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**SEMANTIC FUNCTIONS OF GERUNDIVE AND NON-
GERUNDIVE NOMINALIZATIONS IN HISTORY
DISCOURSE**

BACHELOR THESIS

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INTRODUCTION

History, as the social science, is the study of the past of the humanity. The social science of history is a specific field where the scholars use a special narrative to examine and to analyze the sequence of past events that are somehow related to the human race. To create a consistent and coherent narrative in history discourse special words and word phrases are used. And this is where nominalization as a micro-structural item of the discourse of history comes into view. Moreover, nominalizations help to reach impersonality, which is one of the fundamental features of history discourse.

The basic definition of nominalization is a noun derived from other word groups such as verbs, adjectives or other nouns. However, taking a deeper look one finds that the term nominalization is used to describe both, the process of noun formation from other word groups by means of derivation, and the result of noun derivation.

The subject of the present study is confined to semantic functions of gerundive and non-gerundive nominalizations in history discourse.

The aim of our research is to analyze the inherent semantic functions of gerundive and non-gerundive nominalizations in history discourse.

To achieve this aim the following **objectives** have been set:

1. to present theoretical material about gerundive and non-gerundive nominalizations;
2. to discuss the peculiarities of history discourse;
3. to classify the collected examples according to their type, i.e. gerundive and non-gerundive and to discuss briefly the process types related to these types of nominalizations;
4. to analyze the collected examples of gerundive and non-gerundive nominalizations according to their semantic functions;
5. to present statistical data of the obtained results and to draw inferences.

In accordance with the objectives the following working **hypothesis** has been formed:

1. Gerundive nominalizations in history discourse have the same inherent semantic functions as the non-gerundive nominalizations.

Relevance of the work. In linguistics, there are quite a number of linguists who explored the notion of nominalization, namely, Colen (1984), Heyvaert et al. (2005), McArthur (1998), Malchukov (2006), Grefenstette and Teufel (1995), etc. The Lithuanian linguist Sušinskienė (2008) has also analyzed nominalizations. Gerundive nominalizations, on the other

hand, have been analyzed by such linguists as Siegel (1997), Heyvaert (2008). However, gerundive and non-gerundive nominalizations in history discourse have not been widely analyzed. Thus, the novelty of our research is the analysis of the semantic functions of gerundive and non-gerundive nominalizations in history discourse.

The following **methods** of investigation have been applied¹:

1. Descriptive-theoretical literary analysis provided a possibility to review theoretical data concerning the phenomenon of nominalization and to define the main differences of gerundive and non-gerundive nominalizations.
2. The method of critical discourse analysis was applied in order to describe the peculiarities of history discourse.
3. Statistical method helped us to systematize and to generalize the obtained results.

The scope of our investigation is to collect 600 examples of gerundive and non-gerundive nominalizations in history discourse and to analyze them according to their semantic functions.

The structure of the present paper includes the following parts: introduction, the main part, which consists of theoretical and empirical parts, conclusions, and a list of references and sources.

The introduction presents the peculiarities of history discourse and introduces briefly the phenomenon of nominalization. Also the subject, the aim and the objectives of the research are introduced.

In the main part of the present study the progress of the research and the results are organized into several sections. Each section is divided into additional subsections. The first section is the theoretical review of nominalization in which the theoretical material about gerundive and non-gerundive nominalizations is provided. Another section analyzes the phenomenon of gerund. The third section deals with gerundive and non-gerundive nominalizations and their main differences. In the fourth section are the process types related to gerundive and non-gerundive nominalizations investigated. The fifth section provides information about the peculiarities of history discourse. In the sixth section some theoretical material about the inherent semantic functions is presented. The empirical part of our work starts from the eighth section in which the semantic functions of gerundive and non-gerundive nominalizations are analyzed.

In the conclusions section the results of the research are summarized and also it is explained.

¹ For more information on methods see section *VII. INTRODUCTORY REMARCS ON INHERENT SEMANTIC FUNCTIONS*, p.24.

In the sections of references and sources are the materials that were used to write the present paper introduced.

We presume that the data collected in our research could be useful for students conducting research in functional grammar of the English language.

Below is the review of theoretical background necessary for the study presented.

I. THEORETICAL REVIEW OF NOMINALIZATION

Nominalization, as a micro-structural element plays an important role in text. Nominalizations are used in many types of discourse, such as scientific discourse, political discourse, history discourse, etc. This is done for various reasons. To cite Grefenstette and Teufel (1995:98), “nominalizations are used for a variety of stylistic reasons: to avoid repetitions of a verb, to avoid awkward intransitive uses of transitive verbs, in technical descriptions where passive is commonly used, etc.” Moreover, we should add that nominalizations are also used in order to make the text more formal.

The aim of this part of our research is to provide some general assumptions on the phenomenon of nominalization. Furthermore, in another part of our work the transformation of nominalizations will be described. Lastly, bearing in mind the efficiency of nominalization, the main functions of nominalizations will be discussed briefly.

1.1. General assumptions on nominalization

To begin with, in Dictionary of Grammatical Terms in Linguistics (2003:183), nominalization is defined as “a noun derived from a member of another lexical category, especially from a verb”. Hence, the definition shows that the term *nominalization* is used to refer to the product of noun derivation from a word belonging to other word-class. A more specific definition of nominalization is provided in Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics (2006:314), where one may find that the term *nominalization* is used to name the process of noun formation when the noun is formed from a word that belongs to any other class of words, i.e. from verbs, adjectives, adverbs and other nouns or noun phrases. For example, the nominalization *knowledge* is derived from the verb *to know*, *happiness* is derived from the adjective *happy*. To cite Grefenstette and Teufel (1995:98), “the process of nominalization ejects a verb from its syntactic role into a nominal position”. This means that when nominalized, a verb loses its verbal function within a clause or a sentence and acquires nominal function. However, the linguists (ibid.p.98) note that the nominalized verb preserves some of its thematic roles.

Reference to Oxford Dictionary of English Grammar (1996:259) shows that nominalization can be labeled as “a noun or a noun phrase derived from, or corresponding to another part of speech or clause <...>.” So, as we see from this definition, the process of nominalization can be applied not only to a single word, but also to a clause or a part of a sentence. Moreover, we must add that the term *nominalization* is used to describe the

transformation of a main clause into a noun phrase. To put it other way round, the underlying clause can be transformed into a noun phrase, i.e. it can be turned into a word or a group of words that operate like nouns in a sentence.

According to Key Concepts in Language and Linguistics (2005:204), the term *nominalization* is used to define “any grammatical unit which behaves like a noun or a noun phrase but which is built up from something different”. Bearing in mind this fact, we could state that *nominalization* is a word that is derived from some other word and which, within a clause or a sentence, functions as a noun or a noun phrase. A simple example of a nominalization can be the noun *agreement* that is formed from the verb *to agree* by adding the suffix *-ment*. Notwithstanding, in the English language there can be found various elaborate types of nominalizations. We should point out that the English language allows “adjectives to be nominalized only in limited circumstances” (ibid.p.205). E.g.: *The good always win*. In this case the adjective *good* is nominalized into the noun *the good* (people). Furthermore, an entire sentence can quite easily be turned into a noun phrase because of the process of nominalization.

Taking into consideration the fact that the process of nominalization may be applied to single words, word groups and also to clauses or parts of sentences, two types of nominalizations can be distinguished according to their formation. The first type comprises a part of a clause or the whole clause from which a new noun is derived. And another type is at word level, i.e. a new noun is formed from a single word. For example, the word *departure* is derived from the verb *to depart*. Heyveart (2003:7), states that there are several types of nominalizations, namely, nominalizations that are formed from a simple verb stem, nominalizations that are based on “an atemporal clausal head (e.g.: *signing the contract*) and nominalizations which are centred on finite clauses”(ibid.p.7). Thus, the type of nominalization depends on a word or a clause it is derived from.

Consequently, the phenomenon of nominalization may be seen either as the product of noun formation from words belonging to other word-classes such as from verbs, adjectives or nouns and from clauses or even sentences or as the productive process of noun formation from other words.

1.1.1. The derivation of nominalizations

The English language is one of the most productive languages and due to its flexible nature, as stated by Bartolome and Cabrera (2005), in order to create new lexicon, it may be subjected to various processes of word formation, which, according to the linguists, are “much lexicalised - such as derivation or compounding”. In this part nominalization is considered as the process of noun derivation.

As we have already discussed, nominalization is the process of noun formation from words belonging to other word-classes. We should point out that the term *nominalization* itself is the result of noun derivation, i.e. it is derived from the verb *to nominalize* by adding the suffix *-tion*. The term *derivation* in Routledge Dictionary of Language and Linguistics (1998:120) is defined as “process and result of word formation in which new words are created from already existing words through various processes”. In other words, in the English language, derivation is the process through which new words are formed by attaching a certain affix, usually a suffix or a prefix, to the base of an already existing word. In Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics (2006:314) such affix is termed as *nominalizer*.

Research by Klijūnaitė (2000:37) shows that there are three methods that can be used in word derivation: “1) affixation, including prefixation and suffixation; 2) conversion and 3) compounding”. It is worth mentioning that the most common form of derivation in the English language is by means of affixation, i.e. the process of word formation when a certain affix is added to the word root in order to create a new word (Oxford Dictionary of English Grammar, 1996:16). This type of process also includes suffixation and prefixation. Furthermore, we should specify that for the process of noun derivation the first method proposed by the linguist is used, i.e. the method of affixation (including suffixation and prefixation). Bearing in mind that our focus is on verb-based nominalizations with the suffix *-ing*, we should mention that the suffix *-ing* is the main indicator of a noun made from a verb. For example, let us take the *verb to dance* and add the suffix *-ing* to it. As a result we will get the verbal noun *dancing*.

II. THE PHENOMENON OF GERUND

Before starting to analyze the phenomenon of gerund, we should define what is meant by the term *gerund*. Hence, the simplest definition of a gerund could be that a gerund is the *-ing* form of a verb, which acts as a noun within a sentence (Dictionary of Grammatical Terms in Linguistics, 2003:118). But let us take a deeper look into the definition of this term. In linguistics the term *gerund* is used to describe various non-finite verb forms in various languages. If turning to Concise Oxford Dictionary of Linguistics (1997:145), one might find that in the Latin language gerund is defined as the nominal form of a verb. Accordingly, in other languages the term *gerund* is available for defining verb forms with a noun like role. In Oxford Companion to the English Language (1996:402), it is stated that in the English language the term *gerund* is used to refer to a word with the ending *-ing*. For example, the noun **living** is a gerund, because it is derived from the verb *to live* by adding the ending *-ing*.

Moreover, in the English language the term gerund is used to label a noun form that might be defined as a verb's action noun. To put it other way round, in the English language the term *gerund* is used to name a noun, which expresses an action. For example, the English noun *fighting* is traditionally a gerund in ***Fighting*** *used to be fun*, as opposed to the participle, which also has the ending *-ing*, but has a different syntactic role, as in people fighting (Concise Oxford Dictionary of Linguistics, 1997:145). Hence, gerund is a verb form that within a sentence or a clause functions as a noun. In addition, as indicated in Dictionary of Grammatical Terms in Linguistics (2003:118), some analysts are minded to restrict the gerund only to the *-ing* forms where a verb keeps the ability to assume arguments, adverbs and complements. Or, to put it other way round, the verbal noun ending in *-ing* is able to take adverbs, arguments or complements.

Moreover, Oxford Dictionary of English Grammar (1996:172) suggests that in Latin grammar the term *gerundive* stands for "a form of the verb functioning as an adjective". Hence, in Latin grammar not only verbal but also adjectival gerunds may be found. It is also said that the gerundive has the meaning that something "should or must be done" (ibid.p.172). In some point the term *gerundive* seems to be synonymous to the term *gerund*, however, we should draw attention to the fact that in the English language there is no grammatical equivalent for the term *gerundive* and it is very rarely used. Turning to Warriner (1977:45), one finds a much simpler definition of the term *gerund*, i.e. gerund is a verbal noun that can be used "in any way that a noun may be used". This shows that gerunds within a sentence or a clause may be used i.q. nouns. Valeika and Buitkienė (2003:108-109) indicate

that when a noun in the common case is used to modify gerund, the gerund is thought to have more verbal than substantival meaning. On the other hand, when a gerund is modified by a noun in the genitive case or it is used with a possessive pronoun, the gerund is thought to have the meaning of a noun (ibid.p.108-109). Within a sentence or a clause, a gerund may function as the subject (e.g.: ***Fishing*** is a good activity), as an object of a verb (e.g.: *She doesn't like Mike's **dancing***) (Warriner, 1977:45-46). A gerund can also be used as an object of a preposition. For example, ***By showing** her the picture, you may upset her very much.* Moreover, as indicated by Valeika and Buitkienė (2003:109), like a simple noun, a gerund may function as the subject, the objective complement, the predicative and the attribute.

To sum up, in the English language a gerund is a noun derived from a verb by adding the suffix *-ing*. Within a sentence or a clause a gerund can have the same functions as those of a simple noun.

In the following part a deeper look is taken into the main differences of gerundive and non-gerundive nominalizations.

III. GERUNDIVE AND NON-GERUNDIVE NOMINALIZATIONS

The focus of this part of our research is on the peculiarities of gerundive and non-gerundive nominalizations. What concerns the main differences of these two types of nominalizations it should be said that there are several indicators that reveal their differences. First of all, if a gerund is accompanied by an *of-phrase*, it is classified as a gerundive nominal (Oxford Dictionary of English Grammar, 1996:172). In other words, the *of-phrase* is considered to be one of the main indicators of a gerundive nominalization. E.g.: **Winning of the race** is very important to John. The *of-phrase* indicates that the noun *winning* is a gerund, which acts as the subject of the given sentence.

Taking into consideration the formation of gerundive and non-gerundive nominalizations, several differences may be found. Firstly, gerundive nouns are formed by using only the deverbal suffix *-ing*. E.g.: if we take the verb *to participate* and add the suffix *-ing*, we get the gerund *participating*, as in **Participating** can be as important as winning the game. Contrariwise to the formation of gerundive nominalizations, during the process of derivation of non-gerundive nominalizations, according to Siegel (see <http://www.ling.upenn.edu>), several possible suffixes, such as *-al*, *-ation*, *-ment*, *-tion*, *-sion*, etc. can be used. For example, the suffix *-al* is used to derive nouns from such verbs as *to refuse* – *refusal*, *to propose* – *proposal*, as in Jake's **proposal** to Marry was very unexpected for everyone. The suffix *-ment* is used while deriving such verbal nouns as *judgment* from the verb *to judge*.

Another difference between the two types of nominalizations is their usage with particular determiners, i.e. certain words that are used to introduce nouns (Grammar and Composition, see <http://grammar.about.com>). Firstly, the research by Valeika and Buitkienė (2003:108) draws attention to the fact that “similar to the noun, the gerund can be modified by a noun in the genitive case or in the common case, which, when pronominalized, turn into the possessive and objective forms”. In other words, gerund may be determined by a noun in the genitive or in the common case. Secondly, a gerund may be determined by a preposition (e.g.: *for*, *in*, *to*, *with*, etc.), a possessive pronoun (e.g.: *his*, *its*, *their*). Thirdly, an adverb may be also used with a gerundive nominal (Siegel, see <http://www.ling.upenn.edu>). Non-gerundive nominalizations, on the other hand, are determined by adjectives.

As distinct from gerundive nominalizations, non-gerundive nominalizations may be determined by a demonstrative pronoun (e.g.: *such*, *that*, *this*, etc.). Non-gerundive nominalizations are also often determined by articles, proper nouns, adverbs. This, on the other hand, cannot be done with gerundive nominalizations. Another distinction between these two

types of nominalizations, according to Valeika and Buitkienė (2003:109), is that non-gerundive nominalizations may be used in plural form and gerundive nominalizations cannot.

In conclusion, we must say that the main difference between gerundive and non-gerundive nominalizations is that these two types of nominalizations are used with different determiners. Another distinction is that gerundive nominalizations are derived from verbs by adding only the suffix *-ing*. Furthermore, gerundive nominals are always preceded by an *of phrase*.

Despite their different usage, both gerundive and non-gerundive nominalizations can be related to various types of processes. The types of processes in which gerundive and non-gerundive nominalizations in history discourse can be realized are discussed in the following part of our study.

IV. THE PROCESS TYPES RELATED TO GERUNDIVE AND NON-GERUNDIVE NOMINALIZATIONS

In everyday life people undergo a constant flow of various events and experiences. According to Halliday (2004:170), all human experiences can be subdivided into two categories, namely, the inner experiences, i.e. what we experience as “going on inside ourselves” and the outer experience, i.e. “what we experience as going ‘out there’”. The outer experience involves actions and events, or, the things that happen around us, that people or some other actors (animate or inanimate) do, or make them happen. To cite Halliday (opt.cit.p.170), “the ‘inner’ experience is harder to sort out: but it is partly a kind of replay of the outer, recording it, reacting to it, reflecting on it <...>”. In other words, the inner and the outer experiences are rather closely related and they tend to influence one another.

Notwithstanding, Halliday (2004:170), indicates that grammar puts a rather clear distinction between the inner and the outer experiences that are defined as the process of consciousness and the process of the external world. Generally, the term *process* is used to define “goings-on like *happening, seeing, feeling, thinking*, as well as *being and having*” (Lock, 2003:60). The entities which are involved in these processes are called participants (ibid.). Halliday (2004:175) notifies that there are six types of processes in the system of process type, namely, “‘material’, ‘behavioural’, ‘mental’, ‘verbal’, ‘relational’ and ‘existential’”. Most of these process types deal with actions or events. Thus, as Eggins (2004:237) puts it, “there remains a very large group of processes in English that do not encode action meanings at all, but instead encode meanings about *states of being*”. Some linguists (Halliday, 2004, Downing and Locke, 2003), claim that there are three main types of processes, namely, the material process, the mental process and the relational process. However, Valeika (1998:16) argues that the verbal process type also belongs to the main type of processes.

In summary, it could be said that two large groups of process types could be distinguished: process types that have something to do with actions or events of some sort, or, as Lock (2003:72) calls it, action processes and processes of being and having.

4.1. Material process

First of all, it should be said that the English language structures, according to Halliday (2004:175), consist of “processes, participants and (optionally) circumstantial elements”. Each type of process has its participants, i.e. entities which perform certain actions, and circumstantial

elements. Usually, participants are obligatory or inherent, and the circumstantial elements are considered to be non-obligatory, or non-inherent in a process.

As it has already been mentioned, material processes belong to the main type of processes. First of all, let us define the meaning of the term *material process*. Basically the term *material process* could be defined as the *process of doing*, i.e. when “some entity does something or undertakes some action” (Eggins, 2004: 215). A more comprehensive definition is given by Valeika (1998:18), who states that “material processes are actions carried out by a participant called Agent”. In other words, in a material process the actions are performed by a certain person or some other doer which is referred to as Agent. In Concise Oxford Dictionary of Linguistics (1997:11), the term *Agent* is defined as a “noun phrase, etc. identifying an actor or actors performing some action”. Agent may be either animate or inanimate. It should be added that some linguists (Halliday, 2004; Lock, 2003) use the term *Actor* to define the notion of a doer in material processes. In our work we will use the term Agent.

Hence, material process defines a certain situation that is constructed of participants and circumstances. The participants are as follows: *the Agent, the Affected Patient, the Effected Patient, the Recipient* and *the Beneficiary* (Valeika and Buitkienė, 2006:33). Circumstances are considered to be optional participants of material process clauses. This means that in order for a clause to be complete, circumstances are not necessary. However, Eggins (2004:222) argues that “circumstances can occur not only with material processes, but with all process types”. Most often in material process clauses there are two participants present, i.e. the Agent and the Affected or the Effected Patient. Such material process clauses are known as two-participant material process clauses. However, three-participant material clauses are also met, i.e. in a material process clause there are three participants present – the Agent, the Affected Patient and the Effected Patient. Furthermore, in most cases some circumstances are also present.

In addition, Valeika (1998:22) also points out that all material clauses can be divided into causative and non-causative. Causative clauses describe a situation in which a change in an object is effected by the action of an Agent (opt.cit.p.22). “<...> a responsible, purposeful human Agent directly causes an Affected to undergo the action named by the verb” (Downing and Locke, 2006:123). In non-causative material process clauses the participants tend to undergo some changes themselves. Hence, material process clauses could be defined as dynamic because of the constant changes they express.

4.2. Mental process

The notion of mental process can be described as types of processes that people undergo inside themselves, i.e. such processes as *thinking, feeling, seeing, hearing*, etc. are known as mental. The main difference between material and mental processes is that in mental process there is usually one participant who is conscious (Downing and Locke, 2003:125). This participant is known as the Experiencer; the entity who “sees, feels, thinks, likes, etc. and is typically human (ibid.p.125). Nevertheless, the Experiencer may also be an animal. The term Recipient Experiencer (Valeika and Buitkienė, 2006:33), or Recipient is sometimes used instead of the term Experiencer. Furthermore, it should be mentioned that the Experiencer has no power to control the situation, contrariwise it is affected by the process. To cite Lock (2003:105), “most mental process clauses also have a second participant – the thing, idea, or fact which is thought, seen, liked, wanted and so on”. This participant is known as the Phenomenon. So, it could be said that mental process clauses have two participants, the first is known as the Recipient and the second is known as the Phenomenon, i.e. which is perceived or experienced by the Recipient. Eggins (2004:235), on the other hand, argues that all mental process clauses always have to have two participants present. “Even if one participant is apparently absent, it will need to be retrieved from the context for the clause to make sense” (opt.cit.p.235). This shows that, in order for a mental process clause to be meaningful, two participants must be present.

Some linguists, Valeika (1998:40), Downing and Locke (2003:125), notice that three main categories of mental processes can be distinguished: the process of perception (e.g.: *see, hear, feel*), the process of cognition (e.g.: *think, know, understand, believe*) and the process of affection (e.g.: *like, dislike, hate, fear*). Although, Lock (203:105) adds a fourth type of mental processes – the process of volition (e.g.: *want, need, hope*). The process of perception can be described as the process that is related to perception of things by means of senses, namely, sight, touch, taste, smell and also hearing. Perception, according to Valeika (1998:41), is an involuntary condition which cannot be controlled or in some way manipulated by the perceiver itself. “The perceiver in fact receives or is affected by the sensations” (ibid.p.41). In such cases the participant which is affected by some sensations is referred to as recipient Experiencer. The linguist (1998:41) also indicates that “the perception processes of feeling, smelling and tasting” can be expressed in two possible ways, i.e. as a stative process (non-volitional) and as dynamic process (volitional). Moreover, perception process clauses enable us to express situations that are either completed or not completed. Consider: 1. *I heard her sing.* vs. 2. *I heard her singing.* In the first case the situation is completed and in the second case it is not completed.

Valeika (1998:43) defines the processes of cognition as processes of knowing that are realized by the following verbs: *believe, consider, differ, distrust, doubt, feel, fear, forget, foresee, imagine, know, mean*, etc. In this type of mental processes the participant known as the Phenomenon can represent either concrete or abstract entities (ibid.p.43). It should be also added that cognitive processes are stative and that they “either suggest temporarity, repetition, gradual change in the state or change their meaning” (Valeika, 1998:44).

The third type of mental processes, the processes of affectivity, according to Valeika (ibid.p.45), can be realized by such verbs as *like, love, enjoy, dislike, hate, detest*, etc. In other words, processes of affectivity express our affectations or adverse feelings towards something or someone. Generally, the above mentioned verbs in everyday usage have a Recipient Experiencer. When speaking about the Phenomenon in affectivity process clauses, it should be mentioned that the Phenomenon can be expressed by a nominal word combination, by a clause, a noun or a pronoun with a clause.

4.3. Relational process

Generally, relational processes can be described as processes of being, i.e. this type of processes “expresses the notion of being something or somewhere” (Valeika, 1998:55, Downing and Locke, 2003:131). Relational processes belong to the third main group of processes. Turning to Halliday (2004:210), one finds that relational clauses “serve to characterize and to identify”. Comparing with the material process clauses, which represent our experiences as processes of doing and mental processes, which represent our experiences as processes of sensing, relational processes model our inner and outer experiences as being. The linguist also claims that, similarly to mental process clauses, relational process clauses create change without any input of energy, i.e. “typically as a uniform flow without distinct phases of unfolding” (ibid.p.211). Hence, static location in space and static possessions are construed relationally and dynamic motions through space and dynamic transfers of possession are construed materially (ibid.p.212). Halliday (2004:213) also draws attention to the fact that principal features of relational process clauses derive from the nature of a conformation of being. It is noted that in relational process clauses there are always two inherent participants present, or, as Halliday (2004:213), puts it, “a relationship of being is set up between two separate entities”.

What considers the types of relational processes, different opinions among linguists can be found. Valeika (1998), Downing and Locke (2003), Lock (2003), Halliday (2004) agree that three types of relational processes can be distinguished, however, different terms are used to

define them. For example, Lock (2003:126), names these types of relational processes as attributive, i.e. designating any relationship in which an attribute is ascribed to an entity (Oxford Dictionary of English Grammar, 1996:39), identifying, i.e. one participant is identified by equating it with another and, possessive, i.e. clauses in which one participant is the Possessor of the other participant known as the Possessed. However, we agree with Valeika (1998), Downing and Locke (2003), who define the three possible types of relational processes as attributive, possessive and circumstantial.

The participant of a relational process is known as the Carrier. To cite Downing and Locke (2003:131), “the process itself appears to have less meaning than do material processes and mental processes, and serves merely to relate the Carrier to its Attribute (generous), to a circumstance (over there) or to the semantic function expressing possession (mine)”. The verbs that help to realize the attributive processes are as follows: be, appear, get, grow, continue, rank, remain, seem, smell, play, act as, call, mean, etc. These verbs are of complete predication and they are able to fully preserve their concrete meaning (Valeika, 1998:56). The relationship between the Carrier and the Attribute is rather tight, i.e. as stated by Downing and Locke (2003:131), in some way the Carrier is the Attribute.

4.4. Verbal process

Before starting to analyze the verbal process type in more detail, the term *verbal process* should be explained. Hence, the term *verbal process* is used to define any verbal action, i.e. saying or communicating. The processes of verbal type, according to Lock (2003:116), are expressed by such verbs as *say*, *tell*, *reply* and *suggest*. Typically, verbal process clauses contain three participants, namely, the Sayer, the Receiver, or Recipient and the Verbiage (Eggins, 2004:235). Usually the Sayer is conscious and, in most cases, human. Thus, due to personification, any inanimate entity may become the Sayer of a verbal process clause. Valeika (1998:50) notes that information that is passed on by the Sayer is called the Verbiage and the participant which receives the information is referred to as the Recipient. The linguist also draws attention to the fact that in the process of speaking the Recipient must always be present. Moreover, processes of speaking and talking may also include the Verbiage. What regards the process of saying it may also include not only the Sayer, but also the Recipient. It should be added that, like in other process type clauses, in verbal process clauses circumstantial elements may also be present.

To cite Valeika (1998:54), “verbs of saying may present a mixture of two types of process in which the process of saying dominates”. Nonetheless, we should keep in mind that in the full sense of the word, verbs of saying are all mental verbs, i.e. more or less they all have some degree of mental or material meaning (ibid.p.54).

Halliday (2004:252), states that verbal processes play a large part in building narrative, because they make it possible to construct dialogic passages. Verbal process clauses may also be used in a great number of discourse types. For example, in media discourse verbal process clauses allow the reporter to ascribe particular information to particular sources, i.e. officials, eye witnesses and also experts (ibid.p.252). Moreover, clauses of the verbal process type play a crucial role in academic discourse, “making it possible to quote and report from various scholars while at the same time indicating the writer’s stance with verbs like *point out*, *suggest*, *claim*, *assert* (Halliday, 2004:253). In other words, the author, using verbal process clauses, can easily quote or report other works of various scholars while at the same time he is able to keep his own position.

Consequently, verbal processes are processes that have something to do with saying and communicating. The main participant in a verbal process clause is known as the Sayer. Other participants that can be found in a verbal process are the following: the Verbiage, the Recipient and the circumstantial elements. Verbal process clauses are used in a quite a number of discourses, e.g.: media discourse, scientific discourse, history discourse, etc.

4.5. Happening process

To start form, happening processes are defined as involuntary processes in which the Affected Patient experiences the happening (Downing and Locke, 2006:128). This means that in happening process clauses, the participant of the process, even when animate, is neither responsible for what is happening, nor is able to control the happening process itself. The participant of happening processes is known as the Affected Patient. Moreover, Valeika and Buitkienė (2006:66), draw attention to the fact that happening processes are resultative causatives, i.e. processes that express some causation. This means that the processes of this type semantically are related to causative processes, i.e. processes in which the acting entity (Agent or Force) causes something to happen (Downing and Locke, 2006:132). The linguists also add that happening processes in the English language are typically expressed by certain verbs denoting some accomplishments or activities (Valeika and Buitkienė, 2006:66). Taking that into

consideration, two types of verbs expressing happening processes can be distinguished, namely, achievement verbs and activity verbs which we are going to present below.

Achievement verbs can be put into the following sub-categories: *verbs expressing meteorological processes*, *verbs expressing behaviour*, *verbs denoting the inceptive phase of a state*, etc. (Valeika and Buitkienė, 2006:66-67). Thus meteorological processes are a specific type of happening processes, because these processes introduce experience which is unanalysable. The linguists also specify that in meteorological process clauses there is no participant present, i.e. “they are processes of “zero” participant” (ibid.p.66). Another group of achievement verbs are verbs denoting behaviour. E.g.: *blinking*, *yawning*, *sighing*, *coughing*, *sneezing*, etc. Behavioural happening processes may be of two types: involuntary, i.e. “acting done without or against one’s will” (Free Online Dictionary, available from the Internet on: <http://www.thefreedictionary.com>) or voluntary, i.e. “done or undertaken of one's own free will” (opt.cit.). In involuntary behavioural process clauses there is no entity present which is able to bring out an action on his/her own will. In other words, such process type clauses are Agentless. Voluntary behavioural process type clauses, on the other hand, always have an Agent present, i.e. they are Agentive. Cf: *Our eyes blink constantly*. vs. *John blinked when he walked into the light*. In the first example *blinking* is expressed as involuntary process and in the second example we see a voluntary action carried out by *John*. The third group of achievement verbs comprises inchoative verbs, i.e. verbs which designate the beginning of some kind of action, state or event (Free Online Dictionary, available from the Internet on: <http://www.thefreedictionary.com>).

As we have mentioned before, there are two types of verbs expressing happening processes. Achievement verbs belong to the first type and verbs that designate some activity belong to the second type of verbs, which are used to express some happening processes.. Turning to Valeika and Buitkienė (2006:67), one finds that activity verbs expressing happening processes are special, because the activity which they signify “expresses a property peculiar to the Affected Patient”. In other words, these verbs may be labeled as process-oriented (ibid.p.67). It should be added that process-oriented verbs suggest the presence of an Agent. So, it could be said that in such happening processes the entity known as the Agent is present. Moreover, as Valeika and Buitkienė (ibid.p.68), put it, happening process clauses also may contain circumstantial elements. However, it should be mentioned that the variety of circumstances in happening process clauses is rather restricted. To cite the linguists (ibid.p.68), “most typically, the process can be restricted by spatial (non-temporal and temporal) and non-spatial (manner) circumstances”. In other words, happening process clauses may include either spatial or manner circumstances. Manner circumstances that appear in happening process clauses are Non-

agentive, i.e. they are not related to processes that are intentional. Non-agentive manner circumstances can be expressed by such attributes as *accidentally, cleverly, fast, immaturely, foolishly, stupidly, etc.* (Valeika and Buitkienė, 2006:69). Furthermore, the linguists note that happening processes may also be restricted by the following types of circumstances: *Circumstances of Frequency, the Circumstances of Degree, the Cause, the Condition Circumstance and the Concession Circumstance.*

Consequently, happening processes are of two major types, i.e. denoting some achievements or activities. A happening process clause may include such participants as the Agent, the Affected Patient and spatial or non-spatial circumstances. Furthermore, it should be mentioned that special type of happening processes can be found, namely, processes of “zero” participant.

Attention should be drawn to the fact that both, gerundive and non-gerundive nominalizations in history discourse may be derived from all those process types that have been discussed above. In other words, gerundive and non-gerundive nominalizations may be realized in the following process clauses: *material, mental, relational, verbal and happening.*

V. NOMINALIZATIONS IN HISTORY DISCOURSE

Every day people exchange various amounts of information in oral or in written form. The connected stretch of verbal expression (whether it is in oral or in written form) that people produce is called discourse. The term *discourse* is used in various senses, some of which do not concern language. However, the usage of gerundive and non-gerundive nominalizations and the peculiarities of history discourse is our primary interest.

Before starting to analyze the usage of gerundive and non-gerundive nominalizations in history discourse, a deeper look should be taken at how discourse is understood in linguistics. Oxford Concise Dictionary of Linguistics (1997:100) defines discourse as “any coherent succession of sentences spoken or (in most usage) written”. Discourse is a stretch of connected language that is bigger than one sentence and that is understood as the exchange of information between the addresser and the addressee, i.e. between speakers or between a writer and a reader. Discourse is usually composed of one or more well-formed grammatical sentences (Cook, 1997:7). However, there may be exceptions, because, as stated by Cook (1997:7), “discourse treats the rules of grammar as a resource, conforming to them when it needs to, but departing from them when it does not”. In other words, in some cases, sentences, constituting discourse, may be grammatically incorrect. For example, a simple grumble or a greeting may be referred to as discourse.

While comparing discourse and text some linguists argue that there are no differences between text and discourse, since both, text and discourse, are often referred to as a stretch of connected language. However, it is known that the term *text* is used to define any written form of verbal expression. Furthermore, as Fairclough (2003:3) points out, “transcripts of (spoken) conversations and interviews, as well as television programmes and web pages” are also texts. On the other hand, some linguists have the notion that discourse and text is not the same thing, because text is perceived as a physical product, the result of a discourse that is seen as a rather abstract process that leads to the construction of a text (Trask, 2007:296). In other words, text is the result of any verbal expression conveyed in written form and discourse is the process during which a text is constructed. Although, Shevchenko (2002:155-6), who distinguishes two rather different approaches towards discourse, argues that, on the one hand, discourse may be referred to as “a form of statement, into which any necessary content can be put”. On the other hand, discourse can be perceived as “a coherent text; dialogue; group of statements, implicitly connected between each other”. Consequently, the term *discourse* may be used to define a single

expression such as a grumble or a greeting in spoken or written form or a longish coherent text, such as a poem, a novel or a legal act.

Each type of discourse has its own particular features, i.e. the style, the specific terms that are used and the message encoded. As noted by Martin (1993:228), “In history, realizing reasoning inside rather than between clauses means placing an Agent in a causal relation to its Medium, and this entails nominalizing events as participants and verbalizing the logical relation between them”. A historian collects historical facts, puts them into a chronological order and reports them objectively, without bias, in an unambiguous and undistorting language that is agreeable to the reader (Fowler, 2001:1). History discourse provides a series of possible statements about a given area and provides a structure to the manner in which a certain topic, historical event or a process is to be talked about (ibid.p.42). While describing particular historical events or processes the narrator has to be objective, the facts need to be generalized and no personal interpretations are allowed in such type of discourse. Apostolakou (see <http://historicalmethodology.suite101.com>), argues that, while organizing historical discourse, a historian confronts “two time spans”. The first one is the time the narrative is produced and the other is the time when the events that he speaks about take place. Or, as Apostolakou (see <http://historicalmethodology.suite101.com>) puts it, “history’s chronicle time is confronted by the time of the discourse itself, or paper time”. Another feature of history discourse is that the narrator makes an impression of the history telling itself, i.e. the historian replaces himself with an “objective person” in order to achieve objectivity in his discourse in which he does not intervene. The facts and events described in historical narrative are considered to be true and invariable and for this reason the discourse can be referred to as assertive. “The historian narrates what has been, not what has not been or what has been questionable” (ibid.). Or, to put it other way round, the narration is accepted as true and unquestionable.

It is characteristic for the language means used in history discourse to be very objective, precise and unemotional. The expressions used are generalized and there are no emotions or feelings of the narrator visible. To put in other terms, abstraction foregrounds the history discourses. In history discourse the usage of nominalizations and of nouns to express actions is endemic, i.e. nominalizations and nouns are often used instead of verbs in expressing actions (Fowler, 2001:79). Nominalizations help the historian to generalize the events and facts he is speaking about. Also, nominalizations help the narrator to abstract himself from his narrative. Fairclough (2008:814) argues that the usage of nominalizations help to “talk and think about classes <...> without variables which are not relevant to our <...> concerns, because the agents of actions and other participants in processes, and temporal, spatial and modal adjuncts and

operators can be deleted". In other words, nominalizations help the historian to delete any unnecessary agents or other participants of the events he is talking about.

Consequently, the usage of nominalizations in history discourse helps the historian to disassociate himself from the facts and events he is talking about and this makes the narration more objective and precise. History puts the facts together, thus historical texts are the products of synthesis.

VI. INTRODUCTORY REMARKS ON INHERENT SEMANTIC FUNCTIONS

Sentence is the basic unit of communication through which a certain situation is expressed. A sentence enables us to perceive and to characterize our experience whether of the phenomena of the external world or of the internal world that comprises our feelings, thoughts, perceptions (Downing and Locke, 2003:110). According to Valeika (1998:14), the semantic framework of the sentence comprises the process, the participants of the process, the attributes and the circumstances connected with the process. The term *process* is used to define a continuous action or a series of actions, events, behaviour, existence, etc. which can be expressed through a verb. It is important to mention that the process controls the choice of the participants in a semantic structure and of syntactic elements in a syntactic structure (Downing and Locke, 2003:112). Furthermore, the participants of a process are realized through a noun or a noun phrase and the circumstances are expressed through an adverbial (Oxford Dictionary of English Grammar, 1996:317). Downing and Locke (2006:124), on the other hand, draw attention to the fact that in the semantic structure circumstances are usually optional. However, the scholars indicate that circumstances can be “inherent to the situation”, i.e. in some cases the circumstances are inseparable from other parts of a semantic structure. Hence, according to Valeika (1998:15), “of all the components of the semantic structure of the sentence the Process is the most important”. The participants of the semantic structure and the syntactic elements of the syntactic structure are dictated by the process (ibid.p.15).

In this part, our attention is focused on the inherent roles of semantic structures, i.e. the obligatory roles taken by the participants of a semantic structure. Steiner (1986:304) defines inherent roles as “obligatory participant roles and those participant roles which, if they are not realized in a clause, lead to look up in the preceding text or situation for a referent”. Most of the previously described processes are followed by one or more inherent or, obligatory participants. Inherent semantic functions are the following: *Agent*, *Affected Patient*, *Effected Patient*, *Recipient*, *Senser*, *Phenomenon*, *Carrier*, *Attribute*, *Sayer*, *verbiage* and *Behaver*. Inherent semantic functions are expressed by a noun or a noun-phrase. Non-inherent semantic functions, on the other hand, are most often optional, e.g.; such non-inherent semantic functions as the beneficiary or the Instrument may be omitted from a certain process clause. Such semantic functions are referred to as circumstantial elements (Halliday, 2004:175). Different from inherent semantic functions, non-inherent semantic functions are realized by an adverb or an adverbial group or by a prepositional phrase (ibid.p.176). The number and the type of the participants

involved in a process are governed by the type of the process (Downing and Locke, 2003:112). In other words, the number of participants in a certain process clause depends only on the process itself. In most cases there are two participants in a process, one of them is the entity that carries out an action and the other is the entity which is directly affected by the action. For example, in the material process clause *Jimmy threw the ball*, *Jimmy* is the Agent (the doer of the action) and *the ball* is the Affected Patient (the entity that was directly affected by what *Jimmy* did). Moreover, Downing and Locke (2003:110), note that in a two-participant clause either both inherent participants can be actualized or only one of them may be actualised leaving the other unactualised or unexpounded (ibid.p.112). “Participants are unexpounded because they can be conventionally understood in the situational context” (Downing and Locke, 2003:113). Or, to put it other way round, participants of a certain process clause can easily be understood from the context.

Further are the semantic functions of gerundive and non-gerundive nominalizations in history discourse analyzed in greater detail.

VII. METHODOLOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS OF THE STUDY

In this section of our research the methods applied to our research are discussed in greater detail. The list of sources of the materials used to collect the examples of gerundive and non-gerundive nominalizations is also presented.

The research on inherent semantic functions of gerundive and non-gerundive nominalizations consists of three parts. First, the examples of the two types of nominalizations were collected and classified according to their type and the semantic functions they undertake. Second, the semantic functions were explained in greater detail. Then, respective examples were selected to back up the distinguished semantic functions. The sources of the material used for our research were various history books. Since the scope of our investigation was 600 examples of gerundive and non-gerundive nominalizations in history discourse, six different history books were thoroughly read in order to collect interesting and non-repetitive examples. The following sources were used: *The Six Day War* by Churchill, R.S., Churchill, W.S. (1967), London: Heinemann; *An Outline of American History* by Cincotta, H. (1994), United States Information Agency; *Reaction and Reform 1815-1841* by Hunt, J.W. (1978), London: Collins; *Russia, America and the Cold War, 1994-1991* by McCauley, M. (2004), Great Britain: Longman; *The Birth of Industrial Britain* by Morgan, K. (2004), Great Britain: Longman, and *A Concise History of the World Since 1945* by Spellman, W.M., (2006), United States: Palgrave Macmillan.

First of all, by means of descriptive method, the two types of nominalizations under investigation were identified, classified and described emphasizing their main differences. Then, the means of noun derivation from other words or word phrases were identified and explained. Furthermore, the main functions of these two types of nominalizations were presented.

The method of critical discourse analysis was used to focus on the main features of history discourse. The role of nominalization, as a powerful micro-structural item, in history discourse was also analyzed.

The statistical method was used to disclose the frequency of the semantic functions of gerundive and non-gerundive nominalizations in the corpus under investigation. After the examples were collected and allocated according to their type the inherent semantic functions were analyzed. Later, the results of the analysis were statistically arranged in the form of figures using a spreadsheet program MCEXcel. The percentage was calculated applying the following mathematical formula: $X = N : Z * 100\%$ where: X – the percentage of number N; N – the number, which percentage needs to be found; Z – the number, which denotes 100% (267; 333).

VIII. THE SEMANTIC FUNCTIONS OF GERUNDIVE AND NON-GERUNDIVE NOMINALIZATIONS

In this part of the research our attention is focused on the semantic functions of gerundive and non-gerundive nominalizations in history discourse. As it was already mentioned, 600 examples of both types of nominalizations were collected from several different history books. Below are the semantic functions undertaken by gerundive and non-gerundive nominalizations discussed in greater detail. To substantiate our research some of the collected examples are given.

8.1. The realization of gerundive and non-gerundive nominalizations in material process clauses

To begin with, material processes are processes denoting actions. Halliday (2004:171) claims that material processes “are the most accessible to our conscious reflection” and that “throughout most of the history of linguistics they have been at the centre of attention”. Most often in material process clauses there are two participants present, i.e. the Agent which can be referred to as the doer of an action and the Affected or Effected Patient, or, the entity which is directly affected by the actions of the Agent. Furthermore, we must add that the main participants of material process clauses are often accompanied by circumstantial elements.

In this part of our study, the inherent semantic roles taken by gerundive and non-gerundive nominalizations in material process clauses are analyzed. Hence, we observed that in material process clauses gerundive nominalizations can function as *Agents*, *Affected Patients*, *Effected Patients* and *Recipients*.

8.1.1. The semantic function of the *Agent*

As we have already mentioned, material process, or the process of doing, consists of participants and circumstances. Agent is considered to be the participant of a process that carries out an action. In *Glossary of Linguistic Terms* (see: www.sil.org), Agent or Agentive is defined as the semantic role of a person or a thing who is the doer of some kind of action. Downing and Locke (2003:114) define the term *Agent* as “any entity that is capable of operating on itself or others, usually to bring about some change in the location or properties of itself or others”. The

scholars also indicate that the concept of agency is rather complex and that it includes features of animacy, intention, motivation, responsibility and the use of one's own energy in order to initiate a particular process (ibid.115). Hence, Agent, or Agentive, may be either animate (in most cases) or inanimate, it may have motivation, some intentions, etc. An inanimate Agent is considered to have no intentions or motivation. Usually natural phenomenon such as earthquakes, floods, lightning, tides, thunder, etc. are referred to as inanimate Agents, because their power or energy cannot be intentional. To cite Valeika and Buitkienė (2006:34), “such features of Agentivity as the *typically animate instigator* or the *willful source of the activity* are the features of a causative process: the Agent is an entity (animate or inanimate) that causes something to happen”. Consequently, Agent is a self-sustaining entity that is capable of functioning on its own or of operating upon others. Consider the following examples:

1. *Lavrenty Beria and other Soviet leaders favoured a united, neutral Germany but the June 1953 **uprising** in East Berlin and East Germany saved Ulbricht* (McCauley, 2004:15).
2. *Anti-nuclear **feeling** was running very high in Western Europe in the early 1980s, and consequently the west European states that were to receive the missiles only wanted them as a last resort* (ibid.p.77).
3. *In the textile industries, **spinning** and **weaving** served families as a prime source of domestic employment* (Morgan, 2004:10).
4. *Hymn **singing** flourished among the Methodist communities, providing a means of communal solidarity and a useful tool for spreading literacy among working people, as the words on hymn sheets were written out line by line* (ibid.p.43).
5. *The winter of 1946-7 in Britain had been the coldest on record, and government **spending** on food and fuel depleted modest reserves* (Spellman, 2006:28).
6. *The mercurial Khrushchev had enjoyed a successful visit to the US in 1959, but a May 1960 **downing** of an American U-2 spy plane over Soviet airspace discredited the American president in the eyes of the Soviets* (ibid.p.47).

Vs.

7. *And the **opening** of new lands in the West after 1812 greatly extended the area available for cotton cultivation* (Cincotta, 1994:127).
8. *Although, Palmer's dire **warnings** continued to fuel what became known as the “Red Scare”, the threats never materialized; and by the summer of 1920, the American people realized that the United States was safe from anarchy* (ibid.p.248).
9. *The **founding** of the People's Republic of China in October 1949 brought into being a second potential communist giant* (McCauley, 2004:25).
10. *Successful **spying** (especially the acquisition of atomic bomb secrets) replaced open contacts* (ibid.p.36).

11. An **understanding** with China removed the danger of war and American troops could gradually be extricated from south east Asia (ibid.p.63).
12. Good **teaching**, good laws and good institutions make good people; but if teaching, laws and institutions are bad, vice and misery are the result (Hunt, 1978:29).
13. Their **findings** stressed the economic costs and moral failure that they found in the provision of poor relief (Morgan, 2004:65).
14. The **banning** of crowd meetings under the 'Gag' Acts of 1819 temporarily quietened down the political atmosphere by introducing punitive measures against radical meetings, literature and arms (ibid.p.82).

Both types of nominalizations in the corpus under investigation functioning as Agents are always inanimate. Moreover, we noticed that both, gerundive and non-gerundive nominalizations possessed the features of a causative process, i.e. the entities proved to be able to cause some change on other entities or on themselves.

8.1.2. The semantic function of the *Affected Patient*

Before starting to investigate the semantic function of the Affected Patient, it should be explained what is meant by Affected Patient. Thus the term *Affected Patient* is used to define an entity which is directly affected by the action brought about by the Agent. A more specific definition is given in Oxford Dictionary of English Grammar (1996:288) that defines the term *Patient* as “a semantic role taken by a noun phrase which is acted upon or affected in some way by the verb”. It should be also mentioned that some scholars, namely, Halliday (2004:180) use the term *Goal* instead of *Affected Patient*. However, in our research we use the term *Affected Patient*.

As we have already mentioned before, material process clauses usually are of two participants, i.e. the Agent and the Affected, or Effected Patient. Valeika and Buitkienė (2006:35) note that, as the outcome of the process performed by the Agent, the Affected Patient may be put out of existence or it may be reconstructed. This shows that the existence of the entity known as the Affected Patient directly depends on the actions of the Agent. Cf:

15. Then he launched various programmes involving the transformation of nature which involved **planting** millions of trees in the dry steppes of Southern Russia to fend off the deprivations caused by the hot winds (McCauley, 2004:7).
16. Predictably, he increased defence **spending** rapidly and called on the nation to unite against the threat which emanated from the communist world (ibid.p.18).

17. *By selling its tea through its own agents at a price well under the customary one, the East India Company made smuggling unprofitable and threatened to eliminate the independent colonial merchants at the time* (Cincotta, 1994:67).
 18. *War needs had enormously stimulated manufacturing, speeding an economic process based on the exploitation of iron, steam and electric power, as well as the forward march of science and invention* (ibid.p.181).
 19. ***Teaching** of children in the nineteenth century was dominated by the monitorial system* (Morgan, 2004:51).
 20. *That Paine, Place, Owen and many other leaders of reform movements in this period were militant unbelievers obviously did not prevent their **gaining** a large following among working-class people* (Hunt, 1978:39).
- Vs.
21. *The best-known scheme that modified the **granting** of outdoor relief in the later Georgian period was the Speenhamland system, created in 1795 at a time of harvest failure and high bread prices and named after the Berkshire village where it originated* (Morgan, 2004:63).
 22. *The **passing** of this law was again partly stimulated by fears of working-class protesters causing public disorder, as occurred in some Chartist and anti-poor law demonstrations of the late 1830s* (ibid.p.93).
 23. *The new year 1825 brought a financial crisis and the **beginnings** of another trade depression* (ibid.p.80).
 24. *Although some believe that the history of the American Revolution began long before first shots were fired in 1775, England and America did not begin an overt **parting** of the ways until 1763, more than a century and a half after founding the first permanent settlement in Jamestown, Virginia* (Cincotta, 1994:60).
 25. *The **savings** of the wealthy and middle class, increasing far beyond the possibilities of sound investment, had been drawn into frantic speculation in stocks or real estate* (ibid.p.254).

The examples with nominalizations functioning as Affected Patients proved the fact that Affected Patients directly depend on the actions brought about by the Agent and cannot operate on their own.

8.1.3. The semantic function of the *Effected Patient*

To begin with, in a two-participant material process clause the Patient may be either Affected, i.e. denoting an entity which is directly affected by the actions of the Agent, or

Effected, i.e. “entity that is brought into being” (Valeika and Buitkienė, 2006:37). Valeika and Buitkienė (2006:37) also note that “the Effected and the Patient exemplify two distinct processes – a ‘doing to’, or dispositive type, and a ‘bringing about’, or creative, type”. In other words, the Affected Patient is of the dispositive type and the Effected Patient is of the creative type. The creative process type can be expressed by such verbs as *bake, boil, build, design, dig, discover, make, paint, write*, etc. Valeika and Buitkienė (2006:38) also draw attention to the fact that in the surface structure the Effected Patient may sometimes be suppressed, because this enables us better to concentrate on the process itself.

Turning to Downing and Locke (2003:116), one finds that the term *Resulting Object* may be used instead of *Effected Patient*. Halliday (2004:180), on the other hand, uses the term *Goal* to define both, the Affected Patient and the Effected Patient. Cf:

24. *It taught **reading, writing and keeping** of accounts* (Cincotta, 1994:35).
 25. *The Seduction Act proscribed **writing, speaking or publishing** anything of “a false, scandalous and malicious” nature against the president or Congress* (ibid.p.102).
 26. *During the 1980s the Reagan administration provided covert military support and **training** for opponents of the Marxist Sandinista government in Nicaragua* (Spellman, 2006:136).
 27. *The decline of the Soviet Union in the 1980s rendered its **subventioning** of client states in Eastern Europe and the Third World economically impossible* (McCauley, 2004:107).
 28. *Our tanks advanced **firing** in every direction, and after them, I sent a mechanized unit with recoiled guns* (Churchill and Churchill, 1967:139).
- Vs.
29. *Outside Parliament the Whigs organized several county **meetings** of protest* (Hunt, 1978:57).
 30. *This extraordinary paradox shaped American **thinking** and made the term slavery an emotive word* (McCauley, 2004:18).
 31. *A ceasefire, proposed by the Russians and negotiated by Kissinger, ended the **fighting*** (McCauley, 2004:65).
 32. *Unfortunately such folly can bring grave **suffering** to the peoples of all countries, not least the American people, since with the advent of modern types of armament, the USA has fully lost its invulnerability* (ibid.p.124).
 33. *In 1745 Logan erected a **building** for his collection and bequeathed both building and books in the city* (Morgan, 2004:36).
 34. *In the midst of the War of 1812, Jackson, then in charge of the Tennessee militia, was sent into southern Alabama, where he ruthlessly put down an **uprising** of Creek Indians* (Cincotta, 1994:142).

Comparing the frequency of gerundive and non-gerundive nominalizations in the corpus under investigation with the semantic function of the Effected Patient it can be stated that non-gerundive nominalizations having this semantic function are more frequently met than gerundive nominalizations.

8.1.4. The semantic function of the *Recipient*

Traditionally, the term *Recipient* is used to define the semantic role of an animate being, usually human, that receives some object or event (Dictionary of English Grammar, 1996:334). However, in some cases the Recipient may also be inanimate. In other words, it is an entity to whom a particular action is directed and who the receiver of the goods is. Downing & Locke (2003:117) draw our attention to the fact that “when the action expressed by the verb extends to two inherent participants the additional participant is the Recipient”. The following verbs are used to express those material processes that are connected with the Recipient: *award, borrow, bring, buy, get, give, grant, hand, lend, obtain, offer, pass, pay, post, sell, sent, show, take, teach, throw*, etc. Valeika and Buitkienė (2006:36), specify that “with such verbs as *give, hand, throw* there is an actual transfer of the entity to the Recipient; with *offer, promise* there is an arrangement or a commitment for the Recipient to receive the entity later”. To put it other way round, the verbs expressing material processes that deal with the Recipient are of two types, namely, the ones that denote actual transference to the Recipient and the ones that express some agreement with the Recipient to be given the entity in the future. Consider the following examples:

35. *In response to European demand, tribes such as the Iroquois began to devote more attention to fur **trapping** during the 17th century* (Cincotta, 1994:20).
36. *To justify their opposition to **adding** new slave states, they pointed to the statements of Washington and Jefferson, and to the Ordinance of 1787, which forbade the extension of slavery into the Northwest* (ibid.p.156).
37. *Eventually, though a few communities continued to be devoted almost exclusively to **mining**, the real wealth of Montana, Colorado, Wyoming, Idaho and California proved to be in the grass and soil* (ibid.p.191).
38. *The death of Stalin in March 1953 and the election of President Eisenhower, committed to **ending** the Korean war, signaled a phase of negotiation between east and west and the ending of Cold War I* (McCauley, 2004:25).

39. *On the Tuesday and Wednesday it devoted its efforts to tank **busting** and to **giving** close support to Israeli ground troops in Sinai and the West Bank area* (Churchill and Churchill, 1967:181).
- Vs.
40. *This arrangement was to the **linking** of the west European powers since it meant that they could cut their defence budgets and prevail on Washington to keep its troops and war materiel in Europe* (McCauley, 2004:107).
41. *The lesser clergy were as a rule appointed to **livings** by lay patrons, usually landowners of the locality* (Hunt, 1978:25).
42. *Whatever the causes, their position was desperate, and they resorted to arson, the **smashing** of threshing machines and other attacks on property to press their demands for relief* (ibid.p.46).
43. *The US disapproved of the Suez intervention and thereafter she switched once more to the **wooing** of Nasser* (Churchill and Churchill, 1967:34)
44. *The spread of Western-style nationalist ideology; the emergence of a Western-educated elite who were denied full accesses to political power; the postwar economic weakness of Western colonial powers; and the opposition of the superpower states to old-style overseas empire – all of these factors contributed to the fairly rapid **dismantling** of territorial empire after World War II* (Spellman, 2006:103-104).

After having analyzed all the examples of gerundive and non-gerundive nominalizations functioning as the Recipient, we noticed that the entities undertaking the semantic function of the Recipient are always inanimate. However, they were able to receive particular actions or goods.

8.2. The realization of gerundive and non-gerundive nominalizations in mental process clauses

Not like material processes, which are dynamic, mental processes are stative and they express involuntary states that, according to Downing and Locke (2003:126), do not hinge on the agency of the entity which is seen as the perceiver. Generally, there are two types of verbs that are used to express mental processes, namely, volitional (e.g.: *look, watch, listen*, ect.) and non-volitional (e.g.: *see, hear*). However, some verbs such as *feel, smell, taste* may indicate both, volitional and non-volitional processes.

Like other types of process clauses, mental process clauses usually have two participants present, namely, *the Senser, or the Experiencer*, and *the Phenomenon*. In this part of our research we are going to analyze the realization of gerundive and non-gerundive nominalizations in mental process clauses.

8.2.1. The semantic function of the *Phenomenon*

It is known that usually in mental process clauses there are two participants present: the Senser, i.e. the entity which is able to perceive something and the Phenomenon, i.e. “that which is perceived or sensed” (Valeika and Buitkienė, 2006:70). Downing and Locke (2003:125), indicate that the Phenomenon may be not only what one feels, thinks or sees, but it also may be a thing that is realized by a noun or a noun group. Moreover, it should be added that the notion of the Phenomenon “can also be a fact, a process or an entire situation, realised by a clause” (ibid.p.125). In other words, the Phenomenon is such participant of mental process clauses which can be perceived or known and, also, it may be some fact or a process that is expressed through a noun or an entire clause. The linguists (2006:127) also indicate that in such processes as seeing, hearing and feeling, the English language enables the Phenomenon to express a complete or incomplete situation. Furthermore, in mental processes of cognition the Phenomenon may designate either some concrete entities or the ones which are abstract. Cf:

45. *He advocated **calling** upon all the states to appoint representatives for a meeting to be held the following spring in Philadelphia* (Cincotta, 1994:87).
 46. *Frome, in the same county, experienced machine **breaking** in December 1797* (Morgan, 2004:80).
 47. *The CIA considered **assassinating** Lumumba but he was dismissed from the office in September 1960* (McCauley, 2004:51).
 48. *The capacity had been there but the US President was concerned about **spending** a space vehicle over enemy territory* (ibid.p.52).
 49. *The likelihood of this, however, was slim, give the fact that Chernenko was more concerned about **breathing** (he suffered from emphysema) than meeting the President* (ibid.p.80).
- Vs.
50. *Che Guevara told Mykoyan that the Soviets had ‘offended our **feelings** by not consulting us’ about the withdrawal of the missiles* (McCauley, 2004:57-58).
 51. *A young fellow by the name of Naphtali who stood at an observation post and noticed the **beginning** of a left flank movement ran all over the position, shooting and reconnoitering until he was hit* (Churchill and Churchill, 1967:135).
 52. *Troops on top of Mount Scopus heard the **clanking** of tanks coming up the road towards Jerusalem from Jericho* (ibid.p.139).

53. *Not only did the Chinese openly criticize Khrushchev's **handling** of the Cuban missile crisis in 1962, alleging that Moscow had abandoned a fellow communist state, but during the following year Mao's government condemned the Russians for providing military hardware to China's enemy, India* (Spellman, 2006:44).

8.3. The realization of gerundive and non-gerundive nominalizations in relational process clauses

To cite Halliday (2004:213), “in ‘relational’ clause in English, there are always two inherent participants – two ‘be-ers’”. This means that not like other types of processes which have only one inherent participant (e.g.: in material process clauses the inherent participant is the Agent), relational processes always have two inherent participants present, namely, the Carrier and the Attribute. Moreover, it should be mentioned that the process itself has less meaning than other types of processes (e.g.: material processes or mental processes), and is used only to relate the Carrier to its Attribute (Valeika and Buitkienė, 2006:83).

In this part the inherent semantic functions of gerundive and non-gerundive nominalizations, namely, the semantic function of the Carrier and the semantic function of the Attribute are analyzed.

8.3.1. The semantic function of the *Carrier*

The term Carrier, according to Halliday (2004:219), is used to denote “the ‘carrier’ of the ‘attribute’”. To put it other way round, the Carrier is the inherent participant of a relational process clause which is characterized by the Attribute. Valeika and Buitkienė (2006:84) point out that the notion of the Carrier refers to the “possessor of the properties”, i.e. the Carrier is the entity which possessed something (e.g.: some features, characteristics or properties that are typical of some class). Moreover, we should add that the Carrier may be stative or non-stative, i.e. may express some permanent characteristics or some momentary attribute (ibid.p.86). However, not all adjectives that are used as Attributes of the Carrier are able to realize the two functions. In some cases we cannot say that the Carrier is being *pretty*, *tall*, etc. (Valeika and Buitkienė, 2006:86). Cf. *James is a handsome young man.* vs. *James is being a handsome man.* The adjective *handsome* cannot be used in the second case, because we do not say that someone is being handsome or pretty. Consider the following examples:

54. *An old immigrant **saying** is that “America beckons, but Americans repel”* (Cincotta, 1994:219).

55. *His **thinking** was clearly utopian* (McCauley, 2004:7).

56. **Reaping, mowing, threshing** and **gleaning** were part of the annual cycle in cereal agriculture (Morgan, 2004:8).
 57. *The census of 1851 showed that **manufacturing** and **mining** was the largest employment category, accounting for 43 per cent of the full-time workforce, followed by agriculture, forestry and fishing with 22 per cent, trade and transport with 16 per cent, domestic and personal employment with 13 per cent, and public, professional and other jobs with 6 per cent (ibid.p.8).*
 58. **Maintaining** the law was also the traditional preserve of an unpaid magistracy (ibid.p.92).
 59. **Mediating** these two perspectives is difficult, even one decade after the end of the ideological conflict (Spellman, 2006:60).
 60. **Nationalizing** the canal was a bold gamble by Nasser's military government (ibid.p.98).
- Vs.
61. *Otherwise, American **dealings** with Japan during the latter half of the 19th century and well into the 20th century were mainly cordial and uneventful (Cincotta, 1994:201).*
 62. *The **proceedings** at the well-known centre of Radicalism were orderly but disappointing, especially to working men like Samuel Bamford who had come up from the provinces expecting a great occasion and prepared to admire the leaders of whom they had heard so much (Hunt, 1978:47).*
 63. *Hence, the **stopping** and **reversing** of the arms race was of paramount importance (McCauley, 2004:30).*
 64. *The **meeting** was tense and painful for both Genscher and Gorbachev (ibid.p.92).*
 65. *The clear **meaning** of what was said to Mr Brown and at a subsequent press conference in Moscow yesterday is that the Russians believe that they have little to lose and all to gain from a serious weakening, if not total defeat, of the most Western-oriented nation in the Middle East – short of escalation into a major war (Churchill and Churchill, 1967:48).*
 66. *The **feeling** of triumph over evil was especially compelling for those who had witnessed the many trials of parliamentary democracy during the first half of the twentieth century (Spellman, 2006:12).*
 67. *The basic **training** for officers on the reserve is 42/58 days annually, 36 for NCOs and 30 for privates (Churchill and Churchill, 1967:61).*

The research has showed that the semantic function of the Carrier is typical for both, gerundive and non-gerundive nominalizations in the corpus under investigation. Overall, out of 600 examples of both types of nominalizations 63 tokens were found with the semantic function of the Carrier.

8.3.2. The semantic function of the *Attribute*

An entity which has something ascribed or attributed to it is known as the Attribute (Halliday, 2004:219). To cite Downing and Locke (2003:131), “the contribution of the Attribute is to characterize the Carrier or to identify it”. In other words, the Attribute gives certain characteristics to the main participant of the relational process, i.e. the Carrier. Furthermore, it should be emphasized that the relationship between the two inherent participants is very close. The linguists (ibid.p.131) note that “the Carrier is in some way the Attribute”. We should also add that two types of Attribute can be distinguished, namely, characterizing Attribute and identifying Attribute. Thus some Attributes give certain characteristics to the Carrier and others are used to identify the Carrier. Nevertheless, Valeika and Buitkienė (2006:85) draw attention to the fact that the Attribute is such participant of the relational processes which conveys new information.

Moreover, Halliday (2004:219), argues that the nominal group that functions as the Attribute in a relational process clause “construes a class of thinking and is typically indefinite: it has either an adjective or a common noun as Head and if appropriate an indefinite article”. Hence, taking into consideration the fact that gerundive nominalizations cannot be used with such determiners as an adjective or an article, we could infer that only those cases when the Attribute has a common noun as Head are possible. Bearing in mind that entity and quality Attributes differ in the way they are expressed, one finds that Attributes denoting entity “are realized by nominal groups with Thing as head” and “quality Attributes are realized by nominal groups with Epithet as Head” (ibid.p.220). This shows that gerundive nominalizations can be used only as entity Attributes. Cf:

68. *This policy, however, well-intentioned, proved disastrous, since it allowed more **plundering** of Indian lands* (Cincotta, 1994:193).

69. *The most significant of these was **sharecropping**, where tenant farmers “shared” an institutional basis for cooperation among the nations of Americas* (ibid.p.199).

70. *By 1130 there was **firing** all along the Jordanian border and shells from the Jordanians’ long Tom guns in Kalkilya were falling on Tel Aviv while others, from positions further to the north, were exploding in the vicinity of the major airbase of Ramat David* (Churchill and Churchill, 1967:128).

71. *Some of the legionnaires retreating from the front line took cover inside the buildings, and so there was house-to-house **firing*** (ibid.p.136).

Vs.

72. *But there was a strong **feeling** among people of every walk of life that if the Arabs wanted a war they could have it* (Churchill and Churchill, 1967:66).

73. *At 3 pm on Thursday there was a **meeting** of the Secretariat of Mapai at which 24 people spoke* (ibid.p.59).

74. *Most settlers who came to America in the 17th century were English, but there were also Dutch, Swedes and Germans in the middle region, a few French Huguenots in South Carolina and elsewhere, slaves from Africa, primarily in the South, and a **scattering** of Spaniards, Italians and Portuguese throughout the colonies* (Cincotta, 1994:30).
75. *In 1817 there were an excellent harvest and the **beginnings** of a trade revival, so the next year brought some easing of hardship in most areas* (Hunt, 1978:51).

As can be seen from the above given examples, Attributes expressed by gerundive and non-gerundive nominalizations were denoting a certain entity. Moreover, the Attributes were always preceded by the verbal form *to be*.

8.4. The realization of gerundive and non-gerundive nominalizations in verbal process clauses

Before starting to analyze the realization of gerundive and non-gerundive nominalizations in verbal process clauses, it should be explained what kind of process type is verbal process. Hence, verbal process, according to Valeika (1998: 16), belongs to the main type of processes. Some linguists (e.g.: Downing and Locke, 2003; Eggins, 2004; Valeika and Buitkienė, 2006) explain the notion of verbal process as a process of saying and communicating that are expressed by such verbs as *say, mention, notify, inform, reveal, indicate, suggest, state, etc.* Eggins (2004:235) claims that in verbal process clauses there are three participants present, namely, the Sayer, the Receiver and the Verbiage. Nevertheless, Downing and Locke (2003:136), Valeika and Buitkienė (2006:80), point out that most often in a verbal process clause there are only two participants present, i.e. the Sayer and the Verbiage and that only in some cases the Receiver may be found.

The main inherent semantic functions (the Sayer and the Verbiage) of verbal process clauses are discussed below in greater detail.

8.4.1. The semantic function of the *Sayer*

Thus the main participant of a verbal process clause is known as the sayer. It is the participant representing the speaker and who communicates. To cite Valeika and Buitkienė (2006:80), “the Sayer says something or conveys information to somebody (the Recipient)”. Typically the Sayer is human and conscious. However, Downing and Locke (2003:136) draw

attention to the fact that the Sayer can be any entity which is able to produce a communicative signal. This shows that the Sayer does not need to be human, i.e. the semantic role of the Sayer may be taken by any entity either animate or inanimate, e.g.: *a sign, a book, a movement, a man, a gesture*, etc.

Furthermore, it could be said that verbal processes are rather similar to material processes in the way that their participants may either perform an action or may be affected by an action. Let us elaborate, the semantic function of the Sayer in a verbal process clause is similar to that of the Agent in a material process clause, because both of them are a kind of doers, i.e. are able to perform an action. Consequently, the Sayer is a rather self-sufficient entity which is able to transmit information. Cf:

76. *Estimating real wages for the labouring population requires gathering data on money wages for various occupations and adjusting for inflation, and providing indices on wholesale prices for goods consumed* (Morgan, 2004:26).

77. *Breaking out of these conditions required unprecedented amounts of aid from the international community* (Spellman, 2006:168).

Vs.

78. *All through the summer of 1786, popular conventions and informal gatherings in several states demanded reform in the state administrations* (Cincotta, 1994:85).

Examples with gerundive and non-gerundive nominalizations having the semantic function of the Sayer were the least frequently met in the corpus under investigation. Out of 600 examples only 3 tokens were found having this semantic function.

8.4.2. The semantic function of the *Verbiage*

As we have already mentioned before, verbal process clauses usually contain two participants: the Sayer and the Verbiage. The term *Verbiage* is used to define information which is conveyed by the Sayer (Valeika and Buitkienė, 2006:80). The linguists note that “the Verbiage is a kind of Affected Patient” (ibid.p.80). In other words, the semantic role of the Verbiage in verbal process clause is similar to that of the Affected Patient in a material process clause, because it is affected by the Sayer. As noted by Halliday (2004:255), the Verbiage is a semantic function that is consistent to what is said and that represents what is said as a class and not as a report or a quote. The linguist (ibid.p.256) distinguishes two types of Verbiage, namely, “the

content of what is said” and “the name of the saying”. In the first case the Verbiage may formulate the topic of what is said (ibid.p.256).

What regards the realization of the Verbiage, it should be said that the Verbiage in verbal process clauses may be expressed by a nominal word-combination or by a projecting clause (Valeika and Buitkienė, 2006:82). To cite Eggins (2004:235), “the Verbiage is a nominalized statement of the verbal process: a noun expressing some kind of verbal behaviour (statement, questions, retort, answer, story)”. In other words, Verbiage is any nominalized verbal process put out by the Sayer. Consider the given examples:

79. *He advocated **calling** upon all the states to appoint representatives for a meeting to be held the following spring in Philadelphia* (Cincotta, 1994:87).

Vs.

80. *On 1 May 1960 the Russians announced the **downing** of a U2 spy plane, with pilot Gary Powers taken alive, near Sverdlovsk (now Ekaterinburg)* (McCauley, 2004:54).

81. *It was Brzezinski who articulated the **thinking** behind Cold War II, which can be dated from Soviet intervention in Afghanistan* (ibid.p.75).

In the 600 examples of gerundive and non-gerundive nominalizations that were analyzed the semantic function of the Verbiage was one of the least frequently met semantic functions in the corpus under investigation. Overall, out of 600 only 3 examples with this semantic function were found.

8.5. The realization of gerundive and non-gerundive nominalizations in happening process clauses

Halliday (2004:248) refers to the process type defined by Valeika and Buitkienė (2006:65) as happening, as behavioural process. The linguist (ibid.p.248) indicates that behavioural process clauses are typically human and are concerned with psychological and physiological behaviour (e.g.: breathing, coughing, dreaming, etc.). Moreover, it should be added that behavioural process clauses do not have a clearly designated characteristics and that they have some features of both, material and mental process clauses. However, we agree with Valeika and Buitkienė (2006:65), who consider behavioural processes as a type of happening processes. Hence, the happening processes are involuntary processes in which the participant is not able to control the process. Lock (:88) uses the term *Affected* to label such participants.

Downing and Locke (2003:138), on the other hand allocate the happening processes to the type of existential processes. Hence “existential processes are processes of existing and happening” (ibid.p.138). The linguists label the participant of such processes the Existent. Nevertheless, in our work we will be using the term *Behaver* to define the main participant of happening process clauses.

In this part of our study the realization of the inherent semantic functions of happening process are analyzed.

8.5.1. The semantic function of the *Behaver*

The participant in a happening process clause is termed *the Behaver*, i.e. “the participant who is behaving” (Halliday, 2004:220). Despite that the Behaver is human and conscious it is not able to control the process on its own. Thus the entity functioning as the Behaver is manipulated by the process. To cite Valeika and Buitkienė (2006:65), “not all processes have a participant who/which carries out the process by means of its own energy”. It could be said that the notion of the Behaver is similar to that of the Affected Patient, because the Behaver undergoes the happening process. Consider the following examples:

82. ***Drilling*** had taken place, it was stated, so that such a huge crowd could be handled in an orderly way (Hunt, 1978:52).
 83. ***Fighting*** continued intermittently throughout the night but by 1000 hours the next morning [Tuesday], following an air-strike by the Israeli Air Force, the Egyptians beat a retreat closely pursued by a detachment of Yoffe’s tanks (Churchill & Churchill, 1967:112).
 84. By the time ***firing*** ceased their positions had been overwhelmed and 1500 Egyptians lay dead on the battlefield (ibid.p.111).
 85. ***Bombing*** of North Vietnam began in February 1965 (McCauley, 2004:59).
 86. Elsewhere, workers’ demonstrations, ***jostling*** of officials and angry meetings took place (Morgan, 2004:70).
 87. Branding was abolished in 1779 and ***whipping*** declined in the 1780s (ibid.p.95).
 88. ***Flogging*** continued in the armed forces, but even that was subject to a reform campaign in the early nineteenth century (ibid.p.95).
- Vs.
89. The Hungarian ***uprising*** and the Anglo – French invasion of Egypt occurred in 1956, the latter leading to the Russians threatening to intervene on the Egyptian side (McCauley, 2004:26).
 90. The ***shelling*** increased in intensity (Churchill and Churchill, 1967:134).

91. Thus the **fighting** went on with officers and men running back and forth carrying ammunition and encouraging the fighting forces (ibid.p.135).
92. In New York the **wagging** of tongues continued as the Soviet representative, Federenko, hurried to put before the Security Council a resolution demanding that a cease-fire should take effect from 8 pm (GMT) on the evening of June 7 (ibid.p.161).
93. The **meeting** ended in failure, and in February 2001 the Israeli political pendulum swung again: Barak was voted out of office and a hard-line Likud government led by Ariel Sharon took power (Spellman, 2006:146).

The collected examples showed that the gerundive and non-gerundive nominalizations undertaking the semantic function of the Behavior are always inanimate. The semantic function of the Behavior is similar to that of the Affected Patient, because it was in some way operated upon by another entity.

The statistical arrangement of the results obtained during our research is provided below in Figure 1.

Figure 1 depicts the frequency of gerundive and non-gerundive nominalizations in history discourse.

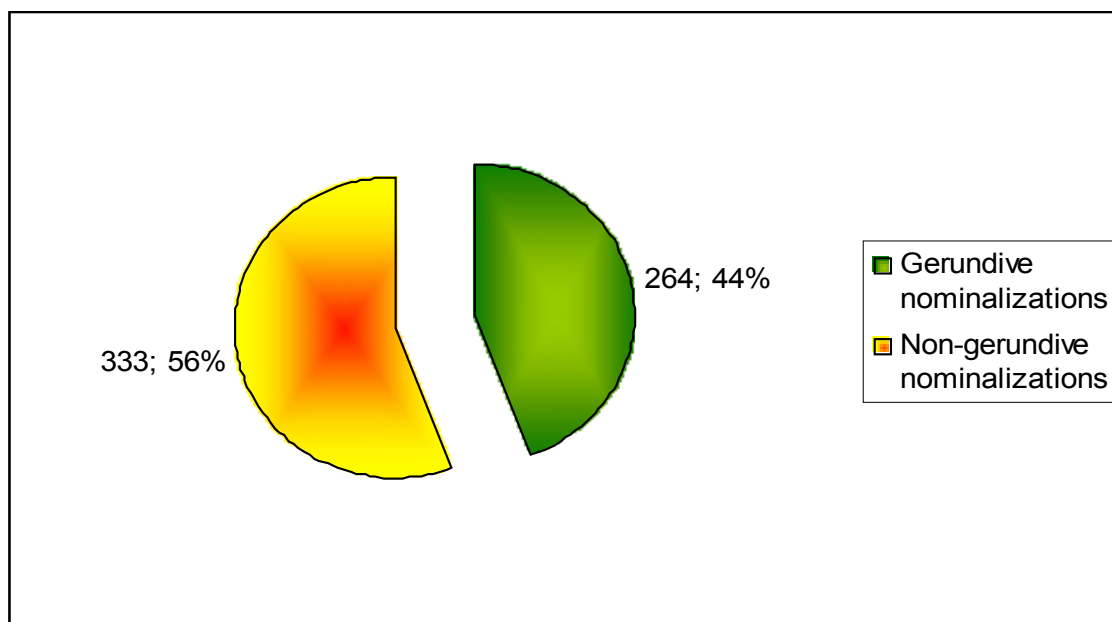


Fig.1. The usage of gerundive and non-gerundive nominalizations in history discourse

As it can be seen from the above given figure, non-gerundive nominalizations are more commonly used in history discourse than gerundive nominalizations. Out of 600 examples 333 tokens (56%) were found with non-gerundive nominalizations. Out of 600 examples only 264 tokens (44%) were found with gerundive nominalizations.

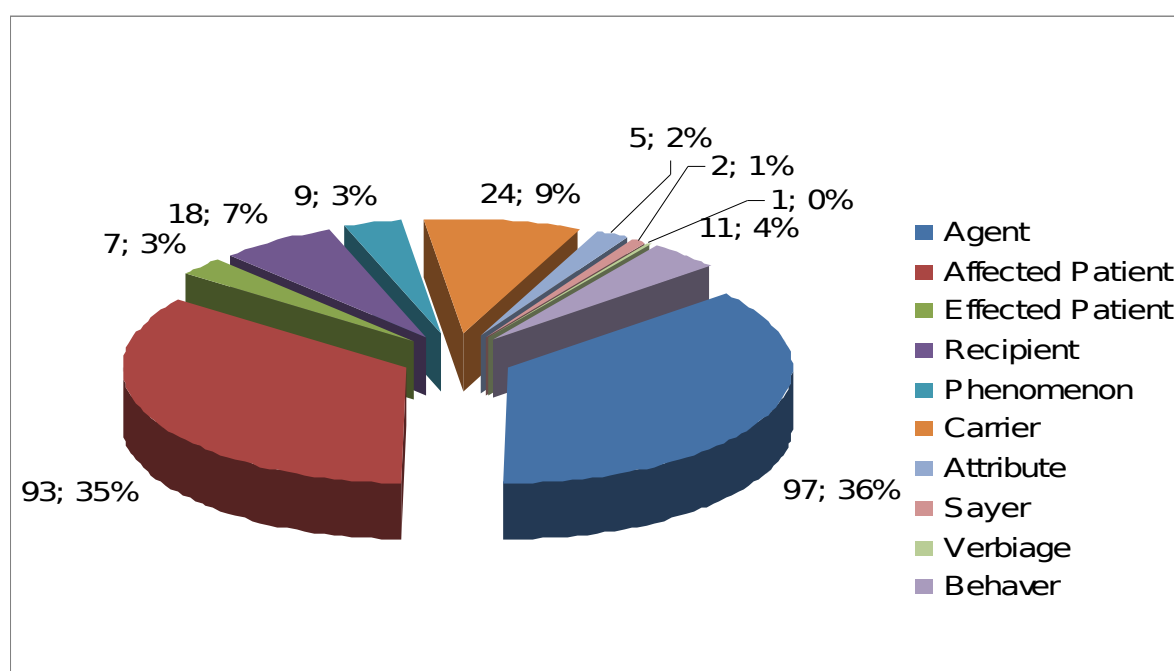


Fig.2. The semantic functions of gerundive nominalizations in history discourse

Figure 2 shows the frequency of the semantic functions taken by gerundive nominalizations in history discourse. Out of 600 examples of gerundive and non-gerundive nominalizations 267 examples in the corpus under investigation were found of gerundive nominalizations. Hence, the most commonly found semantic function realized by gerundive nominalizations was the Agent – out of 267 examples 97 tokens (36%) were found. 93 tokens (35%) were found with the semantic function of the Affected Patient. 24 tokens (9%) were found with the semantic function of the Carrier and 18 tokens (7%) were with gerundive nominalizations functioning as the Recipient. Out of 267 examples 11 tokens (4%) were found of gerundive nominalizations functioning as the Behavior, and 9 tokens (3%) were found with the semantic function of the Phenomenon. Comparing with other semantic functions, the semantic function of the Attribute was infrequent in the corpus under investigation. Out of 267 tokens only 5 tokens (2%) were found with nominalizations having this semantic function. 2 tokens

(1%) were found with gerundive nominalizations functioning as the Sayer were found, and out of 267 examples only 1 token (0%) was found with the semantic function of the Verbiage.

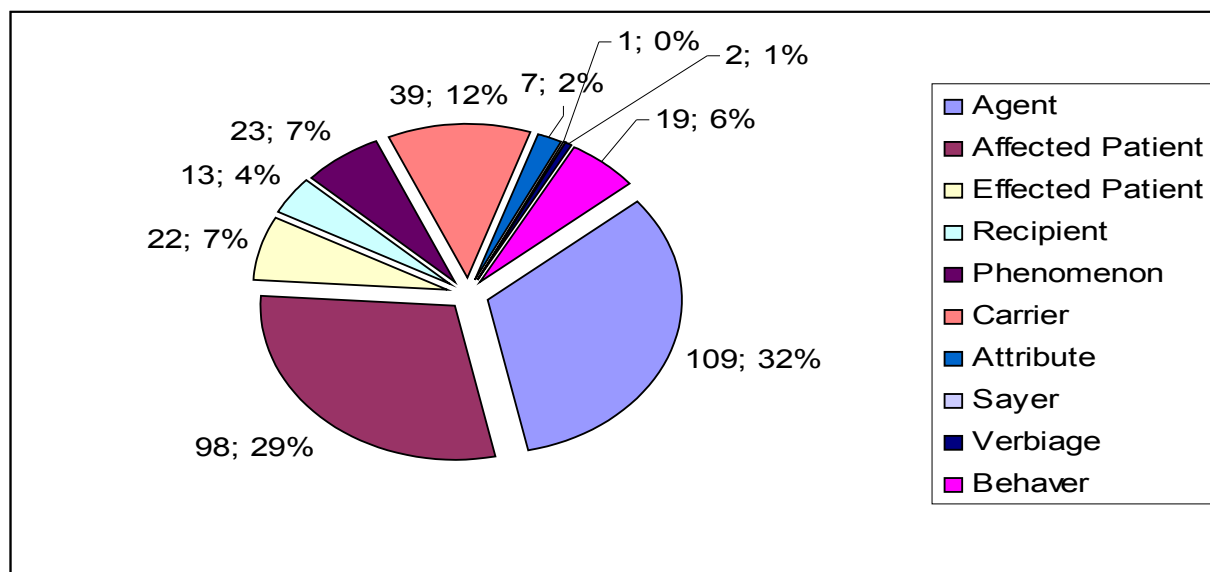


Fig.3. The semantic functions of non-gerundive nominalizations in history discourse

Figure 3 depicts what semantic functions were undertaken by non-gerundive nominalizations in the 600 examples that were collected for our research. Overall in the corpus under investigation 333 examples out of 600 examples were found with non-gerundive nominalizations. The most frequently met semantic function was the Agent – 109 tokens out of 333 were found. 98 tokens out of 333 were found with the semantic function of the Affected Patient. Non-gerundive nominalizations having the semantic function of the Carrier were less frequently met – out of 333 examples, only 39 tokens were found of such nominalizations. There were 23 tokens found with nominalizations functioning as the Phenomenon and 19 tokens out of 333 examples were found of non-gerundive nominalizations undertaking the semantic function of the Behavior. Different from the Affected Patient, the semantic function of the Effectuated Patient in history discourse was seldomly found – out of 333 examples only 22 tokens were found of nominalizations functioning as Effectuated Patients. 13 tokens were found with non-gerundive nominalizations having the semantic function of the Recipient, and only 7 tokens out of 333 examples were found with non-gerundive nominalizations functioning as the Attribute. In the corpus under investigation examples with non-gerundive nominalizations undertaking the semantic functions of the Sayer and the Verbiage were most infrequent – out of 333 examples only 2 tokens were found with non-gerundive nominalizations functioning as the Verbiage and only 1 token was found with non-gerundive nominalization functioning as the Sayer.

The conclusions of our research are provided in the following part.

CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of the present paper has been to analyze the semantic functions of gerundive and non-gerundive nominalizations in history discourse. In this part the conclusions drawn from the analysis of the 600 examples that were collected for our research are presented.

1. To begin with, it should be said that the analysis proved the hypothesis that gerundive nominalizations in history discourse have the same inherent semantic functions as non-gerundive nominalizations. Hence, based on the results of the research, it can be stated that the two types of nominalizations in history discourse have the following inherent semantic functions: *Agent*, *Affected Patient*, *Effected Patient*, *Recipient*, *Phenomenon*, *Carrier*, *Attribute*, *Sayer*, *Verbiage* and *Behaver* that were realized in the above mentioned process clauses.
2. During the research, it was ascertained that the term *nominalization* has a double meaning, i.e. it is used to name the process of noun formation from words that belong to other word classes, and also it is used to refer to a noun or a noun phrase that is derived from another part of speech or a clause.
3. The term *gerundive* stands for a verbal noun that is derived from a verb by adding the suffix *-ing*. Considering the usage of gerundive nominalizations, it should be pointed out that gerundive nominalizations may be used with various determiners, namely, with prepositions, nouns in the genitive or in the common case, possessive pronouns. Moreover, one of the main indicators of a gerundive nominalization is the *of-phrase*. Different from gerundive nominalizations, non-gerundive nominalizations are used with the following determiners: *adjectives*, *demonstrative pronouns*, *articles*, etc. In addition, only non-gerundive nominalizations can be used in the plural form.
4. History discourse is a special type of discourse, which deals with chronological and objective reporting of historical facts and events. For this reason many historians apply nominalization as a powerful tool to create a consistent and coherent narrative. Moreover, nominalizations help historians to disassociate themselves from their narrative and so any unnecessary interpretations are avoided.

5. All human experiences may be subdivided into two categories – inner and outer experiences. Each type of experience is realized by a certain process clause. There are three main types of processes distinguished, namely, material process, mental process and relational process. Our investigation showed that in history discourse gerundive and non-gerundive nominalizations may be related to the following types of processes: material, mental, relational, verbal and happening.
6. The research on gerundive and non-gerundive nominalizations in history discourse showed that non-gerundive nominalizations are used more often than gerundive nominalizations. Out of 600 examples that were collected only 267 (44, 5%) examples were found of gerundive nominalizations, i.e. only 44, 5% of all nominalizations that have been analyzed were gerundive. Other 333 examples, or 55.5%, were non-gerundive nominalizations.
7. Considering the inherent semantic functions of gerundive nominalizations it was observed that the most frequently found semantic function of gerundive nominalizations in the corpus under investigation was that of the Agent – out of 267 examples 97 tokens (36%) were found. 93 tokens (35%) were found with the semantic function of the Affected Patient. The least frequently found semantic functions were those of the Sayer – out of 267 examples only 2 tokens (1%) were found, and the Verbiage -out of 267 examples only 1 token (0%) was found.
8. The most frequently met semantic function of non-gerundive nominalizations in the corpus under investigation was the Agent – 109 tokens out of 333 examples were found. 98 tokens were found with the semantic function of the Affected Patient. Non-gerundive nominalizations functioning as the Sayer and the Verbiage were the least seldomly found. Out of 333 examples only 2 tokens were found with non-gerundive nominalizations functioning as the Verbiage and only 1 token was found with non-gerundive nominalization functioning as the Sayer.

To sum up, the research on the semantic functions of gerundive and non-gerundive nominalizations in history discourse has showed that both types of nominalizations have the same semantic functions, however, cases with non-gerundive nominalizations were more frequently found.

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