance/-ence* (28 tokens). A small number of verb-based derivations were with the suffixes *-ure* (14 tokens) and *-al* (17 tokens), and *-th* (6 tokens), *-er/-or* (8 tokens). Finally, among the least frequent suffixes were *-age* (6 tokens), *-ery* (5 tokens), and *-sis* (only 1 token). They supplied the minimal number of verb-based nominalizations.

5.1.2 Zero suffixation

There are many verbs in English that belong to more than one lexical category and can be used directly as nouns without the addition of a derivational suffix. To put it other way round, the word changes its function without changing its form. In linguistics, it is called conversion (Balteiro, 2007: 20). Marchand (1969) is one of the first linguists to employ the concept of zero morpheme to depict those cases that are semantically related and formally similar but belong to

different parts of speech. According to Marchand (1969: 359) zero derivation is "the use of a word as a determinant in a syntagma whose determinatum is not expressed in phonic form but understood to be present in content, thanks to an association with other syntagmas where the element of content has its counterpart on the plane of phonic expression" (as cited in Balteiro, 2007: 37). Meantime, according to Ginzburg (1979: 127), conversion, which is a great number of cases of words forms sharing the phonetic identity and belonging to different parts of speech, is one of the productive ways of forming words in Modern English. Thus, zero derivation is frequently met in deriving nominalizations from verbs in the English language. This may be illustrated with the following examples:

(25) *This is **our hope**, and this is the faith that I go back to the South with* (Martin Luther King, Jr., "I Have A Dream", delivered August 28, 1963, the Lincoln Memorial, Washington, D.C.).

(26) *I have met women in South Africa who helped lead **the struggle** to end apartheid and are now helping to build a new democracy* (Hilary Rodham Clinton, "Women's Rights Are Human Rights", delivered September 5, 1995, Beijing).

(27) *Speaking to you today, I speak for them, just as each of us speaks for women around the world who are denied the chance to go to school, or see a doctor, or own property, or have **a say** about the direction of their lives, simply because they are women* (Hilary Rodham Clinton, "Women's Rights Are Human Rights", delivered September 5, 1995, Beijing).

As can be seen from the examples, the highlighted lexical items can function as verbs and can be used to encode nominalized process (i.e. function as nominalizations) since they do not change their orthographic form: *to hope – our hope, to struggle – the struggle, to say – a say*.

Similar to material suffixations, zero suffix nominalizations mainly fall into three groups: nominalizations denoting state, process and result of the process. Consider respectively:

STATE

(28) *In his youth and strength, **his love** and loyalty, he gave all that mortality can give* (Douglas MacArthur, Thayer Award Acceptance Address, delivered 12 May 1962, West Point, N.Y.).

RESULT

(29) *And I am convinced that you will again give **that support** to leadership in these critical days* (Franklin Delano Roosevelt, First Inaugural Address, delivered March 4, 1933, Washington DC.).

(30) *If we are to seize the victory, **that change** must take place in this hall, here and now!*

(Carrie Chapman Catt, "The Crisis", delivered September 7, 1916, Atlantic City, N.Y.).

To sum up, the English language has many words that can function as a verb and a noun without any morphological change. To add, very often such words are the instances of the verb-based nominalizations.

5.1.3 Other cases of derivation

The derivation of nominalization includes one more category with a small number of cases when nominalizations are formed causing some other changes to its source verb. To demonstrate these internal spelling alterations, the following examples have been chosen:

(31) *Now I know your first **choice** today was Alice Walker guess how I know!* (Barbara Bush, Commencement Address at Wellesley College, delivered June 1, 1990, Wallesley, Massachusetts).

(32) *Philanthropy, charity, work for corrective laws of various kinds, temperance, **relief** for working women and numberless similar public services have called them* (Carrie Chapman Catt, "The Crisis", delivered September 7, 1916, Atlantic City, N.Y.).

Both examples include the nominalizations derived from verbs. The main difference is that in these cases there is no suffix added, however, the orthographic form alters. Thus, here we deal with some spelling changes: *to choose* becomes *choice* wherea*s to relieve* changes into *relief*. Such nominalizations found in the corpus denoted state, result and process. Consider:

STATE

(33) *And yet the same revolutionary **beliefs** for which our forebears fought are still at issue around the globe the **belief** that the rights of man come not from the generosity of the state, but from the hand of God* (John F. Kennedy, Inaugural Address, delivered January 20, 1961, Washington, DC.).

RESULT

(34) *This nation has experienced a profound shock, and in this critical moment, it is our duty, yours and mine, as the Government of the United States, to do away with uncertainty and doubt and delay, and to show that we are capable of decisive action; that from the brutal **loss** of our leader we will derive not weakness, but strength; that we can and will act and act now* (Lyndon Baines Johnson, "Let Us Continue", delivered November 27, 1963, Washington, DC.).

PROCESS

(35) *We will demonstrate anew that the strong can be just in the use of strength, and the just can be strong in **the defense** of justice* (Lyndon Baines Johnson, "Let Us Continue", delivered November 27, 1963, Washington, DC).

The usage of material, zero and other cases of derivation to form verb-based nominalizations in the corpus under investigation is presented below:
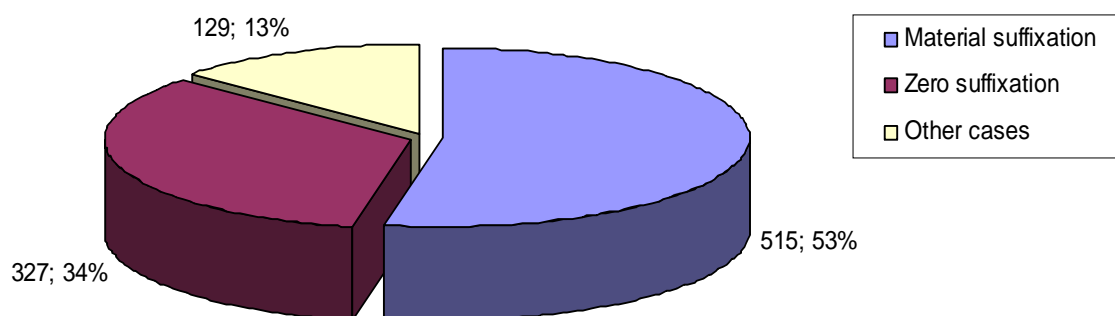
Figure 3. The relative frequency of material, zero and other cases nominalizations.

The Figure presented above indicates that material suffixation was the most frequent in a corpus of all 971 nominalizations. It accounted for 53 per cent (515 tokens). Zero suffixation was also commonly used (34 per cent / 327 tokens). Notice, that the nominalizations derived by other cases were the least productive (13 per cent / 129 tokens).

Various suffixes are added to verbs and thus form the verb-based nominalizations. Moreover, they give a certain meaning to the newly derived noun. The relative frequency of semantic groups of all verb-based nominalizations found in the present research is presented below:
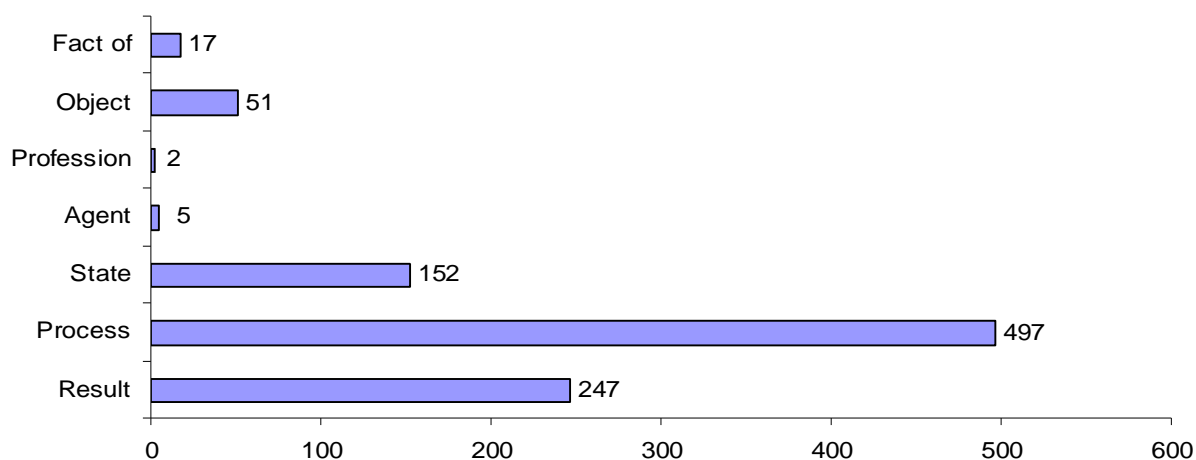
Figure 4. The relative frequency of semantic groups the verb-based nominalizations referred to.

As it is evident from the Figure above, derivations denoting 'process' and 'result of the process' dominated over the other groups. Out of 971 examples that were collected, the former accounted for 51 per cent (497 tokens), whereas the latter accounted for 25 per cent (245 tokens). The verb-based nominalizations referring to 'state' (16 per cent / 152 tokens) were also frequent in the corpus under investigation, while the semantic groups of 'profession' (2 tokens) and 'collective entity' (2 tokens) were the least frequent. Both of them accounted for less than 1 per cent.
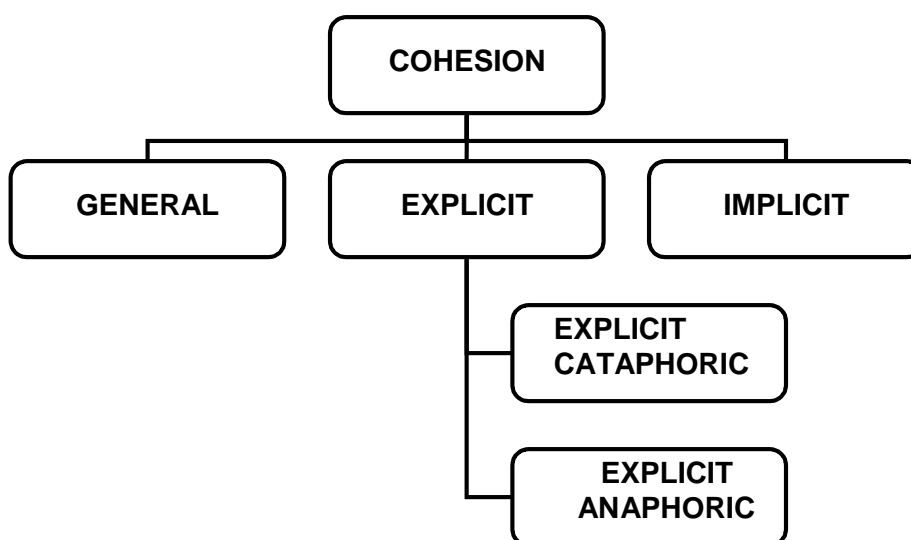
It can be summarized that there are several ways of forming verb-based nominalization from which the adding of the suffix is the most frequently met. To add, every nominalization can be ascribed to a particular semantic group it refers to. Since verb-based nominalization is formed from the verb it is not surprising that nominalizations denoting 'process' are dominating.

5.2 Textual functions of nominalizations

Recent developments in the field of nominalization have led to a renewed interest in the role the nominalization plays in the cohesion of the text. Thus, the nominalization functions both as a language economy and cohesive device. The textual function considers the way the text is constructed as a coherent whole and can be examined through investigating the "thematic progression, the cohesiveness of the text, particularly the ways in which reasoning is expressed, and the overall structure of the text" (Morgan, 1996: 7). Therefore, textual functions of the nominalization deal with its ability to create long utterances or pieces of writing which are both cohesive and coherent.

5.2.1 Explicit nominalizations

A cohesive text is achieved in many various ways and nominalization belongs to one of the categories of cohesive devices. To be more precise, nominalization is a lexico-grammatical means of cohesion. The examples of verb-based nominalizations found in the speeches of politicians can be divided into several types of cohesion they belong to:

```
                         ┌─────────────┐
                         │  COHESION   │
                         └──────┬──────┘
          ┌─────────────────────┼─────────────────────┐
   ┌──────────────┐      ┌──────────────┐      ┌──────────────┐
   │   GENERAL    │      │   EXPLICIT   │      │   IMPLICIT   │
   └──────────────┘      └──────┬───────┘      └──────────────┘
                                │
                         ┌──────────────┐
                         │   EXPLICIT   │
                         │  CATAPHORIC  │
                         └──────────────┘
                         ┌──────────────┐
                         │   EXPLICIT   │
                         │  ANAPHORIC   │
                         └──────────────┘
```

Figure 5. Types of cohesion distinguished in the corpus under investigation.

The Figure 5 suggests that nominalizations used in the corpus presented free main categories: general, explicit and implicit. Generally, both explicit and implicit cohesion are based on the ways in which the meanings of lexical items are tied in a semantic relationship to each other. The interpretation of these items is found by reference to some other item, or source, within or outside the text (Paltridge, 2006: 130). Similarly, according to Halliday and Hasan (2005: 4), cohesion deals with the interpretation of some lexical item in the discourse which is dependent on another element Thus, one presupposes the other which can not be productively encoded without the resource to it. In the event of cohesion, these two elements (the presupposing and the presupposed) generally are integrated into a text. Obviously, nominalization may function on the same principle when both the nominalization and its explicit source i.e. respective underlying proposition lie in the text. Here we deal with explicit cohesion. In the case of explicit cohesion, the nominalization is preceded or followed by the respective proposition. The following example is presented to illustrate the usage of explicit nominalization. Consider:

> (36) *As an example, I remember what a friend said, on hearing her husband complain to his buddies that he had <u>to babysit</u>. Quickly setting him straight, my friend told her husband that when it's your own kids, it's not called **babysitting*** (Barbara Bush, Commencement Address at Wellesley College, delivered June 1, 1990, Wellesley, Masachusetts).

The sentences of the above text are integrated as the connection between them is achieved through meaning, the process of *babysitting*, which in the text-opening sentence is expressed by the infinite form *to babysit* and in the text-developing sentence is expressed by the

nominalization of the verb *babysit, babysitting*. Thus, this text is a proper example of the way nominalization produces a connected text. Consider one more example:

> (37) *Now every American has a right to <u>disagree</u> with the President of the United States and to express publicly that **disagreement*** (Spiro Theodore Agnew, "Television News Coverage", delivered November 13, 1969, Des Moines, Iowa).

The relationship is established through the meaning of *disagreeing* and the connection between the nominalization and its respective underlying proposition. The word *disagreement* reveals the nominalization of the preceding proposition *to disagree*. Such a combination "serves like a bridge between the propositions. In other words, it establishes a semantic link between them: part of the meaning of the preceding proposition is 'implanted' in the succeeding proposition" (Valeika and Buitkienė, 2004: 56, as cited in Sušinskienė, 2006: 141).

> Moreover, the position of the nominalization may vary. Consider:

> (38) *It is **interference** in other countries that especially stirs up antagonism against the Soviet Government. <...>. We do not <u>interfere</u> with them and they should not <u>interfere</u> with others* (Eleanor Roosevelt, "The struggle for Human Rights", delivered September 28, 1948, Paris, France).

The example presented above is again a clear illustration of mutually connected sentences sharing the same meaning, the process of *interfering*. However, unsimilar to the previous examples, the text-opening sentence holds the nominalization of the verb *interfere*, *interference*, whereas the finite form *interfere* (the respective underlying proposition) lies in the text developing sentence. Thus, the difference between these two instances deals with the position of the nominalization in the text. Consequently, we need to discuss both explicit anaphoric and explicit cataphoric cohesion.

5.2.1.1 Explicit anaphoric cohesion

Explicit cohesion always goes with the respective underlying proposition, and it can be divided into explicit anaphoric cohesion and explicit cataphoric cohesion. If a presupposing element follows the presupposed the cohesion relation is anaphoric. *Oxford Dictionary* (1999) suggests the following definition of the concept anaphora: "the use of a word referring back to a word used earlier in a text or conversation, to avoid repetition". Similarly, to quote Botley and McEnery (2000: 5), "within text linguistics, anaphora can be defined generally as a phenomenon where the interpretation of a given meaning depends on the existence in the preceding linguistic

context of an expression of the same meaning". In order to reveal how the verb-based nominalizations contribute to explicit anaphoric cohesion the following examples have been chosen. Consider:

(39) *It's true, sometimes we've <u>laughed</u> through our tears, but that shared **laughter** has been one of our strongest bonds* (Barbara Bush, Commencement Address at Wellesley College, delivered June 1, 1990, Wellesley, Massachusetts).

(40) *Primarily, this is because the rulers of the exchange of mankind's goods have <u>failed,</u> through their own stubbornness and their own incompetence, have admitted their **failure,** and have abdicated* (Franklin Delano Roosevelt, First Inaugural Address, delivered March 4, 1933, Washington, DC.).

As can be seen from the examples above, the linguistic exponents of an anaphoric tie are the anaphors themselves (the nominalizations *laughter*, *failure*) and the antecedents (the respective underlying propositions *laughed*, *failed*). Moreover, nominalization functions as a cohesive device pointing back to what has been mentioned in the text earlier.

What is presupposed anaphorically may be in the same sentence, in the sentence immediately preceding or it may be in some earlier sentence. Consider the following examples respectively:

The nominalization and its proposition lie in the same sentence:

(41) *It has been <u>proposed</u> that a large poll tax be assessed upon the voters of the new lists, whereupon a secondary **proposal** of great force has been offered and that is, that twice as much money would find its way into the public coffers were women added to the voters' list* (Carrie Chapman Catt, "The Crisis", delivered September 7, 1916, Atlantic City, N.Y.).

The source verb occurs in the immediately preceding sentence:

(42) *The American who relies upon television for his news might <u>conclude</u> that the majority of American students are embittered radicals; that the majority of black Americans feel no regard for their country; that violence and lawlessness are the rule rather than the exception on the American campus. We know that none of **these conclusions** is true* (Spiro Theodore Agnew, "Television News Coverage", delivered November 13, 1969, Des Moines, Iowa).

The respective underlying proposition occurs in some earlier sentence:

(43)*They would not put it that way they would say that the people in the U.S.S.R. <u>control</u> their government by allowing their government to have certain absolute rights. We, on the other hand, feel that certain rights can never be granted to the government, but must be kept in the hands of the people. For instance, the U.S.S.R. will assert that their press is free because the state makes it free by providing the machinery, the paper, and even the money for salaries for the people who work on the paper. They state that there is no* ***control*** *over what is printed in the various papers that they subsidize in this manner, such, for instance, as a trade-union paper* (Eleanor Roosevelt, "The struggle for Human Rights", delivered September 28, 1948, Paris, France).

Thus, we can draw a conclusion that it does not make any difference if the underlying proposition lies in the same sentence or it is mentioned in some earlier sentence. It is evident from the examples presented above that the anaphoric function of the presupposing elements (the nominalizations *proposal*, *conclusions*, *control*) gives cohesion to the sentences, so that we interpret them as a whole, hence, they constitute a coherent text and express the continuity that exists between these sentences.

5.2.1.2 Explicit cataphoric cohesion

So far we have examined cohesion as an anaphoric relation, with a nominalization presupposing its source verb that has gone before it. But the presupposition may also go in the opposite direction, with the presupposed element (the congruent form) following. Such referring ahead is called cataphora and to put in Botley and McEnery's (2005: 5) terms – "forward dependency". According to Donnelly (1994: 100), cataphora is widely used in works of fiction where it creates dramatic effect and suspense which draws the reader's attention and keeps him/her waiting. However, cataphoric cohesion dealing with pointing to something later in the text was quite frequent in the speeches of politicians' too. Consider:

(44)*We are here to join* ***the meetings*** *of this great international Assembly which <u>meets</u> in your beautiful capital of Paris* (Eleanor Roosevelt, "The struggle for Human Rights", delivered September 28, 1948, Paris, France).

The explicit cataphoric cohesion is achieved through meaning, the process of *meeting* which is revealed with the nominalization *the meetings* and the following proposition expressed by the infinite form *meets*.

Similar to anaphoric cohesion, what is presupposed cataphorically may be in the same sentence, in the sentence immediately following or it may be in some further sentence. Consider the following examples respectively:

The nominalization and its congruent form are in the same sentence:

(45) *My 84yearold father, who has pursued **the healing** of the nations, will not accept the premise that he cannot <u>heal</u> his daughter* (Mary Fisher, Speech to the Republican National Convention "A Whisper of AIDS", delivered August 19, 1992, Houston, TX.).

The respective underlying proposition occurs in the immediately following sentence:

(46) *If we are to believe a recent report of the House of Representative Commerce Committee, then television's **presentation** of the violence in the streets worked an injustice on the reputation of the Chicago police. According to the committee findings, one network in particular <u>presented</u>, and I quote, "a one-sided picture which in large measure exonerates the demonstrators and protestors"* (Spiro Theodore Agnew, "Television News Coverage", delivered November 13, 1969, Des Moines, Iowa).

The respective underlying proposition occurs in some further sentence:

(47) *And second, no act of ours could more fittingly continue the work of President Kennedy than the early **passage** of the tax bill for which he fought all this long year. This is a bill designed to increase our national income and Federal revenues, and to provide insurance against recession. That bill, if <u>passed</u> without delay, means more security for those now working, more jobs for those now without them, and more incentive for our economy* (Lyndon Baines Johnson, "Let Us Continue", delivered November 27, 1963, Washington, DC.).

Hence, the examples above present a clear illustration of the way how the nominalization and its respective proposition produce a connected text regardless the distance between them.

To finalize, all the examples of explicit anaphoric and explicit cataphoric cohesion demonstrate that this category of cohesion ties sentences (or parts of the sentence) and links information with the help of nominalization pointing back or forward to its proposition found in the text. Thus, the semantic tie is established which makes the text easy to understand. In the Figure below, consider the relative frequency of both types of explicit cohesion:

32; 48%   ☐ Explicit anaphoric cohesion   ■ Explicit cataphoric cohesion   35; 52%
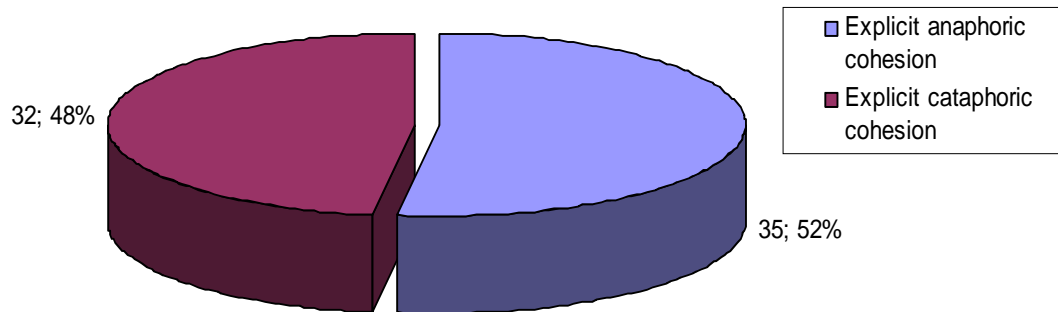
Figure 6. The relative frequency of explicit anaphoric and explicit cataphoric cohesion.

The frequency of explicit anaphoric and explicit cataphoric nominalizations was almost the same in the examined speeches. In the corpus that included 67 explicit nominalizations, the former accounted for 52 per cent (35 tokens) and the latter accounted for 48 per cent (32 tokens).

5.2.2 Implicit nominalizations

It is interesting as well as important to observe that, unsimilar to explicit cohesion, there could be no respective underlying proposition (i.e. the congruent form) found in the text. It means that due to language economy and restrictions of time the politician does not use the proposition and focuses on its product only since the meaning of nominalization can be conceived clearly without the source verb. Consider the following examples which show the usage of implicit nominalizations:

(48) *Now, one side in this campaign has been telling us that the issues of this election are the **maintenance** of peace and prosperity* (Ronald Reagan, "A Time for Choosing", delivered October 27, 1964, Los Angeles, CA).

As Halliday and Hasan (2005: 18) note, this kind of cohesion, when the information necessary for encoding the presupposing item is not found in the text, may be called exophora since it takes us outside the text. Thus, it does not link two elements together into a plausible unity; however it refers to the environment in which the speech is taking place i.e. to the context of situation. Thus, "the hearer or reader constructs a context of situation in order to supply it for himself" (ibid). For instance:

(49) *Meanwhile, back in the city, under urban **renewal** the assault on freedom carries on* (Ronald Reagan, "A Time for Choosing", delivered October 27, 1964, Los Angeles, CA).

(50) *These are not Republican **accusations*** (Ronald Reagan, "A Time for Choosing", delivered October 27, 1964, Los Angeles, CA).

40

Sometimes the same sentence may contain more than one implicit nominalization. Consider:

(51) *No words are strong enough to express our **determination** to continue the forward **thrust** of America that he began* (Lyndon Baines Johnson, "Let Us Continue", delivered November 27, 1963, Washington, DC.).

(52) *And I am certain that on this day my fellow Americans expect that on **my induction** into the Presidency, I will address them with a candor and **a decision** which the present **situation** of our people impels* (Franklin Delano Roosevelt, First Inaugural Address, delivered March 4, 1933, Washington, DC.).

Nominalizations used as cohesive devices of implicit cohesion are very frequently met in the speeches of politicians as the greatest economy is achieved when nominalization occurs without its source. Obviously, it saves their time and lets the speaker abbreviate the text. However, the main disadvantage of such texts is that they are more semantically ambiguous, thus, their interpretation is more puzzling; however, the absence of the source verb can not be seen as a cohesive gap in the text. The meaning of such nominalizations is unbounded by the context and the reader or listener establishes the cohesive link automatically.

Notice, that some of the sentences may include both explicit and implicit nominalizations. Consider the following example:

(53) *Those who seek to <u>live</u> your **lives** for you, to take your liberties in **return** for relieving you of yours, those who elevate the state and downgrade the citizen must see ultimately a world in which earthly power can be substituted for Divine Will, and this Nation was founded upon the **rejection** of that notion and upon the **acceptance** of God as the author of freedom* (Barry Goldwater, Speech Accepting the Republican Presidential Nomination, delivered July 16, 1964, San Francisco).

As can be seen in the example quoted above, the same sentence contains explicit anaphoric cohesion expressed by the process of *living* which is realized with the nominalization *lives* and its antecedent *live* as well as three implicit nominalizations: *return*, *rejection*, and *acceptance*.

The results of the frequency of the nominalizations with explicit underlying propositions and nominalizations with implicit underlying propositions are provided in the figure below:

67; 7%

901; 93%

Legend: ☐ Implicit cohesion ☐ Explicit cohesion
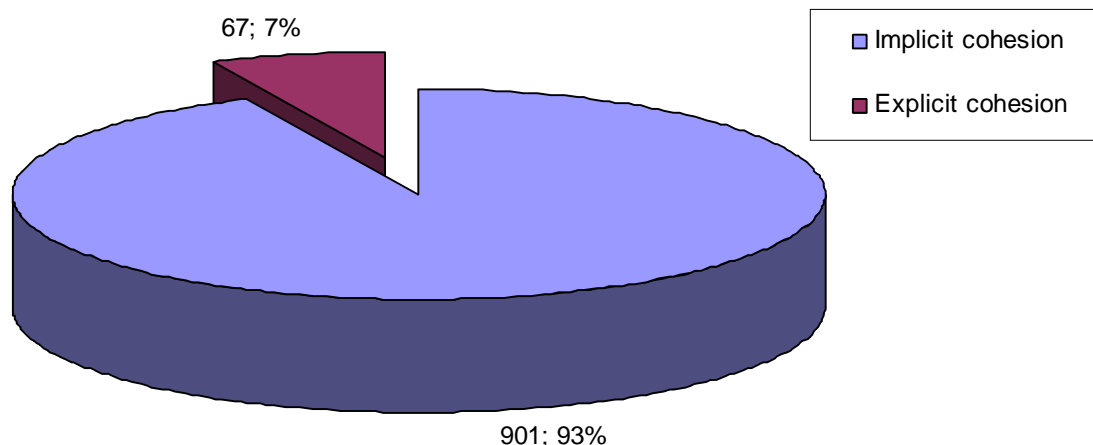
Figure 7. The relative frequency of verb-based nominalizations occurring in implicit and explicit cohesion.

The Figure 7 suggests that the frequency of explicit cohesion was much lower as compared to implicit cohesion. In the corpus of 968 nominalizations, they accounted for 7 per cent (67 tokens) and 93 per cent (901 tokens) respectively. Thus, the analysis of the corpus has demonstrated that the use of nominalizations without their respective underlying proposition was found to be much more common.

5.2.3 General cohesion

General cohesion was quite different from the other cohesive relations. In the event of general cohesion, the nominalization occurred in the title of the speech while the respective underlying proposition was found somewhere in the following text. In this case the nominalization did not connect two sentences; however, it contributed to the unity of the text. To add, general cohesion was the rarest type of cohesive relations based on the usage of verb-based nominalizations. Only three cases of it were found in the corpus under investigation, consider:

(54) *For the Equal Rights **Amendment***

State labor laws applying only to women, such as those limiting hours of work and weights to be lifted would become inoperative unless the legislature <u>amended</u> them to apply to men (Shirley Anita St. Hill Chisholm, "For the Equal Rights Amendment", delivered August 10, 1970, Washington, DC.).

The title of the speech includes the nominalization *amendment* while its source verb *amended* lies in the speech, whereas the word *struggle* which occurs in the title of the following example presents the nominalization of the succeeding proposition *have struggle*. Consider:

(55) *"The **Struggle** for Human Rights"*

We know the patterns of totalitarianism the single political party, the control of schools, press, radio, the arts, the sciences, and the church to support autocratic authority; these are the age-old patterns against which men <u>have struggled</u> for three thousand years (Eleanor Roosevelt, "The struggle for Human Rights", delivered September 28, 1948, Paris, France).

Finally, the last instance of the general cohesion was the most intriguing. In this case, the respective underlying proposition *to whisper* was found in the last sentence of the speech:

(56) *1992 Republican National Convention Address*

*"A **Whisper** of AIDS"*

Then, their children and yours may not need <u>to whisper</u> it at all (Mary Fisher, Speech to the Republican National Convention "A Whisper of AIDS", delivered August 19, 1992, Houston, TX.).

Hence, Mary Fisher with her speech wanted to warn people about the menace of AIDS which is revealed metaphorically in the title of the address. However, only at the end of her speech Fisher repeated the word *whisper* which was used as the verb this time.

All things considered, the textual function concerns with the ways in which languages construct messages and texts. As it has been revealed in previous chapters, well-formed texts must display a property of cohesion. The analyzed examples have disclosed that the nominalization fits into this function as a linguistic mean by which the text is constructed as a semantically coherent entity. The verb-based nominalizations used explicitly created semantic dependency between one item in the speech and another whereas the implicit use of nominalization let the politician save his/her time.

CONCLUSIONS

Political discourse must be clear, accurate, and consistent. Thus, it should be written in a coherent and economical way with the appropriate choice of grammar and vocabulary. Nominalization is the important part of political language that allows the politicians to categorize, label and describe phenomena efficiently and, whereby, contributes to the cohesion of their speeches by linking the text elements into a plausible unity.

The conclusions presented below are the confirmation of the objectives formulated on pages 3-4: (1) to present the theoretical material concerning the phenomenon of cohesion, nominalization and political discourse; (2) to make the inventory of verb-based nominalizations found in the politicians' speeches; (3) to classify the selected examples according to the suffixation of the nominalizations and indicate their semantic groups; (4) to analyze the textual functions of the nominalizations.

(1) The first part of the research paper provides the theoretical grounding of cohesion, nominalization, and political discourse. Recently, researchers have shown an increasing interest in the phenomenon of cohesion. Cohesion is an important feature of linguistic system which holds the text together and gives its meaning. Furthermore, nominalization, which is the process that changes a verb into its noun form, e.g. *discuss – discussion*, *depend – dependence*, *develop – development*, etc., belongs to the group of lexico-grammatical cohesive devices and, thus, connects separate parts of the text.

(2) The inventory of the verb-based nominalizations has been drawn. There are 971 examples of verb-based nominalizations selected from *100 Top Speeches of American Rhetoric*.

(3) The selected examples were classified according to such suffixes: *-age* (e.g. *passage*), *-al* (e.g. *refusal*), *-ance/-ence* (e.g. *ignorance*), *-er/-or* (e.g. *teacher*), *-ery* (e.g. *recovery*), *-ing* (e.g. *saving*), *-ion/-sion/-tion/-ation* (e.g. *participation*), *-ment* (e.g. *treatment*), *-sis* (e.g. *emphasis*), *-th* (e.g. *growth*), and *-ure* (e.g. *failure*). According to the productivity of each suffix, the verb-based nominalizations ending in *-ion/-sion/-tion/-ation* were the most prominent, they accounted for 55 per cent (281 tokens) out of 515 material nominalizations. Other relatively frequent suffixes forming the verb-based nominalizations were *-ment* (18 per cent / 94 tokens), *-ing* (11 per cent / 55 tokens), and -

ance/-ence (5 per cent / 28 tokens). The nominalizations ending in -*ery* (5 tokens), and -*sis* (1 token) were the least productive.

Having classified all the examples the following meanings (semantic groups) of verb-based nominalizations have been drawn: *fact of*, *object*, *profession*, *agent*, *state, process, and result*. The greatest part of verb-based nominalizations found in the present research referred to 'process' or 'result'. The former accounted for 51 per cent (497 tokens) and the latter accounted for 25 per cent (247 tokens) out of all 971 examples. Nominalizations denoting 'agent' (5 tokens) and 'profession' (2 tokens) were the least frequent.

(4) Being a part of lexico-grammatical cohesive devices the verb-based nominalizations participated in three types of cohesion: general, implicit, and explicit. Predominantly, in order to maintain language economy the politician did not use the underlying proposition and concentrated on its product only. Such an implicit use of nominalization was more common than the use of explicit cohesion when the respective underlying proposition was included in the text. The former accounted for 93 per cent whereas the latter accounted only for 7 per cent. In addition, the explicit cohesion was divided into the explicit anaphoric cohesion (the antecedent went before the nominalization) and the explicit cataphoric (the underlying proposition occurred after the nominal word). The percentage of the anaphoric and cataphoric cohesion was very similar (52 per cent and 48 per cent respectively). In the event of general cohesion, nominalization occurred in the title of the speech whereas the source verb lied somewhere in the text. Only three examples of general cohesion were found in the present study.

A conclusion could be drawn that nominalization is a ubiquitous linguistic phenomenon in political discourse. The examples under analysis have shown that the common use of nominalization not only makes the discourse more precise and objective but also achieves fluency of the text. Thus, nominalization is just a small part of cohesives; however, it is an influential cohesive device which plays a significant role in political discourse where due to the restrictions of time politicians' speeches must be succinct and coherent. Finally, having analyzed nominalization as a cohesive device it can be noted that nominalization should be brought forward in future analysis of linguistic research.

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