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Master Work

**SUBJECTIVIZED GRAMMATICAL METAPHOR
IN TRANSLATION**

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Šiauliai, 2008

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Introduction

Subjectivized grammatical metaphor as subject of linguistic research has been studied intensively for the last forty years, taking into consideration different approaches based on various objectives. Each approach is connected with different questions, including the data and gives results, which create the appropriate foundation in order different types of classification, generalization and argumentation to be created. For the first time it was mentioned in the works by Halliday (1980, 1985), afterwards the conception of it was clarified by his followers: Thomson (1997), Downing and Locke (1992), also by our Lithuanian scientists Valeika (1998) and Sušinskienė (2004).

The current study is an attempt to present some variants of the translation of a subjectivized grammatical metaphor and to demonstrate the application of theoretical background in practice.

It is significant to take into consideration the potential of a subjectivized grammatical metaphor. In its own turn the semantic potential of a subjectivized grammatical metaphor is defined on the basis of semantic properties of the underlying verb.

The aim and the objectives of the present study

The aim of the present study is to examine the possibilities of the translation of a subjectivized grammatical metaphor from English into Lithuanian.

The objectives of the study

In order to achieve this aim the following objectives have been set:

- 1) to define the concept of a subjectivized grammatical metaphor;
- 2) to define the concept of nominalization as one type of subjectivized grammatical metaphor;
- 3) to explicate subjectivized grammatical metaphors and their translations according to the types of processes;
- 4) to analyze the translation of subjectivized grammatical metaphor from the syntactic point of view.

In order the mentioned objectives to be achieved the collected examples were analyzed by employing translation, descriptive and statistical methods. By means of the

descriptive method all the examples of a subjectivized grammatical metaphor were classified and described. By means of translation method all the examples were divided into different groups. By means of statistical method the frequency of the possible translation possibilities of a subjectivized grammatical metaphor were illustrated and figures drawn.

The novelty of the present study

In spite of this fact, that this subject was examined by a great number of respectful scholars, their attention was focused of the separate theoretical aspects of a subjectivized grammatical metaphor. However, this work in the first attempt to present the practical application of the translation of a subjectivized grammatical metaphor.

The theoretical and practical value of the present study

- 1) it contributes to the further development of translation process;
- 2) it contributes to the development of literary process (the process of writing creative works) and teaching of reading (interpretation) of English fiction.

The materials and methods of the present study

The practical application of a subjectivized grammatical metaphor is based on approximately 830 examples of a subjectivized grammatical metaphor, about 391 of them drawn from “The Forsyte Saga” by J. Galsworthy, about 370 from “Dombey and Son” by Ch. Dickens and more or less 30 of them from “The Old Curiosity Shop” by Ch. Dickens.

The methods

The descriptive method was used to reveal, classify and describe the subjectivized grammatical metaphors and explicate their rendering into the Lithuanian language.

The contrastive method was used to show the differences of the use of subjectivized grammatical metaphor in English and Lithuanian.

The statistical method was used to reveal the frequency of subjectivized grammatical metaphors according to the patterns of translation.

1. Theoretical overview of nominalization as one type of grammatical metaphor

Functional grammarians made great attempts in the studies of nominalizations in 1980s, two different directions in the study of nominalizations were defined: the first direction was considered to be more theoretical, the other, a less 'formalist' direction, which ends towards Halliday's General Theory of Phenomenon of Nominalization called by him as **grammatical metaphor** (1985). The publication by Halliday (1985, 1994), Martin (1992), Lock (1996), and Thompson (1997) are most significant. In the opinion of Halliday nominalization is the result of metaphorization of the *Process*. Due to this reason, the process of nominalization is realized as *Entity*. This is considered to be the most common type of *grammatical metaphor*.

The process of nominalization is in the dependency of a text and based on an underlying proposition which is the set of the relationships of the verb. Downing and Lock (1992: 149) argue that "here grammar borders on lexis, and different languages have different means of visualizing one semantic function as if it were another. There is usually some slight difference in meaning, when they are translated into another language."

Bogdanov (1977: 159) points out, that nominalization plays a key role in the semantic system of a language. As a result of this process, nominalization is transferred from the matrix position to an exclusive position, i.e. it is reduced in rank.

According to Halliday and Matthiessen (1999:229) the systematic – functional perspective of nominalizations is related in a very close way with grammatical metaphor due to this reason, that nominalization is presented as the main basis on the foundation of which the concept of grammatical metaphor must be established. Consequently, the perception of grammatical metaphor as a phenomenon is conveyed through metaphorical categories in a great majority of cases, however, typical or congruent lexico-grammatical realizations of semantic categories are used considerably less in order this phenomenon of grammatical metaphor to be established. A nominalized structure like *the cast's brilliant acting* is considered to be the metaphorical equivalent of the clause *the cast acted brilliantly*. Systemic – functional approach concerns nominalizations in a great majority of cases, consequently, the assignation of paradigmatic features of nominalization is one of the most significant aspects of the metaphorical interpretation of nominalizations.

Furthermore, in order the meaning of a nominalization to be defined in an appropriate and complete way the identification and analysis of both the metaphorical and the congruent

realizations is considered to be essential. To quote Halliday (1994:353) “a piece of wording that is metaphorical has as it were an additional dimension of meaning: it means, both metaphorically and congruently”.

Gleason (1965) states, that the concept of agnation must be used in order the relationship between paradigmatic variants like *the cast's brilliant acting* and the *cast acted brilliantly* to be described in an appropriate way. Ravelli (1998:141) claims, that every structure has “an agnate form corresponding to its congruent realization”. Agnation is used in metaphorical analyses of nominalizations in order the following tendencies concerning a closer analysis to be revealed. The beginning of this work is considered to be finding one construction which can act as the congruent agnate of the nominalization and includes all syntagmatic approaches of proper English. This statement is based on the following examples by Ravelli (1988: 134): ... *her sailing out of the room/ she sailed out of the room*.

Halliday (1994:349) shows the same fact in his following example: *the writing of business programs/ people can write business programs*.

There are more examples by Halliday and Matthiessen (1999:229) illustrating this point: *the cast's brilliant acting/ the cast acted brilliantly*.

Matthiessen (1995:356-357) also gives very evident examples of this point: *him preparing dinner/he prepared dinner*.

The congruent agnate of a deverbal nominalization is distinguished from de-adjectival nominalization such like *long (length)*. Matthiessen (1995:678) states this type of nominalization to be clausal due to this reason, that nominal groups may act as metaphorical realizations of process configurations when the alteration is performed with congruent clauses. This statement is illustrated by Halliday's (1994:353) examples: *the allocation of an extra/they allocate a packer/extra packer*.

The other example by Halliday and Matthiessen (1999:244) is also worth noticing: *the government's decision/ the government decided*.

Matthiessen (1995:356) states, that functional insight contain actual analyses of nominalizations, their congruent agnates and the relationship between them. The comparison of realization of ideational functions in clauses and their metaphorical equivalents is worth being distinguished because of their particular features due to which nominalizations are described as ‘ideational’ metaphors. This type of metaphors is considered to be the main resource in order the connection between experiential and logical comprehension to be described.

According to Matthiessen (1995:356) the semantic process is defined in an congruent way as the Process in the transitivity structure of the clause, however, this process can be

nominalized through grammatical metaphor and it can be represented through the categories of participant and circumstance, the other elements of the structure are valid in this case as well.

Matthiessen (1995:101) claims, that nominalization can be defined as the process, which makes non-nominal structural elements function as nominal elements. In this regard a nominalization is considered to be the process, when a verb is changed into a noun or into an appropriate combination of nouns, for instance **die** becomes **death**. In other cases it can be a clause, finite or non-finite, that comes to function at nominal process.

Halliday (1994) points out, that in case a nominalization **his death** and its variant **he died** is not considered to be synonymous, then it can't be treated to be systematically related in their meaning.

Ravelli (1999) states, that if comparisons are close in their meanings, the nominalization is considered to be the identification and interpretation of different structural units. The process of identification of these units is based on the paradigmatic structures or agnates. The process of agnation is used in order the phrase: *cleaning the kitchen* to be identified as the head in the nominalization: *Tom's cleaning the kitchen*. In this unit the central detail is *cleaning* only. In order relevant units to be identified in each type of nominalization the interpretation is performed with the help of agnation as well. Despite the fact that these two units only seem to be identical, the unit: *Tom's cleaning the kitchen* is different from the other unit: *Tom's cleaning of the kitchen* and due to this difference these phrases belong to different agnation networks and have distinct meanings. Moreover, an agnation network is considered to be essential to this reason that each particular nominalization is situated within its natural habitat, if the aspect of agnation was neglected in the metaphorical approach to nominalizations, it means, that structurally identical nominalizations can be identified with the help of namely that aspect of agnation.

Heyvaert (2003: 68) states, that the system of *-er* nominalization illustrates the statement, that the description of the agnation of nominalization should be *multifunctional*, but not conveyed only through identical categories. It is significant to notice, that experiential similarities and differences between metaphorical *-er* and its congruent agnates may be distinguished in a distant way, due to this reason they are considered to be referred to *interpersonal* categories.

Heyvaert (2003: 70) states, that this term "agnation" is used quite rarely by systemic-functional linguistic due to the existence of nominal structures, which are systematically related to nominalizations in terms of meaning and structure. This fact was introduced by Gleason (1965) in order the structures containing the same vocabulary items but different

inner structures to be described in an appropriate way because of their regular and systematic relation to structure. Consequently, under these circumstances general grammar rules can be applied. Gleason (1965: 211) singles out the importance, that agnate structures must be on the same grammatical level. This statement is illustrated in the following example by Gleason: *The boy runs / the boy is running*. In this case the clause is changed into a nominalized equivalent. Consequently, there are certain conditions of agnation, which must be fulfilled in order nominalizations and their nominal groups to express the same semantic meaning.

Furthermore, agnation is used in the actual systemic-functional system in order grammatical metaphor to be established and singled out. The concept of enation is also involved into the identification of agnate relations, so that structures would be analyzed by means of “two dimensional frames”.

In Gleason’s (1965: 201) opinion, construction can be involved into the process of enation only in this case, when they have identical structures, the units which they contain are the same structures, therefore, due to this reason they organize identical structures. This statement is illustrated in the following example by Gleason (1965: 202): *He heard it, he felt it, he saw it*. In the example above the enate relationship between the clauses is demonstrated. The units of these structures are organized into structurally identical combinations.

1. 1. Literary review of grammatical metaphor

According to Halliday (1985) the term “grammatical metaphor” is placed in a wider general framework showing the usually used types of “rhetorical transference” or ‘figures of speech’ such as: metaphor, metonymy and synecdoche. The traditional definition is expanded in order newly identified type, which is called “grammatical metaphor” to be established grammatical metaphor is considered to be the variation of the use of words, to quote Halliday (1985:321) “a word is said to be used with a transferred meaning”. Due to this reason, a lexeme with a certain *literal* meaning can express *metaphorical*, transferred uses or other meanings. It is also important to mention, that in order a particular meaning to be expressed the relevant question should be asked: which are the different ways so that this meaning would be expressed and realized? Because of this point of view metaphor is defined as “variation of in the expression of things” (ibid., emphasis MT).

Due to this reason metaphorical variation is considered to be lexico-grammatical rather than lexical. Consequently, different expressions of one meaning are compared. Alternative expressions of a given meaning are hard to be found, so that they would be

different from each other in one lexeme. The following example is given by Halliday: the expression *protests flooded* can be changed into *protests came in large quantities* or *protests were received in large quantities* or *very many people protested*. No one of these variants is purely lexical, the grammatical configurations are also different: in the sentence *protests came in large quantities* a prepositional phrase is added, however, in the other sentence *very many people protested* the noun is represented by the verb. The clarification of the examples like that creates the foundation, so that the concept of grammatical metaphor would be defined. To quote Halliday (1985:320, 342) “there is a strong grammatical element in rhetorical transference, and once we have recognized this we find, that there is also such a thing as grammatical metaphor, where the variation is expressed essentially in the grammatical forms although often entailing some lexical variant as well”.

Furthermore, Halliday (1985;342) claims, that the term ‘literal’ is not quite appropriate any more in order grammatical metaphor to be defined. The main point is, that grammatical metaphor is defined as variation of the *expression* of a given meaning, which is considered to be considerably better, than *the meaning* of a given expression. Consequently, the first point is, that grammatical configuration must be compared because of its traditional perspective. The meanings of a single lexeme create grammatical variations, which are interpreted in terms of grammatical metaphor. Therefore, the second point is, that different types of configurations can be compared as expressions of the same meaning. Because of traditional perspective a simple opposition between literal and metaphorized expressions can be defined, what is called the scale of congruence: some expressions are considered to be typical realizations of the given certain meanings, therefore, they must be defined as congruent. However, because of different meaning, the others can’t be treated in the same way, due to this reason they are called more or less incongruent. This particularity is considered to be essential in order the *description* of various types of grammatical metaphor to be established. The third point is the concept of realization of grammatical metaphor, which has its own significant place due to this reason, that different realizations can have the same meaning. This aspect is considered to be important in the *theoretical* description in order *theoretical* characterization of grammatical metaphor to be defined.

According to Halliday (1985), there are two types of grammatical metaphor: ideational and interpersonal. Ideational grammatical metaphors are called **metaphors of transitivity**. Because of grammatical variation between congruent and non-congruent forms the transitivity configurations can be applied and analyzed in terms of the functional structure of these configurations. Metaphorical nature is compared to an equivalent congruent realization in order incongruent expression to be brought out. Due to this reason functional analyses is

performed with the two expressions which are changed into a single diagram with a congruent and non-congruent layer in order grammatical contrasts between the constituents to be illustrated. Due to this clarification appropriate suggestions can be made why the certain metaphorical construal is chosen. This statement is illustrated in the following examples by Halliday (1985): *Mary came upon a wonderful sight/ A wonderful sight met Mary's eyes.* These two sentences can be expressed as metaphorical variants, for instance: *Mary saw something wonderful.*

Furthermore, according to Halliday (1985:328; 1994/1985:349) *a chain of metaphorical interpretations* can be indicated through the analysis of more complex types of transitivity metaphors. The description of them is considered to be the step between the metaphorical form under this analysis and a (completely) congruent expression. It is also worth mentioning, that there is a number of aspects about the distribution of transitivity metaphors. Ideational metaphors are found in all types of adult discourse.

In Halliday's (1985:328; 1994/1985:349) opinion, complete congruence and complete incongruence are considered to be quite rare. This scholar states, that ideational metaphors are more popular in written language than in spoken discourse. Due to this reason, written language is considered to be "lexically dense", while spoken language is "grammatically intricate". Consequently, in written language various lexical forms are quite frequently 'joined' into one single nominal group. Consequently, this is the foundation in order ideational metaphor to be established.

However, it is vital to observe, that according to Halliday (1985) grammatical metaphors sometimes lose their metaphorical nature and become 'domesticated' (ibid.). There are three examples of domesticated transitivity metaphors in English:

- 1) The expressions of the types '*have both*', '*do a dance*', '*make a mistake*'.
- 2) The expressions such as '*she has brown eyes*' (congruent would be *her eyes are brown*) or *she has a broken wrist* (congruent would be *her wrist is broken*)
- 3) Expressions such as: '*he writes good books*' (congruent would be: *he writes the books, which are good*).

According to Halliday (1985) the other type of a grammatical metaphor is called interpersonal grammatical metaphor, which is divided into two types: the metaphors of **mood** and **modality**. If the grammatical variation is based on the logico-semantic relationship, then **grammatical metaphor of modality** is established. Due to this reason modal meanings are congruently realized in modal elements in the clause, i.e. modal operators modal adjunct or mood adjuncts. Due to this reason interpersonal metaphors are defined as expressing modal meanings outside the clause by means of additional projecting clause. Therefore, the

metaphors of modality convey the exact realizations of modal meanings. Due to this reason speakers are given some freedom, because their opinions can be expressed in separated clauses and by various means. This statement is shown in the following example by Halliday (1985): *I think it is going to rain./ It is **probably** going to rain.* (Congruent)

Due to the great variety of expressions of modal meanings Halliday (1985:334; 1994/1985:355) claims, that it is not always easy to express the exact meaning due to this reason a metaphorical representation of modality can't be conveyed in an easy way either. Impersonal metaphor is characterized by two features:

1) When proposition is expressed in the projected clause. This is proved by the fact, that the tag represents projected clause, (Halliday:1985) for instance: *I think it is going to rain, isn't it? (not don't I?)*

2) When the proposition is negative, in this case the negation can be conveyed either by proposition itself or in the projecting clause. This statement is illustrated in the following examples by Halliday: *I think Jane doesn't know./I don't think, Jane knows.*

Halliday claims, that **metaphors of mood** must be described in a similar way as the **metaphors of modality** because of the same reasons, that in this type of interpersonal metaphor the meaning of mood is expressed in the clause. Halliday (1994/1985:365) states, that the typical examples of mood metaphors are considered to be “speech – functional forms”, which are demonstrated in the following examples by Halliday: *She'd better.../She should...*(Congruent).

Because of a great variety of all possible expressions of mood meanings, it is difficult to decide, if a given expression should be interpreted as a mood metaphor.

According to Halliday (1985:365) some expressions contain both interpersonal and ideational metaphors. This statement is illustrated in the following examples by Halliday: *Look at the way, they cheated before./ Consider the fact, they cheated before.*

This form is considered to be metaphorical only in the ideational sense. However, when an incongruent realization of the meaning ‘*the evidence is (the fact), that they cheated before*’ is taken, both interpersonal and ideational metaphors are involved into the phrase “*look at the way, they cheated before*”.

Halliday (1985:343, 1994/1985:366) claims, that the concept of grammatical metaphor “enables us to bring together a number of features of discourse which at first sight look rather different from each other”. Due to this reason interpersonal and ideational metaphors are involved into the same phenomenon arising in these two different contexts (ideational and interpersonal in the machine translation). Consequently, all the types of grammatical metaphor have the same features. To quote Halliday (1985:343, 1994/1985:366) “in all the

instances that we are dealing with grammatical metaphor some aspect of the structural configuration of the clause, whether in its ideational or in its interpersonal function or in both of them is in some way different, because would be arrived at by the shortest route – it is not, or was not originally, the most straightforward coding of the meanings selected”.

Halliday (1985:345) states that, the concept of an equivalent of lexical metaphor on the opposite end of the lexico-grammatical continuum is defined by this scholar. It is obvious that the recognition of this type of metaphor depends on a shift in perspective. The definition has to be started with semantic perception rather than the lexico-grammatical comprehension, which defines metaphor for the second time as variation in the expression of a certain meaning. The main features of grammatical metaphors are determined by the nature of this new perspective. Due to this reason *various configurations* are compared as alternative realizations of the same meaning. Consequently, their variation can be analyzed in terms of their functional *structures*, which let them be placed on the scale of congruence, therefore, the metaphorical variants are termed ‘incongruent’.

Ravelli (1988) distinguishes three main aspects of the analysis of ideational grammatical metaphor. The first aspect deals with general models explaining the phenomenon of grammatical metaphor, the second aspect concerns different types of ideational grammatical metaphor and the definitions in order grammatical metaphor to be recognized properly in a context, the third aspect clarifies the ways how grammatical metaphor influences the text. Ravelli (1988:139) offers ideational metaphors to be divided into nine types. Due to the semantic choice forms are the basis of each type of grammatical metaphor and are represented in terms of grammatical labels.

Ravelli (1988: 138) claims that material, mental, relational, verbal and behavioural processes are involved into the first group, all the rest processes belong to the second class, the third class contains these groups: the quality of a thing and a process, the fourth class consists of modality and modulation, the fifth class deals with logical connection, circumstances represent the sixth class, participants belong to the seventh group, the eighth group is described by the features of expansion and projection and the ninth group clarifies the features of circumstances.

According to Ravelli (1988:140) nominalization is considered to be the type of ideational metaphor “of which there is the greatest awareness”. This scholar also distinguishes the feature of syntagmatic plurality, which establishes two different levels, at which ideational metaphors can be analysed and defined. Ravelli (1988:142) claims, that such metaphorical realizations interact with each other. All the nine types of metaphors, as they were described above, are considered to be the metaphors which are in progress at a **micro level**, however,

the others, not classified by Ravelli, belong to **macro level**. This statement is illustrated in the following example by Ravelli (1988): *It will have a real impact on political thinking*. Four micro level metaphors ‘real’, ‘impact’, ‘political’ and ‘thinking’ are involved into this clause. They can be grouped into two macro level metaphors such as: ‘real impact’ and ‘political thinking’.

Ravelli (1988:142) claims, that both micro and macro levels of metaphors could be presented in the system network by means of simultaneous systems. Furthermore, Ravelli (1999:101) indicates the common meaning to be realized by different expressions. The meaning difference, which is connected with congruent and incongruent realization of this initial choice, would be presented as a system, the second stage of this analysis would be the model of semantic network (in this case it would be conveyed through the terms of “process” and “participant”). Ravelli (1999;101) states, that the realization of these further choices would be carried out through the lexico-grammar. However, a great amount of problems appear in the level of lexico-grammar due to which a clearly entry condition has to be defined in order grammatical metaphor to be represented in this network. It is also vital to mention, that metaphorical options, i. e. “the rank or delicacy at which grammatical metaphor becomes an option” must be determined as well (ibid:99). The scholar states, that it cannot be considered to be a particularity at the rank of clause due to the reason, that the entire clause may be metaphorical. Consequently, grammatical metaphor can appear to be a particularity at the rank of a group or a phrase. However, it doesn’t occur in the nominal group, which can be realized through the metaphorical comprehension. Due to this extreme difficulty any descriptive generalizations about grammatical metaphor require a lot of attempts so that they would be described at the level of lexico-grammar. In order grammatical metaphor to be recognized the scholar offers to use two devices **derivation** and **agnation** with the help of which it is possible to define, whether a given expression is considered to be congruent or not.

Ravelli (1988:141) claims, that despite this fact, that a great amount of grammatical metaphors are formed through derivation processes, it is not considered to be quite appropriate criterion of recognition, because plenty of grammatical metaphors can be formed without any suffixes.

Ravelli (1999:77) states that any metaphorical expression has its agnate form due to which the congruent realization of this expression can be defined. The change of a metaphorical expression into a congruent form is referred to be the establishment of grammatical metaphor. If a comparison is carried out between different agnates, then grammatical metaphor is very easily understood.

Ravelli's (1988:144-145, 1999:73-75) research on the relationship between mood and complexity is very significant. The scholar makes the statement that a high frequency of grammatical metaphor is found in the texts of a high level of lexical density. Due to this reason the second explanation is established in order this correlation to be defined. In the case of congruent grammar the meanings of process are related to each other through complexing clause. In this case logical resources of taxis and logical semantic relations make the text congruent. When a grammatical metaphor constructs processes as nominal groups, then two processes are linked to each other within a clause, this type of incongruent construction leads to a higher lexical density due to this reason, that there are more lexical words in the same clause. Consequently, grammatical forms are not considered to be very significant in this case.

Ravelli (1988:145) also emphasizes another major feature of grammatical metaphor. When the processes are conveyed through nouns, then new possibilities are created in order textual organization to be in progress in the text. Consequently, the meaning of the process starts functioning as the theme of the clause and it can also become the focus of information. The recognition of such textual effects is considered to be essential, so that the essence of grammatical metaphor would be perceived, because namely grammatical metaphor provides the functional explanation of this phenomenon.

It is worth mentioning, that Halliday (1985) divides interpersonal metaphor into two types, according to the primary interpersonal systems at the level of lexico-grammar: mood and modality. However, Ravelli (1999) offers the classification of larger numbers of types on the basis of grammatical class and function.

Halliday (1985) claims that general characterization of grammatical metaphor through alterations usually leads to the concept of congruence. Consequently, the concept of congruence is presented in many various ways, in a great majority of cases this description is associated with markedness or typicality. Typicality is defined through the typical congruent expressions, while markedness is expressed in unmarked ways of realization of certain features.

Furthermore, Ravelli (1988:135) claims, that general characterization of grammatical metaphor in terms of 'alternative realizations' is defined in a more exact way than through the alternative lexico-grammatical realizations and through the semantic perception. The concept of realization of both of these points of view plays a very significant role in order grammatical metaphor to be defined in an appropriate way.

Russel (1998; 1) states, that nominalizations can influence the expression of a verb indicating some entity considerably more, than the entity, expressed by the associated

sentence. In this case, if assertion is considered to be the essential feature of sentences, then nominalization dispenses this feature and in a natural way the doubt arises, if nominalizations can be used in order the same entity to be expressed in the same sentence. Unless it is, then a great doubt arises, if propositions can be represented as logical sentences. It also becomes a contradictive idea, if the truth conditions can be stated in order materials to be involved into this process. As a matter of fact, in this case material implication isn't defined as a logical form. Therefore, these statements lead to the conclusion, that if sentences derive nominals, then these derived nominals must refer to the same things.

Russel (1998;2) defines the assertion element of a proposition in the verb, he states this assertion element of the verb to be always tied to a predicative, so that in the proposition *John left home* the assertion *left home* would combine with the subject so that this proposition would be formed in an appropriate way. However, Russel does not pay enough attention to the differences among various sorts of nominals. The scholar moves freely from gerundive nominals such as *Socrates being dead* to derived nominals such as *the death of Socrates*. This scholar concerns the only thing how the assertion element is separated using any stylistically acceptable nominal.

It is worth mentioning, that Russel also attempts material implication to be clarified and uses nominals in order propositions to be referred and the assertion element of the verb to be separated. All these mentioned above activities give better opportunities in order the other forms to be influenced and the role of assertion to be defined. Evident results are hoped to appear in future, but at the present moment a general point needs to be made. Due to this reason the scholar cannot make accept the decision if the gerundive or derived nominals are considered to be more significant. Russel neglects the importance of the details in nominalization in his treatment of propositional attitudes.

Chomsky (1970; 264-265) identifies three sorts of nominals: 1) gerundives; 2) derived; 3) mixed:

John's refusing the offer (gerundive);

John's refusal of the offer (derived);

John's refusing of the offer (mixed).

His primary focus is the difference of gerundive and derived nominals. The first difference is that in the gerundive case there are some similarities between them and corresponding subject-predicate sentences. The second difference is, that because of inability of determiners for the "subject" of the nominal to be substituted, these causes have internal structure. The third difference between gerundive and derived nominals is productivity.

According to Chomsky (1970: 265), what concerns gerundive and derived nominals, there are at least two positions: the lexicalist position and the transformational position. This scholar leads to the conclusion, that gerundive nominals are best treated by the transformationalist theory, while derived nominals belong to the lexicalist sphere. Due to this reason there are two kinds of syntactic nominals: the first kind is transformed from other words and the second follow from the freedom of lexical entries. Another variant is considered to be also possible, that may be the case, that a derived nominal may be transformed in either of these two ways. Therefore, it depends of the certain properties of the matrix of verbs which sort of nominal must be taken in order these nominals to act as synthetic complements.

It is worth observing, that a nominal is formed by transformation of the associated sentence, then the properties of the sentence will be preserved. In this case the substituting sentence of the nominal is in the context, so it will not make effect of the relevant semantic properties of the sentence, in which it occurs. In this case the sentence is substituted without change of its meaning. This statement is based on this example: *Mary regrets Bill's belief that/ Marry regrets Bill believes that.*

In Chomsky's view, gerundives are best accounted in the transformationalist theory, then such gerundive nominals will be substitutable for derived nominals in those cases. This is demonstrated by the example: *Mary regrets Bill's believing that.*

It is worth mentioning, that Russel (1998:3) uses nominalizations in order propositions to be logical subjects. However, there appears a contradiction, which seems to be unavoidable. By maintaining distinctions, which were drawn by Chomsky and by applying a "mixed" view of nominals, derived from Chomsky's proposals, this contradiction becomes avoidable, therefore, the solution of this problem becomes generalized. On the one hand, the limitations of space prevent scholars from finding the solution of the problem, on the other hand, a number of possibilities are given by other variants of transformations.

According to Chomsky (1970, 20), gerundive nominals are formed according to general rules of affix placement. However, derived nominals are essentially unpredictable, while gerundive nominals, even though they are restricted, are considered to be predictable.

It is worth observing the research of nominalizations in Basque in a language contact situation represented by Arrieta (1998: 1). This scholar states, that Basque nominalizations are a complex structure and they are considered to be vulnerable in language contact situations, which simple structures are frequently used in. Arrieta (1998: 20) states nominalizations to be like mutants, in other words, there are such entities, which have to undergo a categorical change without completely becoming an entity which belongs to a new

category. The scholar assures these structures to be worth being the object of the discussions among the scholars of theoretical linguistics, because this sphere of language hasn't been examined quite sufficiently yet.

Referring to the aspects of derivation, the scholar states, that in English nominals are derived either through zero derivation (*fear*) or through the replacement of a suitable affix (*arrival*). Infinitive structures can also be the type of nominalizations (*to be good is to be great*). In the Romance languages derived nominals are similar to the English nominals (*arrive* "arrival" in French, *construccion*, "construction, building" in Spanish) nominalized Infinitives seem to make very great influence in the Basque language. The derived nominals (*eros-keta* from *erosi* "to buy", "purchase") and nominalized infinitives (*etorri-a* (from *etorri* "to come"), "arrival", "coming"). Furthermore, this scholar introduces the classes of nominalizations. The first class includes the action or state nouns, which come from verbs and describe the process of the event of the action. This class is different from the other class of nominalizations due to this reason that it retains some of the characteristics of the verb or adjective it derives from. The examples of the second class are such: "creation", "arrival", "truck driving". These nominalizations behave syntactically like other pronouns in the language while keeping (often unpredictable) semantic and morphological relations to the associated verb or adjective.

In Arrieta's opinion (1998: 22), nominalizations are further divided into agentive nominalization (*singer*), instrumental nominalization (*slicer*), manner nominalization (*his walking*), objective nominalization (*umcabango* "thought" in Zulu from *cabanga* "think"), locative nominalization (*mulato* "place for having fun", from *mulat* "to have fun" in Hungarian) and reason nominalization (*paindit* "reason for leaving", from *indit* "to leave" in Sundanese). The conclusions are that processes for forming nouns are likely to be irregular.

However, in the opinion of Bresnan (1997: 2) there are mixed categories which are defined as: "a single word heads a phrase which is a syntactic hybrid of two different category types with the Lexical Functional Grammar framework the Extended Head Theory, is represented within the lexical functional grammar framework. This description lets different categories share the same head of the structure". The scholar claims that "lexically indeterminate head would not account for the fact that in several languages the category of the phrase is clearly nominal. In addition, these structures exhibit phrasal coherence constraints, i.e. the order of the elements inside the phrase is fixed".

1. 1. 1. The nature of nominalization

Gretenstette and Teufel (1995: 98) state, that a nominalization is a highly productive phenomenon among a great majority of languages due to this reason, that by this process of nominalization the form is changed from its syntactic into a nominal position. Therefore, the original verb is often replaced by a semantically emptied support verb (e.g. *make a proposal*). The rules, with the help of which a suitable support verb has to be chosen, are unpredictable, therefore, this fact can cause significant problems for language learners as well as for natural language processing system.

Grettenstte and Teufel (1995: 98) claim, that the transformation of a verbal phrase into a nominal form is carried out because of the variety of stylistic reasons: in order repetitions of a verb to be avoided, so that the intransitive uses of transitive verbs would be changed into other structures and also because of the clarification of technical descriptions in which the passive voice is used in a great majority of cases.

Therefore, as a result of this alteration, the original verb is pushed out from its syntactic position and in its place the combination of words headed by a noun is placed. This process makes a certain verb poor according to its semantic choice of the writer. This semantically impoverished verb is quite frequently called a support verb and is used with a nominalized predicate structure. The variants of its choice are considered to be also unpredictable in order the certain semantic meaning to be preserved.

Allerton (1982) considers the absence of the constant selection of the verb it to be quite a serious problem. The structures with these verbs: *have, take, give, pay* are valid. In some cases the choice between structures containing *have* or *take* has to be carried out. Despite the little choice, some misunderstandings which can be caused by these structures are considered to be quite a serious problem.

Grefenstette (1995: 98) also refers to this problem considering it to be quite important because of the difficulties of the collocational choice of a support verb for a given nominalization. Due to the reason that nominalized predicate can be influenced and its semantic meaning can be weakened, concrete nouns can also lose their thematic role, therefore, it is significant to single out true nominalizations from concrete uses of the nominalized surface forms. This procedure is performed by comparing approximations to the instrument/adjunct structures of verb predicates, by which nominalizations are formed in a large corpus.

Quirk (1985) distinguishes nominalizations between deverbal and verbal nouns. This statement is illustrated in the following example: *advice* vs. *killing*.

Deverbal nouns are established to be the records of the action having taken place rather than the description of the action itself. This statement is illustrated in the following example by Quirk (1985: 1291): *Their arriving for a month/Their arrival for a month.*

Deverbal nouns can be changed into regular countable nouns in any context. This statement is illustrated in the following example by Quirk: *Brown's paintings of his daughter.*

In this example *painting* can be replaced by *photograph*. While this is not the same case with the verbal noun *painting* in the phrase: *the painting of Brown is so skillful as that of Gainborough*, which conveys the action of painting itself.

Quirk (1985: 1291) points out, that the semantics of the verb and its syntactic structure can be retained by its nominalized forms. This statement is demonstrated in the following examples by Quirk (1985): *She was surprised that the enemy destroyed the city./ She was surprised by the enemy ('s) destroying the city. / She was surprised by the enemy's destruction of the city.*

Quirk (1985:1290) argues that nominalization can be observed through the morphological aspect, in this case the predicate is influenced by this change, the alteration is performed, when a non-inflected verb (e.g. *destroy*) is changed into gerund (*destroying*) and later it is changed into a noun (*destruction*). The problem of deverbal structures is that the meaning of such nouns can be concretized through metonymical association. This statement is illustrated in the following example by Quirk (1985: 1291): *He made his formal proposal to the full committee / He put the proposal in the drawer.*

Due to this reason the concrete uses of deverbal nouns are not considered to be support verbs, therefore, they can not be involved into these constructions because of their lost semantic meaning in the action.

Summing up the results of their common research Grefenstette and Teufel (1995: 102) draw the conclusion, that nominalization is considered to be a very productive process, consequently, the proper choice of collocational support verbs so that a nominalization would be constructed in an appropriate way and be acceptable for language learners, however, it is considered to be a difficult task. It is worth mentioning, that unpredictability of the semantically empty verbs, that fulfill the syntactic roles, creates ambiguity, which causes misunderstandings for learners in their learning process. This is the simple technique of extracting the most common verbs for which the nominalization form as a direct object can't be considered to be always sufficient, because of the use of completely deverbal concrete nouns and the same lexical surface form which is shared by them. To quote Grefenstette and Teufel (1995: 102) "comparing argument/adjunct structures involving the verbal uses of the

predicate and using the most common of these structures as filters on the surface forms possibly corresponding to nominalizations captures the linguistic fact that nominalizations retain the syntactic structures of their underlining predicate. When these filters are applied, the most common supporting verb in the corpus for the recognized nominalized patterns seems to correspond to native speakers' intuition of the support verb associated with the nominalization".

Referring to the other problems caused by the use of nominalizations among students Hartnett (1998: 3) claims, that English nominalizations turn verbs and adjectives into nouns systematically and because of these alterations their meanings can be changed unpredictably. Therefore, in the United States college composition handbooks used to encourage students to avoid using nominalizations. However, nominalizations are widely used in all the spheres of communication: in business, science etc. Due to this reason with the help of alterations the meanings of nominalizations of the performed sentences are organized, generalized and classified, explanations are shortened, the group of identification is maintained and unchallengeable authority is displayed. The development and forming of nominalization is in the dependency of previous knowledge, due to this reason the difficulties of comprehension are increased by their assumptions. It is worth mentioning, that in some particular cases a nominalization can hide relevant information which is considered to be harmful to the writer's position. It is significant to observe, that the contribution to coherence and lexical density are contributed by nominalizations. Due to all these reasons special problems for second language learners are caused. In order mistakes to be avoided students are given clarification of nominalization through its morphological classification.

In Hartnett's (1998:5) opinion nominalizations shouldn't be confused with abstractions in general. Despite the fact, that they are abstract as well. On the basis of morphological changes, five types of nominalizations can be singled out.

The first type is considered to be the simplest category of nominalization which is used in formal every day situations. Halliday (1998: 199) claims, that in this case verbs and nouns are spelled in the same way. There are some complaints, when nouns are used instead of verbs and verbs are used instead of nouns. However, these new usages can not be considered to be acceptable without realizing the historical standard pattern in English from Anglo-Saxon times. This statement is illustrated in the following example by Halliday (1998) *the lunch / to lunch*.

Halliday and Martin (1993: 619) state, that in the Greek language the transcategorization of verbs and adjectives into nouns can be carried out as well. Consequently, it is not possible to define, whether a word like *plan* or *talk* is basically a noun

or a verb. Furthermore, there are some cases when by alteration of nouns into verbs only the stress of pattern is changed. This statement is illustrated in the following example by Halliday and Martin (1993: 6-19):

Refuse/convert.

Due to this reason, that the process of innotation can't be distinguished in writing process, these verbs are included in this category of verbs, so, they are considered to be nouns without any change.

The second type deals with the ending-ING to a verb root. Due to this alteration an appropriate noun is created. Halliday (1998: 200) states, that gerunds can be considered to be intermediate between the verb and the full-scale nominalization. However, adjectives, present participles and progressive verb forms ending in-ING can't be included in the same group, due to the reason that they can't be treated as nouns. Infinitives are also omitted because of these three reasons. The first reason is that they are expressed through two words. The second reason is that infinitives are not included into their warnings. The third reason is that despite the fact that infinitives can serve as nouns, they can't be treated as nominalizations due to their other functions because in a great majority of cases they serve as a descriptive purpose after a noun.

The third type involves the alterations performed by adding suffixes to verbs. These suffixes sometimes make slight changes in the root of a word. These examples of nominalization are considered to be the most obvious ones. This statement is illustrated in the following example by Halliday and Martin (1993: 6-19): *Sell-sale / Sing-song.*

Actions are recognized by suffixes such as: -AL (*portrayal*); -ANCE (*attendance*); -ION (*corrosion*); -URE (*creature*); -Y (*mastery*); and some combinations such as -IFICATION (*modification*) and -ANCY (*urgency*).

Although -ER can show an actor, it cannot deduce meaning simply from the form.

The fourth type deals with nominalizations which are made from adjectives by adding suffixes -NESS and -TY. For instance, *kindness* and *purity*.

The fifth type concerns the nominalizations which perform the alterations in the semantic meaning of the word. Halliday and Martin (1993: 7-15) point out, that nominalizations appear to be considerably more frequently used in written English than in colloquial English due to this reason that in daily spoken language the users act in real time, in a real situation, usually face to face without having the opportunity to combine their thoughts in generalities. Otherwise the process of writing is considered to be slow, deliberate, also it requires time in order the process of creation to be carried out properly. Due to this

reason the objects of writing style become vividly described using verbs, moreover, in the written language different logical structures of hierarchy and integration can be found.

It is worth mentioning the historical development of nominalization which is said to be developed in Isaac Newton's writing due to the reason that his text is unfolded. The process of nominalization usually passes through the stages starting with reporting the process and generalizing it.

Halliday and Martin (1993: 7-15) illustrate the differences while contrasting the style of technical works with Newton's newer method of explanation, which consists of three stages. At the first stage, the process of fracturation is described, the second stage deals with the growth of fractures, only at the third stage the process of glass fracture growth can be discussed.

1. 1. 2. The theoretical overview of translation essence

As it is stated by Amrasas-Sasnava (1978:3), theoretical and practical questions of translation involve various kinds of sciences and specialists of various fields due to the fact that the process of translation belongs to both the author of an original work and the translator. Therefore, translation is considered to be the property of both cultures. No wonder, that even ordinary readers can get interested in the quality of translation, what to speak about the specialists of linguistics, literature, languages and so on. Some scholars state translation to be connected with semiotics and electronics, the others argue this science to be connected with languages and literature. Due to these different attitudes, the works of the theory of translation are quite different. In the works by Catford (1982) these attitudes are clearly expressed as well.

Amrasas-Sasnava states, that (1978:4) when the specialists of philology started investigating the theory and the processes of translation, the translators of fiction started contradicting to this approach due to the reason that according to their point of view translation was considered to be a creative process, therefore any literature or language studies should't be involved into it. However, nowadays this quite categorical point of view has no real foundation. The studies of translation investigate the reality which is considered to be the certain type of language activities, whose results and its main factors make a great influence in order the realia from an original language to be transmitted into a target language. This process is real, therefore, there should be no doubts about the results of this process. Taking into consideration, it is important to state that the appropriate change from one code into the other, which is called the process of codification, is to be investigated as well. The

basis of recent studies on the theoretical research of translation leads to the conclusion, that there is enough space for both kinds of activities. Scientific point of view is necessary and artistic skills are appreciated as well in this process of translation. The concepts of art and science are even expanded by adding to them the third member – the science of translation.

According to Ambrasas-Sasnava (1978:4) this new-born science can be perceived differently, it can be connected with some certain epoch due to this reason this science is based on some historical aspects. This science is not stationary, because it depends on the conditions of that epoch. However, relativity is not an essential feature on the basis of which the science of translation has neither objective rules nor principles. On the one hand, the practical application of translation is considered to be advanced much more comparing it with theoretical perception, which does not create any background so that theoretical approach would be ignored. On the other hand, in order the science of translation to be kept up to date the scholars of this sphere must be in permanent connection with the tasks and problems which nowadays the translators are involved into. The theory of the certain tasks and problems of the translation science ought to be created so as the principles of the estimation of realia, phraseological units, the requirements of transcription would be ascertained, the relation of translation with the norms of literary language and the remedies how the emotions and mood of an original language would be saved and conveyed properly. The science of translation must be able to solve all the tasks and problems only in this case, when the conclusions of this science are based on completely profound analysis of the translation processes, in other words that translation processes must be clarified as a concept while ascertaining the conditions due to which this process can be in progress, the features of the result of the translation process, the relations of this result with the other sciences, which this process is influenced by, should be clarified as well. Consequently, every aesthetic and intellectual virtue is considered to be significant in this translation process, in relation to this reason that its function in real life must be defined. Subsequently, having defined realia through the theoretical point of view that practical application must be defined as well.

Ambrasas-Sasnava (1984:66) argues that it is essential to mention, that in this translation process a few factors are involved: the reality of life, the author, the translator and the editor of the certain work. All of them carry out two main functions: 1) to convey information and express its meaning; 2) to assure, that this information would be expressed in a suitable way and understood by a reader properly.

As it is stated by Pierce (1931) in order these two factors to be carried out three categories of relations: syntactic, semantic and pragmatic are involved into the process of translation.

Syntactic relations create the system, in which all the words are closely connected one with another.

Semantic relations are based on the definitions of a certain subject of phenomenon, which depends on the certain situation. Due to this reason the denotative meaning of this subject is expressed. For instance, *this man is my friend, the associated professor of the Vilnius university*. In this sentence the words “my friend” and “the associated professor” convey different referents, however, they belong to the same denotat, in other words, to the same person.

Due to this reason, the referential meanings of a subject don't express all the meanings which this subject is connected with, these relations are added by the relations between the subject and the actor. The signs, which are used by people so that their communication would be carried out, may be understood differently due to the different reasons which these people are involved into. As Krinickaitė (1984:4) argues, that these differences appear not only because of the differences of languages, but also because of thinking peculiarities of these certain people. People think about the same subjects, however they perceive them differently due to the features which are mostly important in their society. The other reason of differences appears as the result of different conditions of the climate of the certain country which they live in. In consequence of this fact, people perform the same activities, however, in different ways. Referring to Ambrasas-Sasnava (1984:70) arguments, it is essential to observe, that the subjective person's relation with this subject is vitally important. For example, these Lithuanian words: “akys”, “veizolai”, “spangės”, “lempos” and so on express the same referent and have the same referential meaning, however, each of these words is different. According to the subjective relations between the subjects and their reference. Subjective, emotional, expressive, stylistic and social relations are called pragmatic relations and the type of these meanings is called a pragmatic meaning. In order a translation unit to be translated properly, the pragmatic aspect of translation must be perceived in an adequate way by all the participants of the translation process: the author, the translator, the editor and the reader. Furthermore, in order this pragmatic meaning to be conveyed, a great amount of social, historical, national and other factors must be involved in this process. The pragmatic meaning of a subject is directly associated with referential meaning, which is created by a certain group of people. The task of a translator is to transmit all the types of these meanings in the most suitable way. However, the losses of translation can't be unavoidable. The meanings of the words are transmitted into a target language not completely. It is easy to translate referential meanings of words, however, pragmatic meanings cause problems in this process of transmission. In a great majority of cases the

subjects, concepts or phenomena, which are described in an original text are almost similar to their meanings in a target language, however, the person's relation with this certain subject can be completely different, especially in the different societies of people.

Amrasas-Sasnava (1984: 71) claims, that the style of a text is considered to be quite important so as all these three types of meanings would be conveyed in an appropriate way. In consequence to this fact, that every style has its own peculiarities, the information of scientific and technical literature is conveyed through the referential meanings of words, however, the works of fiction are peculiar because of their pragmatic meanings of words. As a result of this phenomenon, a translator quite frequently has to choose the referential meanings instead of pragmatic meanings. However, it is not possible to give any advice on the importance of the choice of the meanings of words due to the specific characteristic of each style and each book. Consequently, a translator has to make this decision on his own, what meanings (referential or pragmatic) are more important in that certain work. To quote Cicero "if one translates word-for-word, one gets a nonsense, if one translates ideas, one gets a different work which is not the same as the original".

1. 1. 2. 1. The theoretical overview of translation transformations

According to Armalytè (1990:57), when it is stated, that an original text is translated into the other language, it means, that a translated text has to be equivalent to an original text. In other words, how the concept of equivalence is defined. What level of equivalence is required from a translator? These issues are considered to be the most significant ones in the theory of translation.

Armalytè (1990:57) argues that the common attitude to translation is based on the conception of equivalence. The more the comprehension of translation is clarified, the better this conception of equivalence is understood. The most common definition of equivalence can be formulated as the relationship between two units, possessing the same value and meaning. The unit of translation can be a separated word, a combination of words, a phrase, a sentence, a paragraph or even a whole sentence. In the primary stage of translation process a translation unit can be defined on the level of separated units. On the basis of Recker (1950:55-56) equivalence is defined when two lexical units of two languages are compared between themselves. Equivalence is perceived as the relation between languages, but not between texts. In a similar way the concept of equivalency is comprehended by Catford(1982). He also adds, that a certain extra-linguistic situation must be reflected in the target language. The basis of equivalence is defined as semantic similarity between an original and translated text.

In the Theory of Dynamic Equivalence by Nida (1964) this conception is based not only on semantic similarity, but also on the similarity of the reaction of the readers who read the original text and its translation. According to Nida the readers' reaction is understood in a few aspects such as: the comprehension of the contents, the perception of emotions and other features. Dynamical equivalence "is stated to be opposite to formal equivalence" (this is the type of translation, in which the features of an original text are expressed in a mechanical way, due to this reason the meaning of the text is not expressed in an appropriate way and the comprehension becomes considerably difficult). The concept of equivalence is expanded by Nida adding pragmatic features. This scholar states, that attention should be paid to the situation of communication, because the translation of this certain text is performed in the other communicative situation as the origin was created. A translator must pay his attention to these two different situations.

Gak (1978:44) states, that the equivalence of translation is the equivalence of communication, in other words, this is the relation between texts possessing the same communicative value and capable of creating the same communicative effect. Communicative effect is considered to be some kind of information which is transmitted to a reader by a translator. Communicative value is considered to be the completeness of the signs of a language.

Armalytè (1990:50) states. that in order a text in the target language to be equivalent to an original text all the real features of an original text must be preserved. This phenomenon is called invariances in the theory of translation. The concept of invariance is defined and expanded in more ways. Firstly, invariant is considered to be the meaning. Secondly, this concept is expanded, therefore, not only meaning is taken into consideration here, but also its influence on a reader, extra-linguistic situation, emotional atmosphere and other original components of a text.

Armalytè (1998:58) states that in order the conception of equivalence to be defined in a wider way, the main property of translation must be associated not only with one or the other component of a text, but with the whole completeness of all these components. On the basis of this mentioned statement the theory of the levels of translation is created. The limitations of the equivalence of translation are defined and clarified in a more appropriate way in order the levels of equivalency to be distinguished. According to the researcher of translation Komisarov (1980:46) the relation of equivalence can be defined not only on the equivalence of original and translated texts, but also it can be ascertained between the levels of the contexts. On the basis of this scholar's arguments five levels are distinguished:

- 1) the purpose of communication;

- 2) the description of a situation;
- 3) the way of the description of a situation;
- 4) syntactic structures and combinations;
- 5) the level of lexical units.

The levels of equivalence are connected all together in one complete system. For instance, if the level of the equivalence of lexical units is preserved in the text, then due to this reason all the rest levels of equivalence must be preserved as well, it means, the equivalence of syntactic units and their combinations, the equivalence of the way of the description of a situation and the level of the purpose of communication ought to be preserved as well. As Komisarov (1980:55) states, that at first a translator must analyze the components of an original text in order the highest level of the purpose of communication to be achieved, afterwards the analysis of the components has to be carried out in order the level of each unit of information and its influence on the text to be defined.

According to Armalytè (1990: 57) there are these types of translation transformations: 1)concretization transformation; 2)generalization transformation; 3)omission transformation; 4)the change of a numeral; 5)the change from the Active voice into the Passive voice; 6)insertion; 7)compensation.

1. 2. The translation of nominalizations

Grammatical metaphor has been the focus of the attention of a great number of scholars for the last two decades due to the reason, that the translation of it has its important place in all the translation science.

Naganuma (2001), a Japanese scholar, translator and interpreter states, that grammatical metaphor can be realized in both English and Japanese after going through the process of translation, however, the difficulties appear due to the lack of synonymy in mental language.

Stalhammar (1995), a Swedish scholar, argues, that grammatical metaphor may be used in the translation process from English into Swedish, but seems to be used in Swedish considerably less. Due to this reason “a comparison of similar texts may indicate restrictions in linguistic usage and also contribute to long-term studies of what may become an example of linguistic change under the influence of legally imposed translation of legislative texts”. As it is stated by Stalhammar, due to the large proportion of translated texts which are produced by and for specialists, “the very importance of their subject matter – be it technical, significant, legal, financial or political – in combination with the prestige of many of their

authors creates a trickle-down effect, that influences a target language for general purposes”. It is also important to observe, that “similar interference may be noted between the users of different languages connected by similar professions, disciplines or areas of interest: as shown in a comparison between Swedish and British financial journalists, similar grammatical metaphors were translated similarly by both British and Swedish writers”. As it is noticed by this scholar, lexical loans make a great influence on the translation process, however, grammatical structures are considered to be less important in the target language. Due to this reason, a great amount of subjectivized grammatical metaphors are used in the English and Swedish versions of the proposed constitution of the European Union translations. These translations have to be carried out in such a way, so that they would be widely read and quoted, which would make the influence on all the members of society, both through their actual legal status and through their prestige as well. The target language must consequently contribute to the development of the national language. In this case, if the text of the constitution is not adapted, the translation of this text must require different choices and strategies to be used, so that the translated text would be easily acceptable for a reader. The analysis of such central documents may thus be of both diachronic and synchronic interest.

Despite the decline of machine translation nowadays when certain changes are made this kind of translation becomes more appreciated and widely used.

As it is stated by Moller (2004:1), “controlled languages produce better results with machine translation than uncontrolled languages” due to this reason, that controlled languages express lexical, syntactic and pragmatic features of the writing style of the author. A few years ago the survey was conducted at the University of Aalborg, Denmark (Lassen, 2003), in which the attitudes of different audiences to the accessibility and acceptability of texts, including text versions which may be regarded as controlled-language texts, were investigated.

The aim of the research was to focus syntactic restrictions and investigate if a writing style, in which various forms of a grammatical metaphor were involved into, was able to make the text more accessible to readers. A great variety of professional groups, including technical writers, translators, engineers, technical language instructions and a non-expert group of respondents with mixed occupations, who were unfamiliar with technical writing style, were invited to participate to state his or her attitude to the accessibility and acceptability of one out of six short texts which appeared in three versions. One version was the original text, the second text from which grammatical metaphors had been removed and the third text was a version with short sentences. (195 Danish individuals responded, and 32 British texts).

The results of the research lead to the conclusion, that as it is pointed out by Lassen (2003:2), that a great majority of technical texts are found to be accessible only to a specialist audience due to the conventional technical writing style, which is characterised by a high frequency of passives, nominalizations, definite article omission, non-finite clause and clusters of nouns. In Systemic Functional Grammar, some of these configurations (nominalizations, nominal groups and non-finite clauses) are referred to as subjectivized grammatical metaphors. Consequently, Lassen herself suggested including the passive voice into the extension of the grammatical metaphor range.

Lassen (2003: 3) suggests answering the question, if the changed versions of the sentences containing a grammatical metaphor can be viewed as controlled language texts. The results of the research lead to the conclusion, that simplified English is a writing standart for aerospace maintenance documentation which aims at making maintenance manuals clear and unambiguous for English speakers and non-native English speakers alike. So, these texts were designed for human readers and not specifically for machine translation. It is important to take into consideration, that what concerns a grammatical metaphor in the translation, the domain – specific part of simplified English is the vocabulary, whereas the syntactic and pragmatic or stylistic rules are important as well.

It is essential to notice the arguments of Bateman (1990:2), which illustrate the significance of a grammatical metaphor in the machine translation process. This scholar argues, that a significant class of cases can involve structural transfer into machine translation. This is achieved by applying the semantic organization developed for monolingual text generation, to quote the author “grammatical metaphor”, then allows candidate appropriate translations to be isolated. The incorporation of these essentially monolingual mechanisms within the machine translation process promises to significantly improve translational capabilities”. Taking into consideration it is vital to mention, that the incorporation of these essentially monolingual mechanisms within the machine translation process promises to improve translational capabilities significantly.

Bateman (1990: 3) states, that it is essential to observe, that looking through the historical point of view the text generation and machine translation have some similarities. Due to this reason the particular mechanism was developed within a text. In a great majority of cases this mechanism involves a subjectivized grammatical metaphor, consequently, much information can be expressed through it. Due to this reason, that the set of linguistic structures can be related by a grammatical metaphor a useful equivalence class can be formed, which helps an appropriate translation to be achieved.

According to Matthiessen (1985: 50) grammatical metaphor can often be found in the set of target language sentences, which helps to correspond abstract semantic specification. In order to demonstrate it in details at the first level semantic information is described. This information is currently used in the PENMAN system, as Mann and Matthiessen (1985) describe. Due to this system more concrete examples of two distinct kinds of a grammatical metaphor are provided, which helps to form a certain sentence in the target language. The PENMAN system creates upper models, which organize the propositional type of meanings, which must be expressed in the translated text. In relation to this reason a general semantic taxonomy of classes of objects is provided in order the translation process to be carried out properly. A powerful property of the relationship between the upper model and grammar creates the importance of the use of a grammatical metaphor in the various cases of translation. The application of this PENMAN system to machine translation has its importance due to its considerably valuable features, which help to characterize certain kinds of variation of equivalents in the translation of terms provided by grammatical metaphors. In order the translation to be carried out properly, structural transfer rules must be related to the translation possibilities. This translation progress can be described in terms of the same upper model categories, regardless to the features of an original language. It is obvious that both grammar and lexicons are entirely monolingual and independent of each other because of their use in translation.

According to Halliday (1985) metaphor acts not only in the lexical level, but quite frequently in the grammatical level as well. Due to this reason grammatical metaphor is often involved into the translation process. However, in some situations especially in scientific discourse difficulties appear in order a proper translation to be carried out.

Yuan-yuan (2006:71) states, that translation science is closely associated with such disciplines as: linguistics, literature and philosophy. Consequently, a linguistically-based approach to translation studies using the scale and the category of grammar by Halliday was suggested by Catford in the 1960. The application of linguistic theories, especially functional linguistics to translation studies increased during a few years. It is significant to notice, that grammatical metaphor is also found in Chinese. Furthermore, English belongs to the Indo-European family, therefore, the usage of grammatical metaphor in English is different from its usage in Chinese, which is included into one of the Sino-Tibetan languages. Due to this reason, that the external word can be represented by any of languages, therefore, the translation between them must be possible. The formal purpose of an expression needs to be analyzed in the translation process. The particular form of this purpose needs to be clarified. This form can serve as a guideline, so that the most appropriate form of the target text would

be determined. Consequently, the research of the use of grammatical metaphor (in a great majority of cases, it means ideational grammatical metaphor), as it used in newspaper articles and technological documents has its own important place in scientific discourse due to this reason that good results of the analyses of the expressive effects are achieved. Furthermore, the comparison of different texts of target language is significant because of their aspects which can be taken as the main basis due to which practical conclusions on the most effective ways of the translation of grammatical metaphor in various circumstances can be achieved.

Yuan-yuan (2006:72) argues, that due to this reason, that translation is considered to be an interlinguistic process, good results are achieved through the transfer of meaning. In the translation of less culturally-oriented scientific papers, if the text of target language is logically correct, then its meaning is transferred sufficiently well. Due to this reason the analysis of the particular form of scientific texts is required, so that the expressive effects would be produced. The equivalence of these effects can serve as a criterion in order different texts of target language to be evaluated in an appropriate way.

In the opinion of Yuan-yuan (2006:73), due to the distinct characteristics of the Chinese language, some differences are singled out comparing this language with English. Consequently, the process of the translation quite frequently requires some sort of alteration in the form of the text of target language. Due to this reason in Chinese there is no formal system so that grammatical functions can be represented in an appropriate way. Therefore, the frame of the semantic structure is determined primarily on the basis of a native language but not in accordance with grammatical forms or modalities. There is the equivalent of grammatical metaphor in the Chinese language, which to some point can be the equivalent of expressive effects, however, this equivalence is probably achieved by losing the naturalness and fluency of the texts of a target language. Due to this reason the translator's knowledge of native language helps to achieve the smoothness of the texts of a target language, moreover, due to the flexibility based on the native language the equivalence of expressive effects is attained as well. Here are some specific strategies which are considered to be quite significant so as a scientific text would be translated in an appropriate way. This statement is illustrated in the following example by Yuan-yuan (2006:73): *News reports from other countries have presented similar sentiments.*

Referring to the metaphorical form of scientific texts this sentence can be rewritten in the scientific form, as follows: *Similar sentiments have surface in news reports from other countries.*

Yuan-yuan (2006:73) claims, that in this case if the text is rewritten, then goal "similar sentiments" is turned into Actor, therefore, the former Actor "news report" into

circumstance. It is obvious, that in both sentences a material process is represented, thus, it is important to define the criterion on the basis of which it should be established why the metaphorical form is chosen in this case.

Halliday (1998:171-172) argues, that nominalization must be in harmony with the ideology of science, with academic style of writing in general due to this reason, that it allows processes to be objectified and expressed without the human actor, besides, the specific conditions of the action are fulfilled. However, when the option of mood is removed, a nominalized process is changed into the process without the possibility of different variants to be chosen.

If the verbs in the Chinese language are used in their metaphorical aspect, then the represented things can be seen as the equivalents to nominalization in English due to which equivalent semantic aspects can be achieved. However, the particularity of the verbs in Chinese is that in a great majority of cases they are used in order congruently denote processes to be conveyed, where the metaphorical use may not function properly. The alternative must be found, so that the semantic features and effects of the original language would be preserved. This statement is illustrated in the following example by Yuan-yuan (2006:74): *The use of super-heated steam enable as improvement of its performance*. In the example above the verbs “use” and “improvement” are used metaphorically in order the certain subjects to be represented. The nominalization of them is observed in the English original because of the indication of abstraction and objectivity. However, due to this unnatural use the sentence itself seems to be unnatural moreover, the translation process of this sentence can not be carried out in an appropriate way. However, if the verbs represent processes in a congruent way, then the verbal groups are used directly as participants in the Chinese language. On the one hand, if the participant is removed from the action, then in the translated congruent texts the expected abstraction and objectivity can be signified. On the other hand, due to these changes the text becomes more compact and readable. Therefore, when the distinctive usage of the Chinese language is defined, it allows the most preferable texts of translation to be achieved.

The other example by Yuan-yuan (2006:74) is also worth observing: “*Blame game*” means the exchange of accusation among people who refuse to accept (sole) responsibility for an undesirable outcome. The term “blame game” in the scientific translation is a noun (in some cases it can be a group) with congruent form is a verbal group, so that this contradiction would be conveyed. It is evident, that the metaphorical use of the text of translation expresses the same subject as the thing of a nominal group. Due to the absence of post attribute in Chinese the metaphorical use of the texts of translation is made to bear an

overloaded attribute which reduces the comprehension of the text by reading it. The forms, which are conveyed in the most exact way do not play a very significant role in the Chinese language. The effective delivery of meaning and the fluency in writing would be attained with the help of the most exact forms. Therefore, in the congruent texts of translation a clause is used in order the target noun to be defined while turning the part of the attribute of the metaphorical texts of translation into Actor. Due to the performance of this change the constraint of formal equivalence is omitted and the congruent texts of translation deliver the original meaning more clearly and naturally.

Yuan-yuan (2006:74) mentions the third aspect of nominalization of adjectives in Chinese. It is mentioned, that verbs can be metaphorically used, however, without its variation in the form. However, adjectives can be made by adding an appropriate suffix and then a noun is made in a formal way. This type of derivation is considered to be a suitable equivalent in translating English nominalization. However, in a great majority of cases this suitable way is not used and the other ways are taken instead of it. It is worth mentioning, that some new alternatives must be found in order the most appropriate translation would be attained. The importance of this alteration is demonstrated in the following example by Yuan-yuan (2006:74): *The company emphasized its usefulness as a teaching and navigation tool. ("it" refers to a software produced by Google).*

Thomson (1996:171) states that in the example above the nominalization "usefulness" is used in its primary form, so that the exact and compact expression would be made without signifying authority of abstraction. Due to the reason, that the alterations condense, a clause down to a word or a group, it is evident, that nominalized terms are considered to be very economical.

Yuan-yuan (2006:74) claims, that nominalized forms of an adjective are used in order formal equivalence with the original to be achieved. Two sentences are made, so that the degree of informativity would be reduced, which makes this text readable. Moreover, the adjective congruently is used in order an adjective to be represented in the congruent texts of translation, because of these alteration the meaning is conveyed in the most precise way. Due to the alternatives of these changes the formal advantages of scientific texts are represented in the adapted texts of translation. This statement is illustrated in the following example by Yuan-yuan (2006:75): *Google Earth is the most conspicuous recent of increased openness in a digitally networked world.*

As it is seen in the example above, English must be concise, logically clear and readable. The advantages can be represented and attained by nominalization through rank-shifting of the congruent form. The comparison of it with the unnominalized scientific texts

prove the importance of this argument, which is illustrated by Yuan-yuan (2006:75) in the example below: *The developed Google Earth has most conspicuously demonstrated that the digitally networked world is becoming more open.* In the example above, the metaphorical text translation turns the most important part of the message into the epithet, however, the one-clause form of the original remains, which influences the overloaded attribute, due to which the clear logic of the scientific text is not represented in an appropriate way. On the one hand, congruent adjective is used in the congruent texts of translation in order a new clause to be constituted by which clear logic and readability would be manifested. On the other hand, the congruent texts of translation are considered to be more concise despite that additional clause, due to the reason that short sentences are preferable in the Chinese language, they are more forceful and easily intelligible.

2. The verb-based nominalizations

Arrietta (1998: 17) states, that “within Natural Language Proceeding, verbal nominalizations are one of the most interesting linguistic phenomenon, very few instances of this phenomenon can be accounted for through electronic dictionaries, and for that reason, nominalized structures present a serious computational challenge in any language.”

Harley and Noyer (1998: 4) state, that verb-based nominalizations provide a final conformation of analysis which depends upon non-lexical approach to the formational of nominal and verbal forms.

Halliday (1985) argues, that nominalization involves verbs, adjectives and nouns, due to this reason there are three types of nominalization:

- 1) *verb-based;*
- 2) *adjective-based;*
- 3) *noun-based.*

The purpose of this work is to present and define the verb-based nominalization and some cases of its translation.

Hathaway (1967:238-254) treats **verb-based nominalizations** as noun-headed predications. This statement is illustrated in the following examples by Hathaway (1967:238). *John is clever/ John's being clever. John has arrived/ John's arrival.*

2.1 The verb-based nominalizations in English.

The verb-based nominalizations, used in the corpus, are derived in two ways:

- 1) by the use of “material” suffixed;
- 2) by the use of “zero” suffixes (conversion).

Nominalization is a phrase with an abstract noun as a head, however, not all abstract nouns can be treated as nominalizations (for example: *language, science etc.*)

The purpose of this work is to examine the verb-based grammatical metaphors derived by adding a suffix.

According to Halliday (1985) suffixal derivations involve the use of the following suffixes:

- AGE** (*usage*)
- AL** (*arrival*)
- ANCE** (*dominance*)
- ENCE** (*existence*)
- ERY** (*recovery*)
- ION** (*communication*)
- ING** (*understanding*)
- SIS** (*emphasis*)
- URE** (*departure*)
- TH** (*growth*)

2.2 The verb-based nominalizations in Lithuanian

Due to the reason that verb-based nominalization conveys an action or the abstract of a verb, it is translated into Lithuanian by the means of a suffix. According to Amabrazas (1978: 94), nominalization in Lithuanian is formed by adding these suffixes:

- IMAS** (*buvimas*). This suffix is used in most cases in order the abstracts of verbs to be made.
- YMAS** (*sumanymas*). This suffix is used in less cases comparing it with the suffix “-imas” in order action nouns to be conveyed.
- TIS** (*mirtis*). This suffix is used in order the abstract nouns to be conveyed.
- ESYS** (*elgesys*). The verbs containing this suffix convey either the action itself or the feature how this action is performed.

- ULYS** (*jaudulys*). The verbs made by adding this suffix are not used in Lithuanian very frequently. They express psychological state of a person.
- YBA** (*gynyba*). If verbs are made by adding this suffix, then they convey abstract nouns in most cases, however, sometimes the subjects of art can be formed by the means of this subject. For example *tapyba, lipdyba, braižyba*.
- SMAS** (*šauksmas*). By the means of this subject the verbs expressing sound are formed. However, the actions also can be expressed, for instance: *žaismas* and emotional verbs, for example *džiaugsmas*.
- SENA** (*galvosena*). In a great majority of cases Lithuanian nouns are formed by the means of this suffix. They express the manner of action, but not the action itself.
- TYNĖS** (*imtynės*). The verbs conveying various kinds of sports are created by the means of this suffix.
- YNĖ** (*erzelynė*). The manner of action is conveyed by the means of this suffix.
- MĖ** (*baigmė*). Old Lithuanian abstract nouns are conveyed by the means of this suffix.
- (I)ONĖ** (*kelionė, svajonė*). The nouns of action are conveyed through the means of this suffix.
- TAS** (*kerštas*). Abstract nouns are expressed by adding this suffix.
- (I)UOTĖ** (*skaičiuotė, vaizduotė*). Abstract nouns are formed by the means of this subject.
- GA** (*eiga*). Abstract nouns are formed by the means of this subject.
- ESTIS** (*gailestis*). The nouns conveying emotions are formed by the means of this suffix.
- SMĖ** (*bausmė*). Abstract nouns are formed by the means of this suffix.
- RA** (*aušra*). Abstract nouns are formed by the means of this suffix.
- SLAS** (*mokslas*). Action nouns are formed by the means of this suffix.
- KLĖ** (*žūklė*). Action nouns are formed by the means of this suffix.
- UTĖ** (*suirutė*). This suffix is very rarely used in order action nouns to be formed.
- STIS** (*prieglobstis*). Abstract nouns are formed by the means of this suffix.
- (I)ACIJA** (*infliacija, informacija*). A great majority of international nouns are formed by the means of this suffix.

-IJA (*amnestija*). International nouns are formed by the means of this suffix. However, there are some cases when a vowel or a consonant is added to this suffix, for instance:

-CIJA (*dezinfekcija*). Abstract nouns are formed by the means of this suffix.

-ICIJA (*investicija*). Abstract nouns are formed by the means of this suffix.

-ENCIJA (*egzistencija*). Abstract nouns are formed by the means of this suffix.

-ANCIJA (*tolerancija*). Abstract nouns are formed by the means of this suffix.

3. The analysis of nominalizations with relationship to the process they are derived from and their translation into Lithuanian

The term *grammatical metaphor* was first introduced by Halliday in his monograph "An Introduction to Functional Grammar" (1985). According to the scholar's statements a sentence functions as a grammatical device in order to describe a situation. A situation typically consists of three components: *a process, a participant and circumstances*. Sentences, which encode the said information, are of two types: semantically congruent and semantically non-congruent. In a semantically congruent sentence functions play their primary roles. For example:

PARTICIPANT	PROCESS	CIRCUMSTANCES
<i>John</i>	<i>Arrived</i>	<i>yesterday</i>
Subject	Predicate	Adjunct

Therefore, the participant *John* functions as the Subject, the Process *arrived* acts as the Predicate, *yesterday* performs the function of the Adjunct.

However, having performed the change of an action while transmitting a verb into a noun, a sentence is also changed from congruent into non-congruent, thus, in this sentence the semantic functions play secondary syntactic roles. For example:

PARTICIPANT	PROCESS	CIRCUMSTANCES
<i>John's arrival</i>	<i>took</i>	<i>four hours</i>
Subject	Predicate	Objective complement

Thus, in this sentence *John's arrival* functions as the Subject, *took* acts like the Predicate and *four hours* functions as the *Objective Complement*.

In these cases semantic units are turned into participants in order other semantic functions to be carried out. Therefore, *John* is the *Restrictor* and *Arrival* in *Affected*.

This type of change of semantic functions is called **grammatical metaphorization**, and the syntactic unit that demonstrates this change is **grammatical metaphor**. (Halliday, op. ot 321) The practical usefulness of the process of metaphorization is based on the fact, that this process lets more participants to be made in the unit, which is “liberated” from its own form and can perform other semantic functions in the sentence. These new participants are not considered to be ordinary nouns but the nouns which are in the possession of the original semantic information from the underlying process expressed by the finite form of the verb. The use of such participants helps to condense information within the sentence, it is also worth mentioning, that a language is economized as well, when these particles are used in a sentence, then they serve as the means of condensation quite frequently.

As it is argued by Thomson (1997), referring to the model PARTICIPANT, PROCESS, CIRCUMSTANCES, the pivot of any sentence is a process. The following types of processes can be distinguished: material, mental, relational, verbal, existential and happening.

3. 1. The translation of material nominalizations

In accordance to Thomson (1997:79), this type of processes is considered to be one of the most distinguishing as it involves the verbs expressing physical action, such as *running*, *throwing*, *scratching* and etc. An Actor performs an Action. Any material process is in the possession of an Actor, even in the case, when it is not mentioned in a direct meaning. In a great majority of cases, the action may be represented as affecting or “being done” by a second participant, which is called the **goal**, however, in its own turn the action itself is directed to this participant. The labels of participants must be understood easily in this case, then an Actor is human, the goal is inanimate, which is demonstrated in the following examples:

ACTOR	PROCESS	GOAL
1) <i>Edward</i>	<i>was sewing</i>	<i>wood</i>
2) <i>Her mother</i>	<i>smashed</i>	<i>the glass</i>

The actor may be an inanimate or an abstract entirely and the goal may be human. This statement is proved in the examples below:

ACTOR	PROCESS	GOAL
<i>The fire</i>	<i>had destroyed</i>	<i>everything</i>
<i>The pounding rhythm</i>	<i>shook</i>	<i>walls and floor</i>

Various subcategories of material processes can be identified on the basis of two divisions, the first of which is according to whether the process is **intentional** or **involuntary**. In the cases of involuntary processes the actor often seems like the goal in some respects. Consider:

ACTOR	PROCESS	GOAL
<i>She</i>	<i>tripped</i>	<i>over the steps</i>

Consequently in order the events to be clarified in spite of asking the question “What did she do?” it is more appropriate to ask the question “What happened to her?”. Due to the reason, that the process appears to affect the actor – a description which recalls the way is defined as the role of the goal.

Other possible group of division is based on the principle, that it would separate processes where the goals exist from those which bring goals into existence (or the opposite). Consider: *My Mum never eats **Christmas pudding**.* / *I’ve just done the **Christmas puddings**.*

Sometimes the process of ‘achieving’ seems to blend the ideas of ‘doing something’ in order ‘to have something’ and ‘having something’. For example: *He achieved his lifetime ambition when he finally appeared on TV.*

According to Valeika (1998:18) material processes are actions carried out by a participant, which is called *Agent*, it can be animate and also inanimate. In order the material processes to be defined, the question “*What did John(the participant) do?*” should be asked. Material processes are expressed as a result of the action by the *Agent* in a certain situation. Furthermore, the change of the object is affected. Therefore, as a result of John’s acting, *the dog is barking.*

3. 1. 1. Concretization transformation

According to Armalytė (1990, 2007), the process of concretization depends on a few factors. One of them can be the argument, that neither lexical nor textual equivalent is in the target language. However, this case is considered to be quite rare. In most cases both equivalents exist, but due to the context and its peculiarities a translator chooses the other variant, different from the one which is given in the dictionary.

In a wider meaning, concretization is considered to be the choice of the word which is in the possession of a wider denotative meaning in the target language. In the original language this certain word can have a few meanings, however, in the target language its chosen meaning is able to clarify the idea in the most appropriate way. Concretization can be divided into two types: systemical and contextual.

Armalyte (1990:208) argues, that systemical concretization is in the dependence of the differences of two languages. Contextual concretization depends on the certain original text and its features. Referring to systemical concretization it is significant to mention, that there are some problems of translation due to the reason, that a word in an original text can be in the possession of a great variety of meanings, however, the same word in the target language has no such a wide choice of meanings. It is also possible, that the words of the same denotative meaning can have different stylistic values on grammatical basis. Referring to the nouns of abstract meaning, the most frequently used noun in English is “thing”. In some cases it can be used as a pronoun as well. According to Collins Cobuild English Dictionary (1995) it is described as “a substitute for another word when you can not or do not want to be more precise, especially when you are referring to an object or to an action, activity, situation, idea, etc. which has already been mentioned”. Due to the reason that in Lithuanian there is no equivalent which possesses such a great amount of meanings, this word is changed into the noun with more concrete semantic meaning.

While performing the research based on the analysis of translation transformations, it is worth mentioning that concretization was used in the greatest majority of cases.

In some cases concretization was used, so that the whole view would be vividly described. The following example proves this statement:

1) *So Walter, looking immensely fierce, led off Florence, looking very happy; and they went arm-in-arm along the streets, perfectly indifferent to any astonishment that their **appearance** might or did excite by the way. (114p Ch. Dickens “Dombey and Son” 1)*

1) *Ir Uolteris, atrodydamas be galo rūstus, nusivedė Florens, kuri atrodė labai laiminga: ir šitaip jie ėjo gatvėmis, laikydamiesi už rankų, ir visiškai nepagalvodami, kokią nuostabą galėjo žadinti praeiviams ši tokia **keista pora**. (105p Č. Dikensas „Dombis ir sūnus“ 1)*

In the example above the subjectivized grammatical metaphor “appearance“ expresses the denotative meaning, showing, that there were the young man and the girl, who liked each other.

2) *A few stragglers from the theatres hurried by, and, now and then, I turned aside to avoid some noisy drunkard as he reeled homeward; but these **interruptions** were not frequent, and soon ceased. (20p Ch. Dickens “The Old Curiosity Shop”)*

2) *Bet ir tie reti **praeiviai** greitai dingo. (17p Č. Dikensas „Senienų krautuvėlė“)*

As it is shown in the example above the subjectivized grammatical metaphor “interruptions” didn’t show the reason, why somebody was disturbed. However, in the translation the meaning was differentiated due to use of the word “praeiviai”, because then the reason became obvious, that the passers-by disturbed that person.

In the following example the denotative meaning of the subjectivized grammatical metaphor, movement is differentiated so that to show that activity was connected to business. Consider the following example:

3) *There had been a **movement** in Turners, but he had not been able to make up his mind to part with it. (320p J. Galsworthy “The Man of Property”)*

3) *Terneris dabar turėjo didelę **paklausą**, tačiau Somsas vis dar nesiryžo skirtis su juo. (211p Dž. Golsvortis „Savininkas“)*

In the following example the subjectivized grammatical metaphor “going” was differentiated due to its meaning, connected with travelling. Consider:

4) *Then the **going on** again – so fresh at first, and shortly afterward so sleepily. (401p Ch. Dickens “The Old Curiosity Shop”)*

4) *O paskui vėl **kelionė**; pradžioje jautiesi taip guviai, bet netrukus ima marinti miegas. (373p Č. Dikensas „Senienų krautuvėlė“)*

According to Collins-Cobuild English Dictionary (1995:1735) the subjectivized grammatical metaphor “service” has a lot of meanings, however, in this case its meaning connected with funeral was chosen by the translator. Consider the following examples:

5) *The **service done**, the mourners stood apart, and the villagers closed round to look into the grave before the pavement-stone should be replaced. (627p Ch. Dickens “The Old Curiosity Shop”)*

5) *Nuleidus **karstą**, laidotuvininkai kiek atsitraukė, o kapą apsupo parapijiečiai, norintys paskutinį kartą žvilgtelėti į karstą, kol jo neuždengė kapo akmuo. (592p Č. Dikensas „Senienų krautuvėlė“)*

6) *Odd, how often **distinction** was connected with money! (16p J. Galsworthy “Swan Song”)*

6) *Keista, kaip dažnai **aristokratizmas** siejasi su pinigais. (463p Dž. Golsvortis, „Gulbės giesmė“)*

As it was demonstrated in the example above, the subjectivized grammatical metaphor “distinction” due to the variety of its meanings expressed the idea only in general features, however, its meaning was differentiated by choosing the word “aristokratizmas”, which conveyed snobbish behaviour. Consider:

7) *The **establishment** was, in fact typical of countless residences of the unlanded well- to –d. (82p Ch. Dickens “Donbey and son” 1)*

7) *Jo **ūkis** buvo tipiškas daugybės bežemių turtuolių rezidencijų pavyzdys. (518p Č. Dikensas „Dombis ir sūnus“ 1)*

As it is shown in the example above the subjectivized grammatical metaphor “establishment” can be connected with various activities, however, when this word was translated as “ūkis”, then due to concretization transformation the denotative meaning of this activity was conveyed showing that these activities were connected with agriculture.

8) *”This **action**,” he said, “is a very petty business. (137p J. Galsworthy “The White Monkey”)*

8) *Ta byla.* (351p Dž. Golsvortis „Baltoji beždžionėlė“)

The translation of this subjectivized grammatical metaphor was particular, because of such a short translated sentence. Even in a short sentence the denotative meaning was differentiated therefore it is shown, that those activities were connected with court. It is demonstrated in the example below.

Consequently, it is observed that the same subjectivized grammatical metaphor “arrangement“ was translated in three different ways due to the different semantic meanings of the sentences. For instance:

9) *Every young gentleman had a massive silver fork, and a napkin; and all **the arrangements** were stately and handsome.* (208p Ch. Dickens “*Dombey and Son*” 1)

9) *Prieš kiekvieną jaunąjį džentelmeną gulėjo masyvi sidabrinė šakutė ir servetėlė; ir visi kiti **stalo rakandai** buvo įspūdingi ir prašmatnūs.* (211p Č. Dikensas „*Dombis ir sūnus*“ 1)

10) *The Captain’s nosegay, after lying in the hall all night, was swept into the dustbin next morning; and the Captain’s sly **arrangement**, involved in one catastrophe with greater hopes and loftier designs, was crushed to pieces.* (291p Ch. Dickens “*Dombey and Son*” 1)

10) *Jo puokštė, išgulėjusi visą naktį vestibulyje, kitą rytą buvo išmesta į šiukšlių dėžę, o gudrus kapitono **projektas**, susidūręs su didesnių vilčių ir aukštesnių planų žlugimu, nuėjo niekais.* (302p Č. Dikensas „*Dombis ir sūnus*“ 1)

11) *This chance **arrangement** left Mr. Dombey at liberty to escort Edith: which he did, stalking before them through the apartments with a gentlemanly solemnity.* (476p Ch. Dickens “*Dombey and Son*” 1)

11) *Toks atsitiktinis **susiskirstymas** leido misteriiui Dombiui eiti su Edita.* (506p Č. Dikensas „*Dombis ir sūnus*“ 1)

In case a subjectivized grammatical metaphor was connected with the other word, the meanings of both of them could be differentiated. Consider:

12) *Arriving at his journey’s end, he leaped out, and breathlessly announcing his errand to the servant, followed him straight into the library, where there was a great **confusion of***

tongues, and where Mr. Dombey, his sister, and Miss Tox, Richards, and Nipper, were all congregated together. (119p Ch. Dickens “Dombey and Son” 1)

*12) Pasiėkęs kelionės tikslą, jis iššoko iš kariatos, vos atgaudamas kvapą, pranešė apie savo misiją tarnui ir stačiai nusekė paskui jį į biblioteką, iš kur sklido didis **balsų klegesys** ir kur misteris Dombis, jo sesuo ir mis Toks, Ričards ir Niper – visi buvo susirinkę į krūvą. (111 p Č. Dikensas, „Dombis ir sūnus“ 1)*

In the example above the subjectivized grammatical metaphor “confusion” was differentiated due to its semantic meaning, which was connected with the manner of speaking. The other word “tongues”, which was connected with this subjectivized grammatical metaphor, also had to be clarified in order its semantic meaning to be differentiated. Due to this reason the word “tongues” was translated into “balsų”, which was connected with a manner of the conversation as well.

Concretization was used so that the emotional atmosphere would be revealed.

Consider:

*13) He appeared to entertain a belief that the interview at which he had assisted was so very satisfactory and encouraging, as to be only a step or two removed from a regular betrothal of Florence to Walter; and that the late **transaction** had immensely forwarded, if not thoroughly established, the Whittingtonian hopes. (184p Ch. Dickens “Dombey and Son” 1)*

*13) Jis, atrodė, įtikėjo, kad pasimatymas, įvykęs jo akyse, buvo toks visais atžvilgiais patenkinamas ir daug žadantis, jog iki formalių Uolterio ir Florens sužadėtuvių tebuvo likęs tik tai vienas kitas žingsnis, ir kad pastarasis **incidentas**, jeigu dar galutinai ir nesutvirtino uitingtonišku vilčių, tai bent joms didžiai palankus. (184p Č. Dikensas „Dombis ir sūnus“ 1)*

In the example above it is shown, that According to “English – Lithuanian dictionary” (1992:464) the subjectivized grammatical metaphor “transaction” was translated as “prekybinis ar kt. susitarimas, sandėris”, however, the meaning of this subjectivized grammatical metaphor was concretized due to the semantic meaning of the sentence, in which it is shown, that there were the activities, connected with love affairs.

In the example below the translation of the subjectivized grammatical metaphor “possession” into “lobis” showed a deeper meaning, that it was not a simple property, but something very valuable. Consider:

14) *But Mr. Freeder's great **possession** was a large green jar of snuff, which Mr. Toots had brought down as a present, at the close of the last vacation; and for which he had paid a high price, as having been the genuine property of the Prince Regent. (245p Ch. Dickens "Dombey and Son" 1)*

14) *Bet didžiausias misterio Fiderio **lobis** buvo didelis žalias uostomojo tabako stiklainis, kurį misteris Tutsas atvežė jam dovanų, paskutinėms atostogoms pasibaigus, ir už kurį jis labai brangiai sumokėjo, nes tasai stiklainis tikrai priklausęs princui regentui. (251p Č.*

Dikensas

„Dombis ir sūnus“ 1)

With the regard to different semantic meaning of the sentence, the same subjectivized grammatical metaphor “difference” was translated in different ways, which are shown in the following examples:

15) *Matrimonial **differences** are usually discussed by the parties concerned in the form of dialogue, in which the lady bears at least her full half share. (427p Ch. Dickens "The Old Curiosity Shop")*

15) *Santuokinius **nesutarimus** šeimoje paprastai aiškinasi abi suinteresuotos šalys dialogo forma ir jau bent pusė jų tenka žmonos daliai. (397p Č. Dikensas „Senienų krautuvėlė“)*

In the example above it is shown, that the subjectivized grammatical metaphor “difference” was translated into “nesutarimai” so that its semantic meaning is connected with family life.

16) *Heaven, what **a difference** between theory and practice; many a man, perhaps even Soames, held chivalrous views on such matters, who when the shoe pinched found a distinguishing factors that made of himself an exception. (253p J. Galsworthy "The Man of Property")*

16) *Ir – dieve mieliausias! – **kokia bedugnė** skiria teoriją nuo praktikos; daugelio, gal net ir Somso pažiūros į šitokius dalykus riteriškos, bet vos tik susiduria su tuo patys, tuoj prasimano rimčiausių priežasčių pasiskelbti išimtimis. (163p Dž. Golsvortis „Savininkas“)*

In the example above, the subjectivized grammatical metaphor “difference” expressed emotional state of the hero, in this case its semantic meaning was differentiated, then it was translated into “kokia bedugnė”.

17) *The **difference** was finally adjusted, by the man who had come out of the cabin knocking the other into his head first, and taking the helm into his own hands, without evincing the least discomposure himself <...> (375p Ch. Dickens “The Old Curiosity Shop”)*

17) ***Ginčas** baigėsi tuo, kad vyras iš kabinos dėjo vairininkui per galvą ir šiam susmukus paėmė vairą į savo rankas; nei vienas, nei kitas neparodė dėl to kokio nors ypatingo nepasitenkinimo <...> (348p Č. Dikensas „Senienų krautuvėlė“)*

In the example above, the meaning of the subjectivized grammatical metaphor “difference” was differentiated in order to show, that the feelings of the characters were not involved into that situation. In this case the subjectivized grammatical metaphor “difference” was translated as “ginčas”.

The subjectivized grammatical metaphor “expression” was translated in a few ways, referring to the different semantic meanings of the following sentences. For instance:

18) *In the public walks and lounges of a town, people go to see and to be seen, and there the same **expression**, with little variety, is repeated a hundred times. (379p Ch. Dickens “The Old Curiosity Shop”)*

18) *O ten, kur miestelėnai eina pasivaikščioti, savęs parodyti ir į kitus pasižvalgyti, ten jų **veidai** daugmaž suvienodėja ir skiriasi labai nedaug. (352p Č. Dikensas „Senienų krautuvėlė“)*

19) *Mr. Polteed’s **expression** at that moment was a master-piece. (206p J. Galsworthy “The Man of Property”)*

19) *Misterio Poltido **veido išraiška** tuo momentu buvo neprilygstama. (459p Dž. Golsvortis „Savininkas“)*

20) *The **expression** of Ting-a-ling answered. (34p J. Galsworthy “The White Monkey”)*

20) *Tingas Tingas **žvilgsniu** atsakė jai. (18p Dž. Golsvortis „Baltoji beždžionėlė“)*

21) *Their expressions seemed say: 'Nothing of this sort ever happened till you came on the Board.* (228p J. Galsworthy "The White Monkey")

21) *Visų veidai tarsi sakė: „Nieko čia neatsitikdavo, kol neatsiradote jūs.“ Jis sudrumstė jų ramybę, ir jie negalėjo jam šito atleisti.* (193p Dž. Golsvortis „Baltoji beždžionėlė“)

The translation of the subjectivized grammatical metaphor “arrival“ also had a few variants. Consider:

22) *The next arrival was a Bank Director, reputed to be able to buy up anything – human Nature generally, if he should take it in his head to influence the money market in that direction- but who was a wonderfully modest- spoken man, almost boastfully so, and mentioned his “ little place” at Kingston- upon-Thames, and its just being barely equal to giving Dombey a bed and a chop, if he would come and visit it.* (91p Ch. Dickens “Dombey and Son” 2)

22) *Sekantis svečias buvo banko direktorius; pasak žmonių kalbų, jis būtų galėjęs nupirkti viską, ka tik būtų panorjęs - net žmogiškąją prigimtį, jei jam būtų dingtelėję į galvą paveikti ta kryptimi biržą, - bet ištikrųjų tai buvo žmogus, kuris kalbėdamas vaizduodavo save nuostabiai kuklų ir net mėgdavo tuo pasgirti: beišnekučiuodamas jis užsiminė apie savo „namelį“ Kingstone prie Temzės ir pasakė, kad jam bemaž drovu būtų pasiūlyti ten misteriumi Dombiui nakvynę ir kepsnį, jei tas panorėtų apsilankyti.* (101p Č. Dikensas „Dombis ir sūnus“ 2)

23) *The arrivals quickly became numerous.* (92p Ch. Dickens “Dombey and Son” 2)

23) *Svečių skaičius ėmė greitai augti.* (102p Č. Dikensas „Dombis ir sūnus“ 2)

In the examples above it is shown that the subjectivized grammatical metaphor “arrival” was differentiated to its semantic meaning of the sentence in order the celebration mood of the characters to be conveyed.

24) *There an exception, have been regarded as sound, not only in Park Lane, but amongst the Nicholases, the Rogers, and at Timothy's.* (345p J. Galsworthy "The Man of Property")

24) *Negalėjo but abejonių – tai patvirtino vėlesni gandai, - kad Džeimso patarimas: „Nieko nežiūrėk, susirask ir parsivesk ją atgal!“ buvo laikomas – su labai retom išimtim – visiškai protingu ne tiktai Park Leine, bet ir Nikolo, ir Rodžerio, ir Timočio namuose.* (228p Dž. Golsvortis „Savininkas“)

In the example above the meaning of the subjectivized grammatical metaphor “separation” was differentiated by adding the adjective “atskiras” in the target language, which helped to clarify the main idea.

25) *Twelve years' **separation** in which he had taken no steps to free himself put out of court the possibility of using her conduct with Bosinney as a ground for divorcing her. (84p J. Galsworthy “The Man of Property”)*

25) *Per visus dvylika **atskiro gyvenimo metų** jis nesiėmė žygių laisvei atgauti, o dabar jau nebeįmanoma pateikti kaip preteksto ištuokai jos elgesio su Bosinu. (352p Dž. Golsvortis „Savininkas“)*

The cases of concretization transformation were also found among the sentences of exclamation. This argument was based on the example below:

26) *What a **junction** a man's thoughts is, “said Mr. Toodle, “to-be-sure!” (120p Ch. Dickens “Dombey and Son” 2)*

26) *Garbės žodis, žmogaus mintys – **tikras geležinkelio mazgas!** – tarė misteris Tudlis. (132p Č. Dikensas, „Dombis ir sūnus“ 2)*

As it is shown in the example above the translation of the subjectivized grammatical metaphor “junction” into the word “geležinkelio mazgas” adding to it the adjective “tikras” helped to express the denotative meaning of this subjectivized grammatical metaphor and also conveyed it in a stronger way in order the exclamative emotion to be shown.

In some cases together with a subjectivized grammatical metaphor an additional noun was used in the target language. Consider:

27) ***Protection** than Free Trade, then deprecate Free Trade (24p J. Galsworthy “The Silver Spoon”)*

27) *Galima laviruoti, smerkti **protekcinius muitus** tol, kol protekcionizmas užgožia prekybos laisvę, o paskui smerkti prekybos laisvę. (254p Dž. Golsvortis, „Sidabrinis šaukštas“)*

In the example above it is demonstrated, that the translation of the subjectivized grammatical metaphor “protection” into “protekcinius muitus” differentiated the meaning of the subjectivized grammatical metaphor showing in what form that protection was expressed.

28) *She was not accustomed to be afraid of asking questions – all organization was based on the asking of questions!* (268psl J. Galsworthy “The Man of Property”)

28) *Misis Beinz niekada nebijojo uždavinėti klausimų – visa organizacinė veikla rėmėsi klausinėjimu!* (174psl Dž. Golsvortis „Savininkas“)

In the example above the translation of the subjectivized grammatical metaphor “organization” into “organizacinė veikla” expressed its denotative meaning by adding the noun “veikla”, which showed, that all those activities were managed very skillfully.

It was defined, that the use of pronouns in the translation of a subjectivized grammatical metaphor helped to reveal the additional details. The following example proves this statement:

29) *Beckoning to stray people to come into pews, has given Mrs. Miff an air of mystery; and there is reservation in the eye of Mrs. Miff, as always knowing of softer seat, but having her suspicion of the fee.* (6p Ch. Dickens “Dombey and Son”2)

29) *Įpratusi masinti į klauptus atsitiktinius bažnyčios lankytojus, misis Mif atrodo paslaptį, o jos žvilgsnyje esama kažkokio rezervuotumo, tarytum ji visada žinotų patogesnę vietelę, bet tik abejotų, ar gerai jai bus už tai atlygintina.* (6p Č. Dikensas „Dombis ir sūnus“ 2)

3. 1. 2. Generalization transformation

This is a completely opposite transformation to concretization. The lexical units containing a narrow choice of semantic meanings in an original language are replaced by the lexical units with a wider choice of semantic meaning in a target language.

It is established that a subjectivized grammatical metaphor was translated into a personal pronoun. This statement is shown in the following examples:

30) *Dombey sat in the corner of the darkened room in the great arm-chair by the bedside, and Son lay tucked up warm in a little basket bedstead, carefully disposed on a low settee immediately in front of the fire and close to it, as if his constitution were analogous to that of*

a muffin, and it was essential to toast him brown while he was very new. (25p Ch. Dickens "Dombey and Son" 1)

30) *Dombis sėdėjo užtemdyto kambario kampe dideliame fotelyje prie lovos, o sūnus gulėjo šiltai suvystytas pintame lopšyje, rūpestingai pastatytame ant žemos kušetės prieš pat židinį ir taip arti jo, kad atrodė, jog jį, lyg kokį minkštą pyragaitį, norėta paskrudinti iki rudumo, kol jis dar visai šviežias. (7p Č. Dikensas „Dombis ir sūnus“ 1)*

As it is illustrated in the example above the translation of the subjectivized grammatical metaphor “constitution” was completely generalized. According to “English – Lithuanian dictionary” (1992:80) the meanings of this word could be: 1) “sutvarkymas”, 2) “kūno sudėjimas”, 3) “konstitucija”. Due to the semantic meaning of the sentence, “kūno sudėjimas” was chosen conveying it by the means of the pronoun “jį” in the target language.

31) *His whole appearance was striking in its composure. (330p J. Galsworthy "The Man of Property")*

31) *Jis atrodė stulbinamai ramus. (217p Dž. Golsvortis „Savininkas“)*

In the example above the subjectivized grammatical metaphor “appearance” was generalized completely because of its translation into the pronoun “jį”. According to the “English – Lithuanian dictionary” (1992:17) the word “appearance” could be translated as: 1) “pasirodymas”, 2) “išvaizda”. Due to the semantic meaning of the sentence, it was evident that the meaning “išvaizda” was chosen, however, it was conveyed only through the pronoun.

It is ascertained that the translation of a subjectivized grammatical metaphor into other pronouns, such as: “viskas”, “niekas” or “kažkas” was also valid, which is illustrated in the example below:

32) *The bearings of this observation lays in the application on it. (420p Ch. Dickens "Dombey and Son" 2)*

32) *Viskas priklauso nuo manevravimo. (445p Č. Dikensas „Dombis ir sūnus“ 2)*

As it is shown in the example above, the details were not clarified due to this reason the subjectivized grammatical metaphor “the bearing of this observation” was translated into the noun “viskas”, which completely generalized the main idea of the certain sentence.

33) *These **arrangements** perfected to his entire satisfaction, he thrust his hands into his pockets, and walked up and down the office with measured steps. (479p Ch. Dickens “The Old Curiosity Shop”)*

33) *Kai **viską** padarė taip, kaip troško širdis, susikišo rankas į kišenes ir ėmė smulkiais žingsniais žingsniuoti po kontorą. (448p Č. Dikensas, „Senienų krautuvėlė“)*

In case a sentence was negative, then a subjectivized grammatical metaphor was translated into the pronoun “niekas” in order this negative meaning to be expressed in the target language. The following example proves this statement:

34) *No **action** could be colder, haughtier, more insolent in its air of supremacy and disrespect, but she had struggled against even that concession ineffectually, and it was wrested from her. (107p Ch. Dickens “Dombey and Son”2)*

34) *Nieko negalėjo būti šaltesnio, išdidesnio ir užulesnio už šį mostą, reiškiantį nepagarbą ir įsitikinimą savo pranašumu; tačiau ji veltui kovojo net prieš šią nuolaidą, kurią buvo priversta padaryti. (118p Č. Dikensas „Dombis ir sūnus“ 1)*

As it is shown in the example above, the subjectivized grammatical metaphor “action” was translated into the pronoun “niekas”. According to the “English – Lithuanian dictionary” (1992:5) the word “action” could be translated as: 1) “veikimas”, 2) “pasielgimas”, 3) “byla, ieškinys”, 4) “susirėmimas”. Due to the semantic meaning of the sentence the first meaning “veikimas” was chosen, however, the main idea was completely generalized.

In some cases the translation of a subjectivized grammatical metaphor was generalized with the expression of mystery, which was conveyed by the means of the pronoun “kažkas”. This argument is based on the following example:

35) *But in her thrilling voice, in her calm eyes, sometimes in a strange ethereal light that seemed to rest upon her head, and always in a certain pensive air upon her beauty, there was an **expression**, such as had been seen in the dead boy. (256p Ch. Dickens “Dombey and Son” 2)*

35) *Bet jos virpulingame balse, tykiame akių žvilgsnyje, kažkokioje keistoje lyg ir nežemiškoje šviesoje, nušviečiančioje tarpais jos veidą, ir visame mąsliame jos grožyje buvo **kažkas** primenančio mirusį berniuką. (282p Č. Dikensas „Dombis ir sūnus“ 2)*

The words such as “tai” or “tas” were also used in order the certain subjectivized grammatical metaphors were translated only in its general meaning. It is demonstrated in the examples below:

36) *Now people were saying that State **education** had ruined the State. (52p J. Galsworthy “Swan Song”)*

36) *Dabar sako, kad **tai** pasirodė esą pragaištinga pačiai valstybei. (493p Dž. Golsvortis „Gulbės giesmė“)*

37) ***Rehearsal** served him not at all. (78p J. Galsworthy “Chancery”)*

37) *Bet **tas** **nė** kiek nepagelbėjo. (347p Dž. Golsvortis „Kilpoje“)*

38) *The **situation** demanded cast-iron sense. (137p J. Galsworthy “The Silver Spoon”)*

38) ***Tam** reikia stiprių nervų. (111p Dž. Golsvortis „Sidabrinis šaukštas“)*

39) *Bicket clenched his fists – the **action** went curiously with the tears; then, without a word, he turned and shuffled out. (211p J. Galsworthy “The White Monkey”)*

39) *Biketas sugniaužė kumščius – **tai** keistai nesiderino su ašarotomis akimis; po to apsigrėžė ir, **nė** žodžio netaręs, nuspūdino durų link. (178p Dž. Golsvortis „Baltoji beždžionėlė“)*

3. 1. 3. The omission of nominalization

According to Armalytė (1990:235) in order “the compression of a text” to be achieved, a translator can omit the words or the combinations of words, which seem to be semantically redundant. Due to a great variety of insertations and additional explanations (which usually appear due to pragmatic intentions), the text of a target language usually gets longer. Because of this tendency a translator has to carry out the omission of redundant words according to the stylistic norms of an original language.

The other reason is that sometimes the words, which are important due to their pragmatic meaning, can be omitted because they have no equivalent in a target language. For instance, in the book by Salinger the adjective “old” is repeated in front of a name in almost every page, which expresses the feeling of familiarity. However, in the Lithuanian text it is

omitted due to this reason that in the Lithuanian language there is no equivalent, which can express the same function.

In some cases a subjectivized grammatical metaphor or some words could be omitted. Consequently, this kind of translation – omission - was also met while reading these works. Consider:

40) *What a **complication** of mystery!* (314p Ch. Dickens “*Dombey and Son*” 2)

40) *To dar betrūko!* (348p Č. Dikensas „*Dombis ir sūnus*“ 2)

41) *No **movement** in his wife’s face!* (165p J. Galsworthy “*To Let*”)

41) *Veidas kaip kaukė!* (665p Dž. Golsvortis „*Išnuomojama*“)

42) *There lived in those days, round the corner – in Bishopsgate Street Without – one Brogley, sworn broker and appraiser, who kept a shop where every **description of second – hand furniture** was exhibited in the most uncomfortable aspect, and under circumstances and in combinations the most completely foreign to its purpose.* (160p Ch. Dickens “*Dombey and Son*” 1)

42) *Tais laikais gyveno už kampo – Bišopgeit-strite – kažkoks Broglis, prisiekusis makleris ir teismo antstolis, laikąs krautuve, kurioje visokiausi **padėvėti baldai** buvo išstatyti kuo netvarkingiausiai – sugrupuoti ir išdėstyti visiškai ne pagal jų paskirtį.* (157p Č. Dikensas „*Dombis ir sūnus*“ 1)

Furthermore, it was worth mentioning, that in some cases the subjectivized grammatical metaphor “expression” was simply omitted, which is illustrated in the following three examples:

43) ***The bright expression of her face** was not overshadowed as her lips silently repeated the word.* (445p Ch. Dickens “*Dombey and Son*” 2)

43) *Šviesus jos veidas neapsiniaukė, kada ji, be garso judindama lūpas, pakartojo šį žodį.* (491p Č. Dikensas „*Dombis ir sūnus*“ 2)

44) *She feigned to be dandling the child as the servant retired on this errand, but she thought that she saw Mr. Dombey’s colour changed; that **the expression of his face** quite altered; that he turned, hurriedly, as if to gainsay what he had said, or she had said, or both, and was only deterred by very shame.* (59p Ch. Dickens “*Dombey and Son*” 1)

44) *Kada tarnas išėjo vykdyti, kas jam buvo pavesta, ji dėjosi liūliuojanti kūdikį, bet jai pasirodė, kad misteris Dombis išblyško, kad **jo veidas** visiškai atsimainė, kad jis skubiai nusigręžė, tarytum norėdamas atšaukti savo žodžius, ar jos žodžius, ar gal vienus ir kitus, ir kad jį sulaukė tiktai gėda. (44p Č. Dikensas „Dombis ir sūnus“ 1)*

45) *The **expression on his face** was that of a crossed child, intent on something that he has not got. (43p J. Galsworthy “To Let”)*

45) ***Jo veidas** buvo kaip suirzusio vaiko, kuris kažko nori, bet negauna. (557p Dž. Golsvortis „Išnuomojama“)*

As it is demonstrated in the examples above, the subjectivized grammatical metaphor “expression” was considered to be a redundant word, because the semantic meaning was clearly perceived without using it, therefore, due to the economization of the text this subjectivized grammatical metaphor was omitted. Consider the other example of omission:

46) *Such an **application from any other hand** might not have produced a remarkable effect, but the child shrank so quickly from his touch and felt such an instinctive desire to get out of his reach, that she rose directly and declared herself ready to return. (64p Ch. Dickens “The Old Curiosity Shop”)*

46) ***Jokia kita ranka** nebūtų jos taip stipriai paveikusi, nes mergytė pašoko kaip įgelta, instinktyviai pajutusi troškimą kuo toliau atsitraukti, ir pasakė, kad jai jau laikas namo. (58p Č. Dikensas „Senienų krautuvėlė“)*

In the example above the omission of the subjectivized grammatical metaphor “application” was omitted due to the absence of its equivalent in the target language, when this subjectivized grammatical metaphor had to be translated in the combination with the words “any other hand”. However, the semantic loss was not made, because the idea was understood even without the translation of this word.

47) *But **the first day’s operations** were by no means of a successful character, inasmuch as the general public, though they manifested a lively interest in Mrs. Jarley personally, and such of her waxen satellites as were to be seen for nothing, were not affected by any impulses moving them to the payment of sixpence a head. (283p Ch. Dickens “The Old Curiosity Shop”)*

47) Tačiau **pirmoji diena** nepasižymėjo ypatinga sėkme, nes toji publika kad ir rodė gyvą susidomėjimą pačia ponija Džarli ir ją supančiomis išymybėmis, nes šios buvo matomos dykai, bet prie stalelio anaipatol nesiveržė mokėti šešių pensų, kuriuos reikėjo nuo galvos pakloti už įėjimą. (261p Č. Dikensas „Senienų krautuvėlė“)

In the example above the subjectivized grammatical metaphor “operations” was omitted due the intention to minimize the amount of words in the target language.

48) **A movement of timid curiosity** impelles her, when she approached the spot, glance toward the fire. (363p Ch. Dickens “The Old Curiosity Shop”)

48) Ganėtinai priartėjus prie laužo, **smalsumo apimti**, mergaitė metė į jį žvilgsnį. (337p Č. Dikensas „Senienų krautuvėlė“)

In the example above the subjectivized grammatical metaphor “movement” was omitted because in the combination with the words “timid curiosity” this subjectivized grammatical metaphor was not translated, however, the semantic meaning of the sentence would be completely preserved.

49) **The coming to a town** – people busy in the markets; light carts and chaises round the tavern yard; tradesmen standing at their doors; men running horses up and down the street for sale <...> (401p Ch. Dickens “The Old Curiosity Shop”)

49) **Štai ir miestas** – žmonės zuja po turgavietes, užeigos kiemas pilnas dviračių vežimų ir fajetonų, prikliai stoviniuoja savo krautuvių tarpduriuose, arklininkai vedžioja gatve parduodamus <...> (373p Č. Dikensas „Senienų krautuvėlė“)

In the example above the subjectivized grammatical metaphor “coming” was omitted because the main idea was clear even without this word in the target language.

50) **A suspicion of the old deep truth** - that men were judged in this world rather by what they were, than by what they did – crept and knocked resentfully at the back doors of his mind. (192p J. Galsworthy “To Let”)

50) **Sena, nepajudinama tiesa**, kad apie žmones šiame pasaulyje sprendžiama ne pagal jų darbus, o pagal tai, kas jie buvo, prisėlino ir apmaudžiai ėmė belstis į užpakalines jo sąmonės duris. (688p Dž. Golsvortis „Išnuomojama“)

In the example above the subjectivized grammatical metaphor “suspicion” was omitted. However, the semantic loss was not made in this sentence.

51) *Development of child emigration* is wanted, in fact, on the same scale and with the same energy as was manifested in Munitions after a certain most honourable Member had put his shoulder to that wheel – multiplication a hundredfold. (91p J. Galsworthy “The Silver Spoon”)

51) *Vaikų emigracija* turi būti plečiama tokiu pat mastu ir su tokia pat energija, kaip buvo plečiama karo pramonė po to, kai į tą dalyką ryžtingai įsikišo vienas labai garbingas deputatas, ji turi padidėti šimteriopai. (311p Dž. Golsvortis, „Sidabrinis šaukštas“)

In the example above the subjectivized grammatical metaphor “development” was not translated due to the absence of its equivalent in the target language, because this subjectivized grammatical metaphor was translated into the phrase “vaikų emigracija”.

3. 1. 4. The change of numeral of a subjectivized grammatical metaphor

The change of numeral of a subjectivized grammatical metaphor was also met while performing this research. Moreover, the change of numeral from singular into plural was met quite frequently. In this regard the change from plural into singular was not so frequently observed.

3. 1. 4. 1. The change of numeral of a subjectivized grammatical metaphor from singular into plural in the translation

The change of numeral from singular into plural was illustrated in the examples below:

52) *In the public walks and lounges of a town, people go to see and to be seen, and there the same expression, with little variety, is repeated a hundred times.* (379p Ch. Dickens “The Old Curiosity Shop”)

52) *O ten, kur miestelėnai eina pasivaikščioti, savęs parodyti ir į kitus pasižvalgyti, ten jų veidai daugmaž suvienodėja ir skiriasi labai nedaug.* (352p Č. Dikensas „Senienų krautuvėlė“)

53) *The indisputable **proof** afforded in these hints, and in the Grinder's mysterious manner, of his not being subject to that failing which Mr. Toodle had, by implication, attributed to him, might have led to a renewal of his wrongs <...> (122p Ch. Dickens "Dombey and Son" 2)*

53) *Šios užuominos ir paslaptinga Galąstojo laikysena buvo nenuginčijami **įrodymai**, kad jis nėra visiškai laisvas nuo misterio Tudlio priskiriamos jam nuodėmės, dėl to tėvas gal vėl būtų įžeidęs sūnų ir visą šeimą vėl būtų sunerimusi <...> (135p Č. Dikensas „Dombis ir sūnus“ 2)*

3. 1. 4. 2. The change of numeral from plural into singular in the translation

The change of numeral of subjectivized grammatical metaphor from plural into singular among translation of subjectivized grammatical metaphors had its important place comparing it with other translation transformations. Consider:

54) *The **implications** of this news seemed every second more alarming. (115 p J. Galsworthy "The White Monkey")*

54) ***Padėtis** darėsi vis komplikuoatesnė. (91 p Dž. Golsvortis „Baltoji beždžionėlė“)*

55) *As a friend of both parties you knew that these **expressions** were just spleen and not to be taken seriously? (193 p J. Galsworthy "The White Monkey")*

55) *Būdama abiejų besibylinėjančiųjų draugė, jūs žinojote, kad tuo **laišku** norėta vien išlieti pyktį kad į jį nereikia rimtai žiūrėti? (399 p Dž. Golsvortis „Baltoji beždžionėlė“)*

3. 1. 4. 3. The change of the same subjectivized grammatical metaphor from singular into plural and from plural into singular in the translation

In some cases the same subjectivized grammatical metaphor was influenced by both changes of numeral, from singular into plural and from plural into singular.

The subjectivized grammatical metaphor “suspicion” was translated in both variants, under the influence of the change from singular into plural in the target language and vice versa. The sentences below show this change:

56) The **implications** of this news seemed every second more alarming. (115 p J. Galsworthy “The White Monkey”)

56) **Padėtis** darėsi vis komplikuotesnė. (91 p Dž. Golsvortis „Baltoji beždžionėlė“)

57) As a friend of both parties you knew that these **expressions** were just spleen and not to be taken seriously? (193 p J. Galsworthy “The White Monkey”)

57) Būdama abiejų besibylinėjančiųjų draugė, jūs žinojote, kad tuo **laišku** norėta vien išlieti pyktį kad į jį nereikia rimtai žiūrėti? (399 p Dž. Golsvortis „Baltoji beždžionėlė“)

The subjectivized grammatical metaphor “marriage” was influenced by both changes of translation from singular into plural and plural into singular, this statement was illustrated by the pair of the following sentences:

58) Wretched **marriages** don’t come of such things, in our degree; only wretchedness and ruin. (371p Ch. Dickens “Dombey and Son” 2)

58) Tarp tokių kaip mes tatai baigiasi ne vaidinga **santuoka**, bet nelaime ir pražūtimi. (410p Č. Dikensas, „Dombis ir sūnus“ 2)

59) “John, I want to explain to you if I can - and it is very hard – how it is that an unhappy **marriage** such as this can so easily come about. (177) J. Galsworthy “To Let”)

59) Džonai, norėčiau tau paaiškinti, jei tik man pavyks (tas labai sunku), kaip šitaip lengvai susidaro nelaimingos **santuokos**. (675p Dž. Golsvortis „Išnuomojama“)

The change of numeral of subjectivized grammatical metaphor

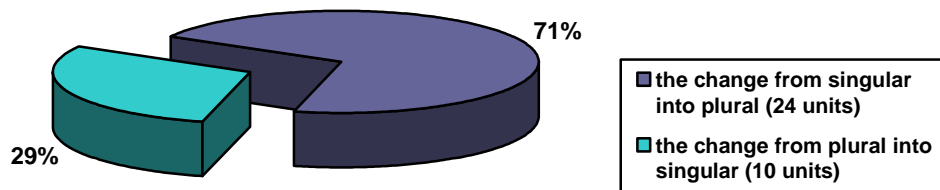


Figure 1

On the basis of this figure it is obvious, that the change from singular into plural was used considerably more than the change from plural into singular.

The use of translation transformations

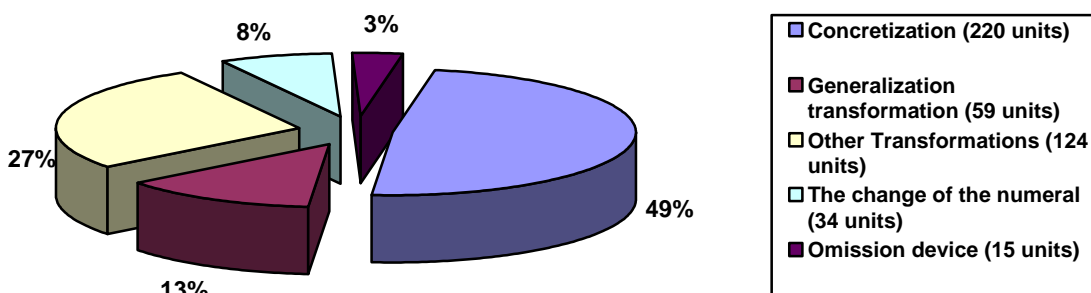


Figure 2

On the basis of the Figure 2 it is demonstrated, that in order a subjectivized grammatical metaphor to be translated concretization device was used in a great majority of cases. Generalization and translation devices were also used quite frequently. However, the change of numeral and omission device were used quite rarely.

3. 1. 5. Subjectivized grammatical metaphor translated as subjectivized grammatical metaphor

Literal translation was often used in these works. Consider these examples:

60) *At the most a **flirtation**, ending, as all such attachments should, at the proper time.* (235p J. Galsworthy "The Man of Property")

60) *Daugių daugiausia **tai flirtas**, kuris po tam tikro laiko baigsis, kaip baigiasi visos panašios istorijos.* (150p Dž. Golsvortis, „Savininkas“)

61) *Yes, even **marriage** – was an exercise of judgment – a pitting of yourself against other people.* (43p J. Galsworthy "Swan Song")

61) *Taip, netgi **vedybos** išreiškia išmintingumą – priešpastatai save kitiems.* (486p Č. Dikensas „Gulbės giesmė“)

62) *Her description was a masterpiece of understatement. (126p J. Galsworthy "To Let")*

62) *Jos pasakojimas buvo tobulas faktų retušavimas. (630p Dž. Golsvortis „Išnuomojama“)*

63) *The hopeless movement touched her, who had no fear of her father – none. (154p J. Galsworthy "To Let")*

63) *Tas beviltiškas judesys sujaudino mergaitę, visai nesibijančią tėvo – nė kiek nesibijančią. (665p Dž. Golsvortis „Išnuomojama“)*

64) *Private possession underlay everything worth having. (172p J. Galsworthy "To Let")*

64) *Privati nuosavybė yra pagrindas visko, ką verta turėti. (671p „Išnuomojama“)*

In relation to the frequently used terms, the subjectivized grammatical metaphors, which included the list of international words, were translated literally, it means that a subjectivized grammatical metaphor was translated as a subjectivized grammatical metaphor. This argument is demonstrated in the examples below:

65) *"My dear boy," said Hilary, "the old Reformation was nothing to what's been going on in the Church lately. (114p J. Galsworthy "Swan Song")*

65) – *Mielasis, - tarė Hileris, - Reformacija – Tai niekis, palyginti su tuo, kas vyksta pastaruoju metu bažnyčios reikaluose. (544p Č. Dikensas „Gulbės giesmė“)*

66) *"Repression is stupid, you know, Jon." (147p J. Galsworthy "Swan Song")*

66) – *Susivaldymas- kvailystė, - tarė Flerė ir instinktyviai pridurė: - Todėl aš esu prieš klasikinės moklyklas. (572p Č. Dikensas „Gulbės giesmė“)*

67) *"Education's free; women have the vote; even the workman has or soon will have his car; the slums are doomed – thanks to you, Forsyte; amusement and news are in every home; the Liberal Party's up the spout; Free Trade's a moveable feast; sport's cheap and plentiful; dogma's got the knock; so has the General Strike; Boy Scouts are increasing rapidly; dress is comfortable; and hair is short – it is all millennial." (216p J. Galsworthy "Swan Song")*

67) - *Mokslas nemokamas; moterys turi balsavimo teisę; net darbininkas turi arba netrukus turės savo automobilį; lūšnos pasmerktos pražūčiai - jūsų dėka, Forsaitai; pasilinksminimai ir naujienos lanko kiekvieną pastogę; liberalų partija užstatyta lombarde; prekybos laisvė – kintamas dydis; sportas prieinamas neribotais kiekiais; dogmatikai gavo per sprandą;*

visuotinis streikas irgi; skautų vis daugėja; rūbai patogūs; plaukai trumpi - visa tai byloja apie dangaus karalystę. (630p Č. Dikensas „Gulbės giesmė“)

68) *Emigration had fallen from 200,000 to 100,000. (89p J. Galsworthy “Swan Song”)*

68) *Emigravimas sumažėjęs nuo dviejų šimtų tūkstančių iki šimto tūkstančių. (310p Dž. Golsvortis „Gulbės giesmė“)*

The use of translation transformations comparing them with literal translation

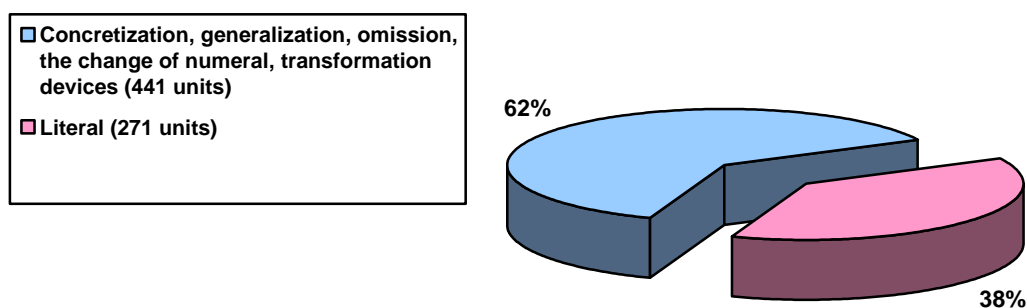


Figure 3

On the basis of this figure it is shown literal translation was not used frequently comparing it with all the rest transformations.

3. 1. 6. Subjectivized grammatical metaphor translated as a verb

It was established, that nominalization was translated as a verb. Consider these examples:

69) *But pressure against him was all it meant to Fleur. (103p J. Galsworthy “Swan Song”)*

69) *Bet Flerė glaudėsi prie Džono, ir niekas daugiau jai nerūpėjo. (536p Dž. Golsvortis „Gulbės giesmė“)*

70) *Old Jolyon did not see them pass; he was petting poor Holly who was tired, but those in the carriage had taken in the little group; the ladies' heads tilted suddenly, there was a*

*spasmodic screening **movement** of parasols; James' face protruded naively, like the head of a long bird.*(209psl J. Galsworthy "The Man of Property")

70) *Senasis Džolionas nematė jų pravažiuojant; jis glostė vargšėlę Holę, kuri pailso, tačiau tie, kur sėdėjo lando, pamatė mažą grupelę; damos kaipmat užvertė galvas ir karštiškai **užsidengė skėčiais**; Džeimsas naiviai ištempė kaklą, jo burna pamažėle prasižiojo, ir jis tapo panašus į išstypusį paukštį. (132psl Dž. Golsvortis, „Savininkas“)*

71) ***Nearer observation showed** her that they were poorly dressed, as wanderers about the country; that the younger woman carried knitted work or some such goods for sale; and that the old one toiled on empty-handed. (165p Ch. Dickens "Dombey and Son" 2)*

71) *Arčiau prie jų priėjusi, **jį pamatė**, kad jos apsirengusios taip skurdžiai, kaip dėvi pėsčios keliauninkės, klajojančios po kraštą, ir kad jaunoji moteris nešasi kažkokį mezginį ir dar kažkokius daiktus, matyt, skirtus parduoti, o senoji kliūtina tuščiomis rankomis. (182p Č. Dikensas, „Dombis ir sūnus“ 2)*

72) *A **decision** having been come to not to speak of Irene's flight, no view was expressed by any other member of the family as to the right course to be pursued; there can be little doubt, from the general tone adopted in relation to events as they afterwards turned out, that James' advice: „Don't you listen to her, follow her and get her back! (345p J. Galsworthy "The Man of Property")*

72) *Kadangi apie Irenos pabėgimą **buvo nutarta** nekalbėti, niekas nė nesvarstė, ko toliau imtis. (228p Dž. Golsvortis „Savininkas“)*

73) ***The retirement** from Spion Kop and the absence of any good news from the seat of war imparted an air of reality to all this, clinched in startling fashion by Timothy. (165p J. Galsworthy "Chancery")*

73) *Dėl to, kad buvo **atsitraukta** nuo Spion Kopo, kad iš mūšio lauko nebėjo geros žinios, viskas atrodė labai tikra, - tą visiškai nelauktai patvirtino ir patsai Timotis. (424p Dž. Golsvortis „Kilpoje“)*

74) *But **retirement** from affairs had effected in Soames a deeper change than he was at all aware of. (62p J. Galsworthy "The Silver Spoon")*

74) ***Atsisakęs praktikos**, Somsas pasikeitė kur kas labiau, negu pats buvo manęs. (287p Dž. Golsvortis, „Sidabrinis šaukštas“)*

A subjectivized grammatical metaphor was translated as participle. Consider:

75) *These **arrangements** completed, Mr. Quilp looked around him with chuckling satisfaction, and remarkable that he called that comfort. (103p Ch. Dickens “The Old Curiosity Shop”)*

75) *Šitaip pasitvarkęs ponas Kvilpas apsižvalgė ir, iš pasitenkinimo prunkštelėjęs, pasakė tai ir vadinąs patogumu. (94p Č. Dikensas „Senienų krautuvėlė“)*

76) *These **arrangements perfected**, they drove to the justice-room with all speed, followed by the notary and his two friends in another coach. (523p Ch. Dickens “The Old Curiosity Shop”)*

76) *Šitaip persitvarkę, jie kiek galėdami greičiau nudardėjo į teismo salę, o paskui juos, kita karieta, važiavo notaras su savo dviem draugais. (490p Č. Dikensas „Senienų krautuvėlė“)*

77) *However, it was high time now to be thinking of the play; for which **great preparation** was required in the way of shawls and bonnets, not to mention one handkerchief full of oranges and another of apples, which took some time tying up, in consequence of the fruit having a tendency to roll out at the corners. (341p Ch. Dickens “The Old Curiosity Shop”)*

77) *Tačiau atėjo metas **ruoštis** į cirką; tam sugaišo nemaža laiko, nes bet kaip neužsidėsi kyko, neužsimesi šalio šleivai kreivai, o ką jau kalbėti apie skepetaites: vieną pilną apelsinų, kitą – obuolių; tokias surišti ne taip jau pigu, nes vaisiai kaip tyčia visad lenda pro kampus. (316p Č. Dikensas „Senienų krautuvėlė“)*

In consequence of various ways of translation, it was essential to notice another particularity of the translation of a subjectivized grammatical metaphor, when it was translated into the infinitive. The following examples proved this fact:

78) ***His preparations** were leisurely; he caught, as every true artist should, at anything that might delay for a moment the effort of his work, and he found himself looking furtively at this unknown dame. (303p J. Galsworthy “The Man of Property”)*

78) *Pradėti jis nesiskubino; kaip ir kiekvienas tikras menininkas, jaunasis Džolionas naudojosi kiekviena dingtimi, kad bent kiek atitolintų kūrybinės įtampos akimirka, ir neilgai trukus pajuto, jog žvilgčioja slapčiomis į nepažįstamąją. (199p Dž. Golsvortis „Savininkas“)*

79) *The knocking*, which was now renewed, and which in that stillness they could plainly hear, troubled them. (610p Ch. Dickens "The Old Curiosity Shop")

79) Vežėjas vėl **ėmė daužyti duris**, ir tas triukšmas, puikiai girdimas nakties tyloje, sukėlė jų nepasitenkinimą – ak, kad tas žmogus nustotų drumstęs ramybę – ir jie apgailestavo, kodėl neliepė jam ramiai laukti jų grįžtant. (576p Č. Dikensas „Senienų krautuvėlė“)

80) This was *the beginning* of his always saying in the morning that he was a great deal better, and that they were to tell his father so. (287p Ch. Dickens "Dombey and Son" 1)

80) Ir štai tada **jis pradėjo kartoti** kiekvieną rytą, kad jam esą daug geriau ir kad jie tai pasakytų tėveliui. (298 p Č. Dikensas „Dombis ir sūnus“ 1)

It was defined, that in some cases a subjectivized grammatical metaphor was translated into the past participle. Consider the following example:

81) *THE ANNOUNCEMENT* by Michael on the following Monday that Fleur would be bringing Kit home the next morning caused Soames to say: "I'd like to have a look at that part of the world. (176p J. Galsworthy "Swan Song")

81) Kad pirmadienį **sužinojės** iš Maiklo, kad po dienos Flerė grįžta su vaiku namo, Somsas pasakė: - Man norėtusi susipažinti su šia pasaulio dalimi. (596p Dž. Golsvortis „Gulbės giesmė“)

It was ascertained, that a subjectivized grammatical metaphor may be translated into the subjective mood. This fact is proved by the following example:

82) "A *good beating*," he said, "is the only thing that would bring you to your senses," but turning on his heel, he left the room. (278p Ch. Dickens "The Old Curiosity Shop")

82) – Gal tik gerai kailį **išpėrus**, - ištarė jis, - būtų galima jus atvesti į protą. (181p Č. Dikensas „Senienų krautuvėlė“)

It was established, that subjectivized grammatical metaphor can be translated into the infinitive form. Consider:

83) *The action* suggested another. (117p J. Galsworthy "The White Monkey")

83) **Reikėjo kažką daryti**. (92p Dž. Golsvortis „Baltoji beždžionėlė“)

84) **Decision** waited for him, somewhere, somewhere- Fleur's, not his own.(154p J. Galsworthy "The White Monkey")

84) **Kažkas turi išsispręsti** – nežinia, kur nežinia kada, ir sprendimas Flerės, o ne jo rankose. (126p Dž. Golsvortis „Baltoji beždžionėlė“)

85) The defendant's **contention** would render these figures meaningless. (335p J. Galsworthy "The Man of Property")

85) **Taip tvirtinant**, šis punktas pasirodo visai beprasmiškas. (221p Dž. Golsvortis „Savininkas“)

On the basis of the following examples it was observed, that the subjectivized grammatical metaphor "entrance" was used quite frequently and translated into the verbs "pasirodžius" ir "įėjus".

86) **The entrance** of the lost child made a slight sensation, but not much. 121p Ch. Dickens "Dombey and Son" 1)

86) **Pasirodžius** pradingusiam vaikui, kilo susijaudinimas, tiesą sakant, ne per didžiausias. (113p Č. Dikensas „Dombis ir sūnus“ 1)

87) The **re-entrance** of the egg-beater put a stop to it. (123p) J. Galsworthy "The White Monkey")

87) Pokalbį pertraukė **įėjusi** kiaušinių plakėja. (339p Dž. Golsvortis „Baltoji beždžionėlė“)

88) **The entrance** of Kit and his silver dog caused a sort of cooing sound, speedily checked, for three of the women were of Forsyte stock, and the Forsytes did not coo. (65p J. Galsworthy "Swan Song")

3) **Pasirodžius Kitui** ir jo sidabriniam šuniukui, pasigirdo į burkavimą panašus garsas, kuris bematant nutilo, kadangi trys iš moterų buvo Forsaitų giminės, o Forsaitai neburkuoja. (504p Dž. Golsvortis „Gulbės giesmė“)

89) The **entrance** of Bicket into a room where his last appearance had been so painful, was accomplished with a certain stolidity. (208 p J. Galsworthy "The White Monkey")

89) Kai Biketas **įėjo** į kambarį, kuriame paskutinį sykį buvo lankęsis gan liūdnomis aplinkybėmis, susidarė kažkokia nenatūrali atmosfera. (175 p Dž. Golsvortis „Baltoji beždžionėlė“)

3. 1. 7. The translation of a subjectivized grammatical metaphor from the syntactic point of view

It was defined, that a subjectivized grammatical metaphor was translated into a subject. This argument is based on the following examples:

90) *Conversation* buzzed around him. (166p J. Galsworthy "To Let")

90) *Prie stalo dūzgė pašnekesys.* (665p Dž. Golsvortis „Išnuomojama“)

91) *He was getting on; but he didn't feel it, for, fortunately perhaps, considering Annette's youth and good looks, his second marriage had turned out a cool affair.* (10p J. Galsworthy "To Let")

91) *Taip, senatvė artinasi; tačiau metų našta itin sunkiai jo neslėgė, kadangi, nepaisant Anetės jaunystės ir grožio, antroji santuoka – ko gero, jo laimei – nesužadino bent kiek karštesnių jausmų.* (528p Dž. Golsvortis „Išnuomojama“)

92) *Marriage without a decent chance of relief is only a sort of slave-owning; people oughtn't to own each other.* (109p J. Galsworthy "To Let")

92) *Santuoka be normalios galimybės išsituokti – viena iš vergijos formų; žmogus neprivalo būti kieno nors nuosavybė.* (615p Dž. Golsvortis „Išnuomojama“)

93) *This salutation was addressed to Mr. Chuckster, who, with his hat extremely on one side, and his hair a long way beyond it, came swaggering up the walk.* (349p Ch. Dickens "The Old Curiosity Shop")

93) *Pasveikinimas buvo skirtas išdidžiai takeliu atžingsniuojančiam ponui Čaksteriui su labai ant šono uždėta skrybėle, iš po kurios plevėsavo ilgi plaukai.* (324p Č. Dikensas „Senienų krautuvėlė“)

A subjectivized grammatical metaphor was translated into a predicate. Consider these examples:

94) *According to Mr. Blythe, the solution was to "form a group" of right – thinking opinion.* (14p J. Galsworthy "Swan Song")

94) *Anot misterio Blaito, tik sudarius grupę sveikai galvojančių žmonių, būtų galima išsigelbėti iš padėties.* (461p Dž. Golsvortis „Gulbės giesmė“)

95) A sharp **movement** shook all Fleur's silver bells. (197p J. Galsworthy "Swan Song")

95) Smarkiai **pasisukus**, sužvangėjo visi Flerės sidabriniai skambaliukai. (615p Dž. Golsvortis „Gulbės giesmė“)

96) The faintest **movement** occurred to Mr Polteed's shoulders. (206p J. Galsworthy "Chancery")

96) Misterio Poltido pečiai vos pastebimai **kilstelėjo ir nusileido**. (460p Dž. Golsvortis „Kilpoje“)

97) Their **movements** then became intensive. (99 p J. Galsworthy "The Silver Spoon")

97) Tada abu **ėmė įnirtingai mosuoti rankomis**. (318 p Dž. Golsvortis „Sidabrinis šaukštas“)

Taking into account, it is significant to notice a subjectivized grammatical metaphor was translated into a place adverbial. This statement is illustrated by the example below:

98) D' you think the child's **department** at Harridge's would have toy truncheons? (16p J. Galsworthy "Swan Song")

98) Kaip manote, ar Heridžo parduotuvėj **vaikų skyriuje** yra žaislinių lazdelių? (463p Dž. Golsvortis „Gulbės giesmė“)

The translation of a subjectivized grammatical metaphor into different parts of a sentence

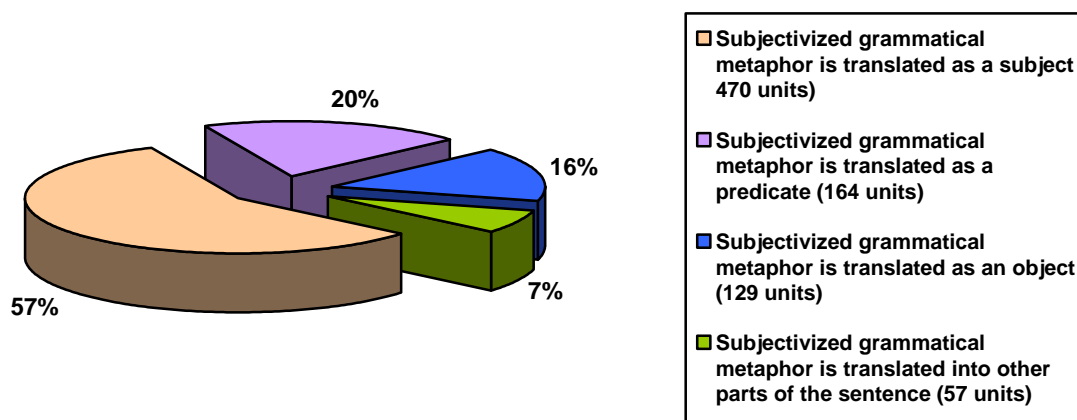


Figure 4

As it is demonstrated in this diagram, in a great majority of cases subjectivized grammatical metaphor was translated into a subject. The translation of a subjectivized grammatical metaphor into a predicate was carried out in considerably less cases. The translation of nominalization into an object was not performed frequently as well.

3. 2. The translation of mental nominalizations

As it has been referred before the other categories need to be established apart from material processes. There is a great difference between material and mental processes because of the considerable difference between the action of external and internal world of mind and feelings.

In consequence of this reason the person in whose mind these mental actions are in process does not act in reality, that is why an actor is called a Senser what is illustrated in the example:

SENSER	PROCESS: MENTAL	PHENOMENON
<i>She</i>	<i>could hear</i>	<i>his voice</i>

In other words, she ‘undergoes’ the process of hearing and the process is not really ‘directed at’ the phenomenon.

On the basis of grammatical justification Halliday (1994: 114-17) gives five criteria in order material and mental processes to be distinguished. The first is that at least one human participant must be involved in this process. Sometimes even an inanimate participant can be involved in this action, but it acts as if it had some emotions which are characteristic to animate objects, then this intention works in its proper way. It is illustrated in the following example: *We used to have a car, that **didn’t like cold weather.***

The second criterion, which is complementary, is that the kind of entity whose function is to play the role of the **Phenomenon** is not so restricted in comparison with material process. A great variety of objects can be presented in this case, due to this fact it can be a person, a concrete object or an abstract. It is shown in the examples: *Did you notice the key?/Do you regret that she’s left?*

The third reason in order material and mental processes to be distinguished is tense, material processes must be expressed in the Present Continuous tense, for example: *He’s mending the handle.*

In some cases, the Present Simple tense can be used, however, then certain circumstance indicating the repetition of this action must be used. For example: *He mends the handle every week.*

In order mental processes to be expressed in a great majority of cases the Present Simple is used, for instance: *They like salmon.*

The fourth reason is, that mental processes are ‘reversible’ what is shown in the table below:

PHENOMENON	PROCESS (MENTAL)	SENER
<i>His news</i>	<i>seemed to puzzled</i>	<i>her</i>
<i>His lack of self-esteem</i>	<i>never worried</i>	<i>him</i>
<i>The realization</i>	<i>horrified</i>	<i>her</i>

This reversibility is shown even in a stronger way in certain cases when the pairs of verbs can be indentified, these verbs are associated with mental process but reverse the Sener and the Phenomenon slots. In the examples below it is clearly demonstrated, that the first clause has the Sener as the Subject, while the second has the Phenomenon as the Subject. Consider:

She liked what he did.

What he did pleased her.

It admire his willingness to experiment.

His willingness to experiment impresses me.

He fancied her.

She attracted him.

Despise the fact, that each member is different in its choice of the Subject (and the Theme) in terms of real word even they are essentially the same, therefore, two Participants remain in the same roles of the Sener and Phenomenon. Due to the variety a passive clause can be used as well, especially in this case, when the human the Sense must be brought into the position if the Subject. Consider:

SENSER	PROCESS (MENTAL)	PHENOMENON
<i>She</i>	<i>seemed to be puzzled</i>	<i>bys this new</i>
<i>He</i>	<i>was never worried</i>	<i>by the lack of his self</i>
<i>She</i>	<i>was horrified</i>	<i>by the realization</i>

The fifth reason in order material processes to be separated from mental ones is that they need a different type of questions, the most appropriate would be ‘What was her reaction’ or ‘What effect did it have on her?’ However, there are some cases when these questions don’t seem to be appropriate. These particular cases can be classified into three sub – categories of mental processes, such us:

1)**affection** or **reaction** processes,

2)**cognition** (the processes of deciding, knowing, understanding and etc.) processes,

3) **perception** (seeing, hearing) processes;

Referring to the features of mental processes it is significant to mention that in some cases two participants can be involved. On the basis of this difference mental processes can be separated from material processes. Due to this reason a number of material processes have no goal, however, in mental processes sometimes even two participants can be involved. In these cases the sentence can be with the Phenomenon or without it, which is illustrated in the table below:

SENSER	PROCESS (MENTAL)	PHENOMENON
<i>She</i>	<i>was delighted</i>	<i>(by his attractiveness)</i>

It is vital to mention that in some cases the sentence can be with or without the Senser.

PHENOMENON	PROCESS(MENTAL)	SENSER
<i>My elbow</i>	<i>doesn’t hurt</i>	<i>(me)</i>
<i>These tricks</i>	<i>will delight</i>	<i>(people)</i>

In his case the object (‘bread’) and the quality (‘stale’) and the function of the Predicator (‘is’) show their common relationship. Referring to the basic terms such as ‘process’ or ‘participant’ it is obvious neither of them to be appropriate in order this category

to be described. It is defined, that in this case there is no process in the normal sense when some kind of an action is in progress. It is defined that there are two concepts: one on each side of the relationship, however, in the real world the only participant exists, because the attribute 'state' is not a real participant. For example: *His immediate objective was the church.*

In the following example two concepts are presented in order different ways of referring to the same entity to be presented. However, all the phenomenon will not be covered by grammatical term.

Furthermore, it is worth being presented two different types of **relational process**. In the first 'this bread' is described by the attribute 'state', while in the other sentence the relationship of identity is set up, between 'his immediate objective' and 'the church'. Due to this reason the first type is called on **attribute** relational process and the two participants are the **Carrier** (the entity which 'carries' the attribute) and the **Attribute**. Appropriate examples one demonstrated in the teble below:

CARRIER	PROCESS	ATTRIBUTE
<i>His bread</i>	<i>is</i>	<i>stale</i>
<i>He</i>	<i>is not</i>	<i>a good painter</i>
<i>She</i>	<i>was</i>	<i>an art student</i>

The second type is also worth being presented here, which is called **identifying** relational process. The function of this kind of process distinguishes one entity form the other. Due to this reason the participants are labeled the **Identified** and the **Identifier**. The appropriate examples are demonstrated in the table below:

IDENTIFIED	PROCESS	IDENTIFIER
<i>His immedia objective</i>	<i>was</i>	<i>the church</i>
<i>My name</i>	<i>is</i>	<i>Edward</i>
<i>This</i>	<i>used to be</i>	<i>our dining room</i>
<i>Pat</i>	<i>is</i>	<i>her brother</i>

The Predicator in identifying processes is equivalent, consequently this statement leads to the conclusion, that these processes are reversible. It is shown in the example below: *The church was his immediate objective. Edward is my name. Our dining room used to be this (room). Her brother is Pat.*

However, attribute relational processes are not reversible in this way. Only in a narrow majority of cases the Attribute may come first, the other reason, that the roles cannot be switched with the carrier by the attribute. In a great majority of cases the attribute comes the first, as it is illustrated in the table below:

ATTRIBUTE	PROCESS: RELATIONAL	CARRIER
<i>Beyond the roundabout</i>	<i>is</i>	<i>the side of the new University</i>
<i>Opposite Pier Head</i>	<i>stands</i>	<i>the liver Building</i>

Referring to the examples ‘Pat is her brother’ it is necessary to mention, that both the Identified and the Identifier refer to the some real world of entity, addressing to be the person ‘Pat’ or ‘her brother’ a person applies to the same. It is established, that it is determined by the context which role must be filled by each of these two ways in order the same entity to be referred. These statements lead to be conclusion, that identification is the matter of relating a specific realization and a more generalisable category. This quite difficult concept can be comprehended better on the basis of the following example: *Marlowe was the greatest dramatic writer in the sixteenth century apart from Shakespeare.*

In this example, having summarized Marlowe’s work the writer moves to ‘place’ the dramatist in a wider perspective. It is carried out by identifying Marlowe as the specific holder of a more general role, the same sentence can be paraphrased as follows:

Marlowe filled the role of the greatest dramatic writer in the sixteenth century apart from Shakespeare.

(However, it looks quite clumsily). This example can be contrasted by the other sentence where the identification is proceeded in the opposite direction. For example: *The strongest shape is the triangle.*

This sentence can be paraphrased as follows: *The role of strongest shape is filled by the triangle* or *The strongest shape is represented by the triangle.*

In the more general category it is called the **Value**, while the specific embodiments are the **Taken**. The direction of identification from general to specific or from specific to general depends on the entity, which is involved in the progress. It is important to add, that in this case, if the general category is established, then this direction will be defined in terms of its specific embodiment and vice verse. The analysis of these examples is shown below:

TAKEN	PROCESS	VALUE
<i>Marlowe</i>	<i>was</i>	<i>was the greatest dramatic writer in the sixteenth century apart from Shakespeare.</i>

VALUE	PROCESS	TAKEN
<i>The strongest shape</i>	<i>is</i>	<i>the triangle</i>

On the basis of the analysis of Identified / Identifier the process of the unfolding of the particular text is shown. However, the Value analysis broader concerns with the values of the writer which must be revealed. Due to this reason on the basis of the Value the analysis the values of the writer is revealed with the help of the analysis of the Takens which the writer deals with.

In the Figure 19 many examples are demonstrated. The very common phenomenon of ‘to’ infinitive or ‘that’ projected clause as the Taken, usually in clauses with the Value and the Taken offering. All of them can be confirmed to be indentifying clauses by checking that they can be reversed.

(In this case the change of the form of the verb is necessary to be carried out, unless it is ‘be’). Consider:

TAKEN IDENTIFIED	PROCESS	VALUE IDENTIFIER
<i>Planned scarcity</i>	<i>was</i>	<i>the key to the profitability of diamonds</i>
<i>Meaning focused activity</i>	<i>constitutes</i>	<i>a condition for language acquisition</i>
<i>Einstein’s predictions</i>	<i>matched</i>	<i>what was observed</i>

According to Halliday (1985:105) “We need to cognize the fact, that much of the time people are not talking about concrete processes like *springing* or *catching* or even abstract ones like *dissolving* and *resigning*. We are talking about such momentous phenomenon as what we *feel* or *thing*, what Mary said to John, what is good or bad, here or there, mine or yours, these are flesh blood of every day encounters.”

According to Valeika (1998:40) “there are three types of processes:

- 1) **processes of perception** (e.g. see, hear)
- 2) **processes of cognition** (e.g. know, understand)

3) processes of affection (e.g. like fear).

In Valeika's opinion, we deal with the situation, which a participant may be included in. This participant does something to somebody. In difference from material processes, mental *processes are semantically* varied. Due to this reason, if a mental verb is involved into a situation, in this case the participant does not control the situation due to this reason, that he (or she) is affected by that processes.

According to Valeika (1998:43) the processes of cognition express the processes of knowing and are realized by such stative verbs as: *believe, consider, differ, distrust, doubt, expect, feel, fear, find, forget, foresee, imagine, know, mean, mind, recollect, remember, think, trust, understand.*

That *Phenomenon* can denote both concrete and abstract entities, consequently, it can be realized by either predicative or non predicative structures.

According to Valeika (1998:45), the processes of affectivity can be conveyed by such verbs as: *like, love, enjoy, please, delight, dislike, distress, hate, detest, want and etc.* In every day English these verbs usually have a *Recipient Experiencer* Subject. The *Phenomenon* in affectivity processes can be conveyed in:

- 1) a nominal word + combination;
- 2) a clause (infinitive or gerund);
- 3) a noun (pronoun + a clause infinitive).

Of affectively processes can also be expressed by these verbs: *satisfy, surprise, dismay, anger, worry, depress.* In this case the *Recipient Experiencer* "used as *Direct Object* in the surface structure and in the *Phenomenon* is used the *Subject* and is conveyed by *that-claim*.

In a great majority of cases a mental subjectivized grammatical metaphor was translated into a noun. Consider:

99) Yet her **thoughts** were busy with other things for as she sat apart – not unadmired or unsought, but in the gentleness of her quiet spirit. (97p. Ch. Dickens "Domkey and Son" 2)

99) Tačiau jos **mintys** buvo kitur: sėdėdama nuošaliai ne dėl to, kad nesišavėta ar neieškota draugijos, bet dėl būdingo jai kuklumo. (97p. Č. Dikensas „Dombis ir sūnus“ 2)

100) At first the Captain was too much confounded and distressed to think of anything but the letter itself; and even when his **thoughts** began to glance upon the various attendant facts,

they might, perhaps, as well have occupied themselves with their former theme, for any light they reflected on them. (439p. Ch. Dickens “Domkey and Son” 1)

100) Iš pradžių, kapitonas buvo per daug sukrėstas bei susisielojęs ir negalėjo galvoti apie ką nors kita, o tik apie patį laišką; ir net tada, kada jo **mintys** ėmė krypti į visokius lydinčius laišką faktus, pasirodė, jog, gal būt, geriau joms būtų buvę nepalikti pirmąsios temos – tiek maža šviesos jos teįnešė į šiuos faktus. (465p. Č. Dikensas „Dombis ir sūnus“ 1)

101) *His **thoughts** traveled sharply to Madrid – the Easter before the War, when, having to make up his mind about that Goya picture, he had taken a voyage of discovery to study the painter on his spot.. (11p. J. Galsworthy “To Let”)*

101) Ūmai jo **mintys** nukilo į Madridą – kai per paskutines velykas, prieš prasidedant karui, jis, dvejojamas, pirkt ar nepirkt Gojos paveikslą, leidosi į kelionę, norėdamas pastudijuoti dailininko darbus jo paties tėvynėje. (529p. Dž. Golsvortis „Išnuomojama“)

102) *But there was one **thought**, scarcely shaped out to herself, yet fervent and strong within her, that upheld Florence when she strove, and filled her true young heart, so sorely tried, with constancy of purpose. (400p. Ch. Dickens “Domkey and Son” 1)*

102) Tačiau viena **mintis**, vargu ar visiškai aiškiai jai pačiai, bet karštai ir patvariai joje liepsnojanti, palaikė jos pastangas ir padėjo siekti tikslo jaunutei jos širdžiai, taip skaudžiai nelaimės ištiškai. (423p. Č. Dikensas „Dombis ir sūnus“ 1)

103) *In the midst of all there fascinations, Barbara’s **thoughts** seemed to have been still running upon what Kit had said at tea-time; for, when they were coming out of the play, she asked him, with an hysterical simpleness, if Miss Nell was as handsome as the lady who jumped over the over the ribbons. (342p. Ch. Dickens “The Old Curiosity Shop”)*

103) Įpusėjus visiems ties kvapą gniaužiantiems stebuklams, Barbaros **mintys**, atrodo, vis dėlto dar sukosi apie Kito pasakytus žodžius geriant arbatą; einant iš teatro, nervingai kikendama, ji paklausė Kitą, ar panelė Nelė tokia pat graži kaip toji dama, šokinėjusi per juostas. (318p. Č. Dikensas „Senienų krautuvėlė“)

104) *The **thought** of it was so appalling to her, that she covered her eyes, and shrunk trembling from the least remembrance of the deed, or of the cruel hand that did it. (296p. Ch. Dickens “Domkey and Son” 2)*

104) *Mintis apie jį buvo tokia baisi, jog užsidengė rankomis akis ir drebėdama stūmė nuo savęs prisiminimu apie aną smūgį ir apie smogusią žiaurią ranką.* (326p. Č. Dikensas „Dombis ir sūnus“ 2)

105) *His thoughts, not to be stopped or directed, still wandered where they would, and dragged him after them.* (396p. Ch. Dickens “Domkey and Son” 2)

105) *Jis negalėjo atsikratyti savo mintimis, nei jų kreipti pagal savo valią, ir jos klaidžiojo ten, kur joms patiko, vilkdamos jį paskui save.* (439p. Č. Dikensas „Dombis ir sūnus“ 2)

In considerably less cases a mental subjectivized grammatical metaphor was translated into a verb. Consider:

106) *Mr. Dombey's thoughts instinctive flew back to the face that had looked at him in his wife's dressing-room, when an imperious hand was stretched towards the door; and remembring the affection, duty, and respect, expressed in it, he felt the blood rush to his own face quite as plainly as the watchful eyes upon him saw it there.* (187p. Ch. Dickens “Dombey and Son” 2)

106) *Misteriui Dombiui nenoromis stojo prieš akis veidas, atkreiptas į jį jo žmonos buduare, kada valinga ranka rodė jam duris; ir, prisiminęs, kaip jame atsispindėjo meilė, pareigos jausmas, bei pagarba, pajuto, jog kraujas plūstelėjo jam į skruostus, o tai neliko nepastebėta kyla, į jį žiūrinčių akių.* (207p. Č. Dikensas „Dombis ir sūnus“ 2)

107) *Her thoughts were not idle while she was thus employed; when she returned and seated beside the old man in one corner of the tent, tying her flowers together, while the two men lay dozing in another corner, she plucked him by the sleeve, and slightly lancing toward them, said, in a low voice:*

“Grandfather, don't look those I talk of, and don't seem as if I spoke of anything but what I am about.” (176p. Ch. Dickens “The Old Curiosity Shop”)

107) *Taip darbuodamasi įtemptai galvojo; sugrįžusi atsisėdo šalia senelio ir ėmė raišioti puokšteles; pažvelgusi į bendrakeleivius, miegančius kitame kampe, ji timptelėjo seneliui už rankovės ir sušnabždėjo:*

- Seneli, nežiūrėk į juos ir apsimesk, kad aš tau kalbu apie gėles. (162p. Č. Dikensas „Senienų krautuvėlė“)

In some cases the meaning of a subjectivized grammatical metaphor was expressed with the help of an additional adjective in the target language. The following example proves this statement:

108) *But now all other **considerations** were lost in the new uncertainties and anxieties of their wild and wandering life; and the very desperation of their condition roused and stimulated her.* (372p Ch. Dickens "The Old Curiosity Shop")

108) *Bet dabar naujo, laukinio, benamio gyvenimo nežinia ir rūpesčiai užgožė tas **nesmagias mintis**, o jų tiesiog beviltiška padėtis žadino jos vidines galias.* (345p Č. Dikensas „Senienų krautuvėlė“)

In the example above the subjectivized grammatical metaphor "consideration" conveyed the process of thinking without estimating, whether that process lead to positive or negative aspects. However, in the target language it was differentiated in order sad emotions connected with this process of thinking to be expressed.

The other parts of a language could be used in order the details to be clarified. In some cases a subjectivized grammatical metaphor was translated into a noun by adding a pronoun or even two pronouns. This statement is proved on the basis of the following examples:

109) *Illimitable faith in, and immeasurable **admiration** of, the Commander of the Cautious Clara succeeded, and threw the Captain into a wondering trance.* (146p Ch. Dickens "Dombey and Son" 2)

109) *Paskui beribis tikėjimas „Atsargiosios Klaros“ vadu ir begalinis **susižavėjimas juo** apėmė viršų, panerdami kapitoną pasigėrėjimo ekstazę.* (160p Č. Dikensas „Dombis ir sūnus“ 2)

110) *In respect of Heart's Delight, the Captain's parental regard and **admiration** knew no change.* (128p Ch. Dickens "Dombey and Son" 2)

110) *Tėviškas kapitono rūpinimasis Širdies Paguoda ir **jo žavėjimasis ja** nė kiek nesumažėjo.* (141p Č. Dikensas „Dombis ir sūnus“ 2)

Regardless, that the cases below were quite rarely, however, a particle can also be found in the target language. This statement is based on the following example:

111) *I have seen it in your every glance, and heard it in your every world-that in place of affection between us there is **aversion** and contempt, and that I despise him hardly less than I despise myself for being his!* (224p Ch. Dickens “*Dombey and Son*” 2)

111) *Kaip jūs drįstate šitaip mane įžeidinėti, žinodamas – ne blogiau už mane, sere: aš tai mačiau kiekviename jūsų žvilgsnyje, girdėjau kiekviename jūsų žodyje, - žinodamas, kad jokios meilės tarp mūsų nėra, kad jos vietoje tėra **tik pasibjaurėjimas** bei panieka ir kad aš jį niekinu ne mažiau, kaip niekinu save pačią už tai, kad jam priklausau?* (242p Č. Dikensas „*Dombis ir sūnus*“ 2)

In the example above the translation of the subjectivized grammatical metaphor “aversion” into the noun “pasibjaurėjimas” together with the particle “tik” differentiated the semantic meaning of this subjectivized grammatical metaphor showing, that the character was influenced by that negative feeling in a very powerful way.

It was observed that in some cases mental subjectivized grammatical metaphor was omitted which is illustrated in the example below:

112) *No **satisfaction** to Fleur now, that the young man and his wife, too, very likely, were suffering as well!* (257p J. Galsworthy “*Swan Song*”)

112) *Ir kas Flerei iš to, kad dabar kenčia tasai jaunuolis ir tikriausiai taip pat jo žmona!* (664p Dž. Golsvortis, „*Gulbės giesmė*“)

Sometimes the numeral of mental subjectivized grammatical metaphor was changed from singular into plural, which is demonstrated in the example below:

113) *Mr. Chuckster’s indignant **apprehensions** were not without foundation.* (489p Ch. Dickens “*The Old Curiosity Shop*”)

113) *Pono Čaksterio **nuojauta**, kėlusi jam tokį pasipiktinimą, pasirodė ne be pagrindo.* (457p Č. Dikensas, „*Senienų krautuvėlė*“)

In some cases two transformations were carried out in one sentence. The example below proves this statement:

114) Her **attachments**, however ludicrously shown, were real and strong; and she was, as she expressed it, "deeply hurt by the unmerited contumely she had met with from Louisa." (117p Ch. Dickens "Dombey and Son" 2)

114) Jos **prisirišimas prie Luizos**, kad ir kažin kaip juokingai būtų pasireiškęs, buvo nuoširdus ir gilus; ir mis Toks buvo, anot jos pačios žodžiu, "skaudžiai užgauta Luizos jai padaryto neteisingo ižeidimo". (129p Č. Dikensas „Dombis ir sūnus“ 2)

As it is shown in the example above the subjectivized grammatical metaphor "attachments" was influenced even by the both of the transformations, firstly, by the change of numeral from singular into plural and secondly, by concretization, because in the target language more exact information was given, showing whom those feelings were addressed to.

In some cases two types of transformation were carried out in one sentence. The example below proves this statement:

115) **Suspicion** and surmise clogged Soames' thinking apparatus. (90p J. Galsworthy "The White Monkey")

115) **Įtarimai** ir spėlionės visai susuko Somsui galvą. (115p Dž. Golsvortis „Baltoji beždžionėlė“)

116) The smouldering jealousy and **suspicion** of minds blazed up within him. (338p J. Galsworthy "The Man of Property")

116) **Įtarimai** ir pavydas, rusenę tiek mėnesių, įsiplieskia pavydas, rusenę tiek mėnesių, įsiplieskė kaitria liepsna. (223p Dž. Golsvortis „Savininkas“)

It is evident, that the subjectivized grammatical metaphor "excitement" was under the influence of the change from singular into plural and vice versa. Consider:

117) Nothing like the prevailing sensation has existed in the counting – house since Mr. Dombey's little son died; but all such **excitement** there take a social, not to say a jovial turn, and lead to the cultivation of good fellowship. (335p Ch. Dickens "Dombey and Son" 2)

117) Šitokios sensacijos kontoroje nebuvo nuo to laiko, kai pasimirė misterio Dombio sūnus, bet toks **susijaudinimai** daro juos šnekėsnus, - jei nesakysime linksmesnius, - ir padeda susibičiuliauti. (371p „Dombis ir sūnus“ 2)

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In some cases mental subjectivized grammatical metaphor was translated as subjectivized grammatical metaphor. Consider:

119) ***The conviction** came as a shock* (113p J. Galsworthy “*To Let*”)

119) ***Šis atradimas** verte nuvėrė.* (619p Dž. Golsvortis „*Išnuomojama*“)

3. 3. The translation of verbal nominalizations

Despite the fact, that material mental and relational are used in a great majority of cases, the other variants however, are not so frequently used. They can be distinguished on the basis of the usual combination semantic and grammatical criteria. The most significant type of them is considered to be the type of **verbal** process - verbal of ‘saying’, they are considered to be intermediate between mental and material processes, because in order something to be said some physical action in the combination of mental operations is required to be carried out. Thus, a verbal process can be represented as an appropriate example of material processes, as it is demonstrated in the example: *He kicked, **bit screamed abuse**, and finally collapsed in a furious heap.*

Moreover, a verbal message can be presented as the process of thinking in the internal world of the participant, as it is shown in the example: *Why can’t people be both flexible and efficient, **thought Evelyn.***

A great variety of the aspects of the physical or mental actions may be encoded in the verb. For example ‘scream’ reflects something, connected with the volume of the speaker’s voice, however, ‘promise’ reflects the aspects, which are in association with the speaker’s intentions. The central verbal processes are easy to be recognized because of their relation to the process of transferring messages.

Taking into consideration it is necessary to observe, that one detail is considered to be common in order any verbal process to be carried out, it is the **Sayer**, which in a

majority of cases is human, however, in some cases messages can be presented by other type of the Sayer as well. For example: *One report says a man was seen running from the house soon after the shooting.*

It is defined, that there is no necessity the Sayer to be mentioned in a direct way in the clause consider. For example: *I was reproached for not noticing anything.*

The Sayer can be indentified by asking the questions ‘Who reproached you?’

It is established the other participant to be involved as well, in typical cases it is also human, the **Receiver**, this is the participant to whom the saying in addressed. In a great majority of cases the Receiver is mentioned. Consider: *‘You’ re very sure of yourself’.She admonished him gently.*

However, in some cases the Receiver is not normally mentioned *‘and I ‘m leaving tomorrow’* he added. In some cases for the sake of variety a speaker can decide himself whether the Receiver must be mentioned or not, this choice can be connected with the kind of the structure of the following verb. Consider: *The station commander had threatened to arrest me. / They threatened the patients with infection of painful days.*

In certain cases, the verbal process may be directed at the other participant, who is called the **Target**. There are two ways in order the Target to be distinguished from the receiver. The first is, that it has to be not human. Consider: *The report sharply criticizes Lilly’s quality –control procedures.*

The person to whom the message is addressed (the Receiver) may be different from the entity at which it is directed (Target). It is vital to observe, that in the sentence below ‘me’ is considered to be the Target and ‘the other people in the office’ is the Receiver. For example: *She keeps rubbishing me to the other people in the office.*

Therefore, there are some other ways, how a message can be conveyed, the message may be reported in a separated projected clause or summarized within the same clause. If a projected clause is preferred being used, this clause is not analyzed as a participant in the verbal process due to this reason, that the process and participant of the projected clause are analyzed separately. It is important to mention, that the projected clause may be either a quote or a report, what is illustrated below:

PEOJECTING SAYER	PROCESS VERBAL	PROJECTED RECEIVER
<i>She</i>	<i>answered</i>	<i>“Don’t ask just go” that he had made private deals.</i>
<i>He</i>	<i>reiterated</i>	

It is essential to notice, if the message summarized in the same clause, it must be treated as a participant in the process and it is called the **Verbiage**.

The Verbiage may consist a label for the language itself; as it is shown in the examples: *He repeated the warning; The owner made a public apology.*

It is ascertained, if the category of the Circumstance is closely connected to the Verbiage, then this circumstance is called the **Matter**, what is demonstrated below:

SAYER	PROCESS VERBAL	VERBIAGE
<i>He</i>	<i>reported</i>	<i>the warning</i>

According to Valeika (1998:50), verbal processes express the processes of *saying* or *communicating* and are conveyed through their verbs: *say, tell, announce, declare, ask, report, inform, notify, reveal, suggest, indicate, mention, state, maintain, debate, remark, observe* and etc. These verbs can be treated as mental verbs due to this reason, that they express mental activities.

In Valeika's (1998:50) opinion, verbal processes involve the only participant, which is usually human, but not completely in all the cases, because information can be conveyed in other ways. To quote Holliday "(1985:129) "The Sayer can be anything which puts out a communicative signal."

In a great number of cases a verbal subjectivized grammatical metaphor was translated into a noun. This statement is illustrated in the following examples:

120) This **salutation** was addressed to Mr. Chuckster, who, with his hat extremely on one side, and his hair a long way beyond it, came swaggering up the walk. (349p. Ch. Dickens "The Old Curiosity Shop")

120) **Pasveikinimas** buvo skirtas išdidžiai takeliu atžingsniuojančiam ponui Čaksteriui su labai ant šono uždėta skrybėle, iš po kurios plevėsavo ilgi plaukai. (324p. Č. Dikensas „Senienų krautuvėlė“)

121) The second or third **repetition** of his name attracted the old man's attention. (467p. Ch. Dickens "The Old Curiosity Shop")

121) *Senis pakėlė galvą po antro ar trečio šūktelėjimo. (436p. Č. Dikensas „Senienų krautuvėlė“)*

122) *„Indeed, Sir,“ said Mr. Perch, coughing another cough behind his hand, which was always his resource as an expression of humility when nothing else occurred to him, „his **observation** generally air that he would humbly wish to see one of the gentlemen, and that he wants to earn a living.“ (378p. Ch. Dickens “Dombey and Son” 1)*

122) – *Sere,- tarė misteris Perčas, dar kartą kostelėjęs į sauja, nes šitokiu kosuliu jis visada išreikšdavo savo nusižeminimą, jei negalėdavo išgalvoti ko nors kito, - iš jo žodžių tegalima suprasti tik tiek, kad jis nuolankiai norėtų pamatyti vieną kurį džentelmeną ir kad jam reiką užsidirbti pragyvenimui. (399p. Č. Dikensas „Dombis ir sūnus“ 1)*

123) *This last **ejaculation**, with which Miss Nipper frequently would up a sentence, at about that epoch of time, was supposed below the level of the hall to have a general reference to Mr. Dombey, and to be expressive of a yearning in Miss Nipper to favour that gentleman with a piece of her mind. (402p. Ch. Dickens “Dombey and Son” 1)*

123) *Šis pastarasis **sušukimas**, kuriuo mis Niper tuo metu dažnai užbaigdavo posakį, tarnų spėjimu, buvo susijęs su misteriu Dombiu ir rodė aistringą mis Niper norą išreikšti šiam džentelmenui palankią savo nuomonę. (426p. Č. Dikensas „Dombis ir sūnus“ 1)*

124) *Now, there are more **congratulations** on this happiest of days, and more company, though not much; and now they leave the drawing – room, and range themselves at table in the dark –brown dining – room, which no confectioner can brighten up, let him garnish the exhausted negroes with as many flowers and love – knots as he will. (17p. Ch. Dickens “Dombey and Son” 2)*

124) *Vėl skamba **sveikinimai** šios laimingiausios dienos proga, ir atvyksta naujų svečių, nors jų ir nedaug; bet štai jie palieka svetainę ir susėda už stalo niūriame rudame valgomajame, kuriam joks konditeris nepajėgtų suteikti linksmesnės išvaizdos, kad ir kažin kaip puoštų sunykusius negrus gėlėmis ir įmantriomis kokardomis. (19p. Č. Dikensas „Dombis ir sūnus“ 2)*

125) *His frequent **reference** to Miss Dombey was suspicious; but the Captain had a secret kindness for Mr. Toots’s apparent reliance on him, and forbore to decide against him for the present; merely eyeing him, with a sagacity not to be described,*

whenever he approached the subject that was nearest to his heart. (130p. Ch. Dickens "Dombey and Son" 2)

125) Jo dažnos **užuominos** apie mis Dombi buvo įtartinos, bet kapitonas jautė slaptą prielankumą misteriumi Tutsui už jo pasitikėjimą juo ir tuo tarpu dar susilaukdavo nuo priešiško jam apsisprendimo; jos tikrai stebėdavo jį su neapsakomu akylumu kas kartą, kada tas paliesdavo artimiausią jo širdžiai temą. (143p. Č. Dikensas „Dombis ir sūnus“ 2)

126) **The observation** as I'm a-going to make is calc'lated to blow every stitch of sail as you can carry clean out of the bolt – ropes, and bring you on your beam ends with a lurch. (424p. Ch. Dickens "Dombey and Son" 1)

126) **Pareiškimas**, kurį aš ketinu dabar padaryti, nuplės visas bures nuo visų tavo stiebų ir privers tave pakrypti į šoną. (468p. Č. Dikensas „Dombis ir sūnus“ 1)

127) The carriage giving terrific lurch, Dwithin's **exclamation** was jerked back into his throat. (175p. J. Galsworthy "The Man of Property")

127) Fajertoną taip baisiai trinktelėjo, kad **nuostabos šūksnis** įstrigo Svidinui gerklėje. (108p. Dž. Golsvortis „Savininkas“)

The verbal subjectivized grammatical metaphor “announcement” was met quite often, it was translated as a noun as well. Consider:

128) The **announcement** in the of his cousin Jolyon's death affected Soames quite simple. (191p. J. Galsworthy "To Let")

128) **Skelbimą** „Times“ apie pusbrolio Dyoliozio mirtį Somsas perskaitė gana ramiai. (68p. Dž. Golsvortis „Išnuomojama“)

129) This **announcement** is received with exclamation; and Mrs. Perch, projecting her soul into futurity, says, “girls,” in Cook's ear, in a solemn whisper. (458p. Ch. Dickens "Dombey and Son" 2)

129) Šis **pranešimas** sutinkamas džiaugsmingais šauksmais, ir misis Perč, mėgindama pranašauti ateitį, iškilmaingai šnibžda į ausį virėjai: „Jiems gims tik mergytės!“ (506p. Č. Dikensas „Dombis ir sūnus“ 2)

130) N. Forsyte 'Change', the **announement** of Jolly's death, among a batch of troopers caused mixed sensation. (219p. J. Galsworthy "Chancery")

130) Forsaitų Biržoje **žinia**, kad Džolis žuvo kaip eilinis tarp eilinių sukėlė prieštarigus jausmus. (471p. Dž. Golsvortis „Kilpoje“)

The verbal subjectivized grammatical metaphor “discussions” was also quite often meet in the works and it was translated as a noun too. Consider:

131) *Only once during dinner was there any **conversation** that included the young gentlemen.* (208 p. Ch. Dickens “Dombey and Son” 1)

131) *Tiktai vieną kartą per visus pietus **pokalbis** teturėjo šiek tiek ryšio su jaunaisiais džentelmenais.* (211p. Č. Dikensas „Dombis ir sūnus“ 1)

132) *The **conversation** soon becoming general lest the black - eyed should go off at score and turn sarcastice, that young lady related to Jemima a summary of everything she knew concerning Mr. Dombey, his prospects, family, pursuits, and character.* (104p. Ch. Dickens “Dombey and Son” 1)

132) *Netrukus seserys nukrypo į bendrą **pašnekėsį**, kad juodaakė neimtu nekantrauti ir galėtų dalyvauti pokalbyje.* (94p. Č. Dikensas „Dombis ir sūnus“ 1)

133) *The **conversation** was almost entirely sustained by Mrs. Skewton.* (523p. Ch. Dickens “Dombey and Son” 1)

133) ***Pašnekėsį** palaikė beveik viena misis Skjuton.* (558p. Č. Dikensas „Dombis ir sūnus“ 1)

134) *”I thank you, Louisa”, he says, “for this mark of your affection; but desire that our **conversation** may refer to any other subject.* (328p. Ch. Dickens “Dombey and Son” 2)

134) – *Dėkui tau, Luiza, - sako jis, - už parodytą prisirišimą, bet aš pageidauju, kad mūsų **pokalbis** neliestų šios temos.* (363p. Č. Dikensas „Dombis ir sūnus“ 2)

135) *The **conversation**, very desultory, was syncopated by Jack Cardigan talking about „mid* (165p. J. Galsworthy „To Let“)

135) *Jau ir taip netvarkingą **pašnekėsį** tolydžiai pertraukdavo Džeko Kardigano samprotavimai apie vidurio dešinį žaidėją.* (665p. Dž. Golsvortis “Išnuomuojava”)

The verbal subjectivized grammatical metaphor “discussion” was also translated as a noun. Consider:

136) *A moment's silence, and then **discussion** assumed that random volubility which softens a decision already forced on one.* (98p. J. Galsworthy "The White Monkey")

136) *Sekė trumpa tyla, o paskui **diskusijos** virto nerūpestingu plepėjimu, palengvinančiu jėga primesto sprendimo priėmimą.* (75p. Dž. Golsvortis, „Baltoji beždžionėlė“)

137) *The **discussion** broke back to Foggartism, but Soames sat brooding.* (67 p J. Galsworthy "The White Monkey")

137) ***Pokalbis** vėl nukrypo į fogartizmą, bet Somsui nėjo iš galvos dukros žodžiai.* (290p. Dž. Golsvortis, „Baltoji beždžionėlė“)

However, in considerably less cases a verbal subjectivized grammatical metaphor. was translated as a verb. This argument is illustrated in the examples below:

138) *A **close discussion** ensued between the three young women as to the exact effect of children's wages on the working-class budget.* (123p. J. Galsworthy "The White Monkey")

138) *Ir trys merginos **pradėjo smulkiai nagrinėti**, kokią darbininkų pajamų dalį sudaro jų vaikų uždarbis.* (339p. Dž. Golsvortis, „Baltoji beždžionėlė“)

139) *Such **discussions** with his son had confirmed in Jolyon a doubt whether the world had really changed.* (32p. J. Galsworthy "To Let")

139) ***Svarstydamas** šias problemas sykiu su sūnumi, Džolionas ėmė vis labiau dvejoti, ar iš tiesų pasaulis bent kiek pasikeitęs.* (548p. Dž. Golsvortis „Išnuomojama“)

140) ***THE ANNOUNCEMENT** by Michael on the following Monday that Fleur would be bringing Kit home the next morning caused Soames to say: "I'd like to have a look at that part of the world.* (176p. J. Galsworthy "Swan Song")

140) *Kad pirmadienį **sužinojęs iš Maiklo**, kad po dienos Flerė grįžta su vaiku namo, Somsas pasakė: - Man norėtusi susipažinti su šia pasaulio dalimi.* (596p. Dž. Golsvortis „Gulbės giesmė“)

141) *There was practically **no conversation**, from which he surmised that o one knew his neighbour.* (242p. J. Galsworthy "The White Monkey")

141) *Beveik **niekas nesišnekėjo**, todėl Maiklas nusprendė, kad jie nepažįsta vienas kito.* (205p. Dž. Golsvortis, „Baltoji beždžionėlė“)

In some cases the numeral of verbal subjectivized grammatical metaphor was changed from singular into plural. Consider the following example:

142) *An exclamation*, at once from Richard Swiveller, Miss Sally, and Kit himself, cut the lawyer short. (512p Ch. Dickens “The Old Curiosity Shop”)

142) *Šūksniai*, vienu kartu išsprūdę iš Ričardo Svivelerio, panelės Seli ir paties Kito krūtinės, iš karto nutildė advokatą. (479p Č. Dikensas „Senienų krautuvėlė“)

The subjectivized grammatical metaphor, which expressed simple daily action was also influenced by this change of numeral from singular into plural. This argument is illustrated in the example below:

143) *So it was not the intelligentsia, but just intellectual society, which was gathered there when Fleur and Michael entered, and the conversation had all the sparkle and all the “savoir faire” incidental to talk about art and letters by those who – as Michael put it – “fortunately had not to faire.”* (80 p) J. Galsworthy “The White Monkey”)

143) *Taigi Flerė ir Maiklas rado čia susirinkusią ne inteligentiją, o tiesiog grupelę intelektualų, ir jų šnekos pasižymėjo įmantrumu ir savoir faire, būdingu šnekoms apie meną ir literatūrą žmonių, kuriems,- kaip sakydavo Maiklas – „laimė, nieko nereikia daryti“.* (59 p Dž. Golsvortis „Baltoji beždžionėlė“)

It was established, that the translation of such subjectivized grammatical metaphors as: “declaration“, „ejaculation“, „statement“ and „saying“ were met quite frequently being under the influence of this change of numeral from singular into plural. This change was illustrated in the examples below:

The same subjectivized grammatical metaphor was translated into the same word by different translators in their works. This argument was based on the three examples below:

144) *This cryptic saying* produced silence, until he spoke again. (91p J. Galsworthy “The Man of Property”)

144) *Šie mįslingi žodžiai* nugramzdino visus į tylą, kurią sudrumstė pats Džeimsas, vėl prabildamas. (359p Dž. Golsvortis „Savininkas“)

145) *The saying*, so cryptically cynical, received a little laugh from Imogen, a slight opening of Jack Cardigan’s mouth, and a creak from Soames’ chair. (166p J. Galsworthy “To Let”)

145) *Po šiu, užmaskuoto cinizmo kupinų žodžiu, Imodžena trumpai susijuokė, Džekas Kardiganas prasižiojo, sugirdždėjo Somso kėdė. (666p Dž. Golsvortis, „Išnuomojama“)*

146) *The saying had permanently undermined the confidence necessary to the success of spoken untruth. (58p J. Galsworthy “To Let”)*

146) *Šitie žodžiai amžiams sugriovė pasitikėjimą savimi, būtiną, kad sėkmingai meluotum. (571p Dž. Golsvortis, „Išnuomojama“)*

As it is shown in the three examples above, the subjectivized grammatical metaphor “saying” was translated into the same noun “žodžiai” by different translators. These examples showed, that in some cases the translation of the subjectivized grammatical metaphor “saying” was influenced not only by the same transformation (in this case the change of numeral from singular into plural), but also by same lexical intentions, carried out by the translator.

147) *However inconsistent **this declaration** might appear with that passage in Tozer’s Essay on the subject, wherein he had observed “that the thoughts of home and all its recollections, awakened in his mind the most pleasing emotions of anticipation and delight,” and had also likened himself to a Roman General <...> (238p Ch. Dickens “Dombey and Son” 1)*

148) *Šie žodžiai buvo visiškai nuoširdžiai pasakyti, nors ir atrodo nesuderinami su ta vieta atostogų tema jo parašytame rašinyje, kur jisai sakėsi, jog „mintys apie namus ir juose išgyventų dienų prisiminimai sužadinę jo sieloje maloniausius lūkesčius bei pasigėrėjimo jausmus“, ir kuriame jis toliau lygino save su Romos karvedžiu <...> (244p „Dombis ir sūnus“ 1)*

As it is shown in the example above, the subjectivized grammatical metaphor “declaration” was influenced by two transformations: by the change of numeral from singular into plural and by generalization. According to the “English – Lithuanian dictionary” (1992:98) the subjectivized grammatical metaphor “declaration” could be translated as: 1) “pareiškimas”, 2) “paskelbimas”, 3) “deklaracija”. However, no one of these words was used in the translation, so the importance of that event was not conveyed. In spite of it the semantic meaning of the sentence was generalized due to the translation of this subjectivized grammatical metaphor “declaration” into the noun “žodžiai”.

149) *This ejaculation seemed a drop of comfort to the miserable Grinder, who shook Mrs. Brown by the hand upon it, and implored her with tears in his eyes to leave a cove, and not destroy his prospects.* (240p Ch. Dickens “*Dombey and Son*” 2)

149) *Šie žodžiai buvo tarytum paguodos lašas nelaimingajam Galąstojui, kuris tučtuojau paspaudė misis Braun ranką ir su ašaromis akyse maldavo palikti vaikiščią ramybėje ir nežlugdyti jo ateities vilčių.* (265p Č. Dikensas, „*Dombis ir sūnus*“ 2)

In the example above the subjectivized grammatical metaphor “ejaculation” was also influenced not only by the change of numeral from singular into plural, but by generalization transformation as well. According to the “English – Lithuanian dictionary” (1992:125) the subjectivized grammatical metaphor “ejaculation” may be translated as “sušukimas”. However, this noun was not used in the target language, therefore, the emotional state of this action was not conveyed. Instead of it the action was expressed in a quite neutral way using the word “žodžiai” in the target language, which generalized the main idea.

150) *The statement confirmed many an old suspicion.* (116p J. Galsworthy “*The White Monkey*”)

150) *Šie žodžiai patvirtino jo senus įtarimus.* (333p Dž. Golsvortis „*Baltoji beždžionėlė*“)

In the example above the subjectivized grammatical metaphor “statement” was also influenced by the same two transformations, which were mentioned in the previous examples. According to the “English – Lithuanian dictionary” (1992:425) the subjectivized grammatical metaphor “statement” may be translated as: 1) “pareiškimas”, 2) “tvirtinimas”, 3) “konstatavimas”. However, no one of them was used in the target language, so, the importance of this event was not conveyed. The idea of the sentence was generalized, because this subjectivized grammatical metaphor was translated into the simple noun “žodžiai”.

In some cases the change of numeral of verbal subjectivized grammatical metaphor was changed from plural into singular, which is demonstrated in the example below:

151) *To all these rambling observations Mr. Swiveller answered not one word, but, returning for the aquatic jacket, rolled it into a tight round ball: looking steadily at Brass meanwhile, as if he had some intention of bowling him down with it.* (546p Ch. Dickens “*The Old Curiosity Shop*”)

151) Į visą tą nerišlią **šneką** ponas Sviveleris nesiteikė nė žodžiu atsakyti, tik grįžo savo mėlynos sportinės striukės ir vis nenuleisdamas nuo Braso akių vyniojo ją į kietą gumulą – tartum ketindamas juo parmušti advokatą. (514p Č. Dikensas „Senienų krautuvėlė“)

In some cases a verbal subjectivized grammatical metaphor was translated as subjectivized grammatical metaphor. Consider:

152) A **conversation**, with Fleur that evening contributed to his intention that it should not. (135p J. Galsworthy “The White Monkey”)

152) **Pokalbis** su Flere tą vakarą sustiprino jo pasiryžimą išvengti teismo. (350p Č. Dikensas „Baltoji beždžionėlė“)

153) The **announcement** of Marjorie Ferrar’s engagement to MacGown had materially changed the complexion of affairs. (163p J. Galsworthy “The White Monkey”)

153) **Pranešimas** apie Mardžorės Ferar ir Maikgauno sužadėtuves iš esmės pakeitė padėtį. (373p Č. Dikensas „Baltoji beždžionėlė“)

3. 4. The translation of happening nominalizations

It is significant to take into consideration, that there is one more group of processes, which are considered to be intermediate between mental and material processes, it is the group of **behavioral processes**. In difference from verbal processes, they are characterized by a few distinctive grammatical features, in consequence of this reason this group is identified on semantic grounds which are related in order human physiological processes to be specified. One of the main reasons which allow this category to be set up is, that these processes can be distinguished between purely mental processes and the outward physical signs of those processes, for example a great majority of mental perception processes express a conscious physical acts.

As the result of the characteristic of these processes the only participant can be involved in the behavioural processes. This participant must be the human and it is called the **Behaver**. Consider: *We all laughed*.

However, it is ascertained, that in same clauses the other apparent participant may be involved, which is called the Range which is considered to be not a real participant

but with its participation the process is added by some specification. It is clearly shown in the following examples: *She gave a faint sigh; The boy laughed a high, embarrassed laugh.*

In these examples separate participants are not encoded by the words ‘sight’ or ‘laugh’ in semantic terms, terms, these nominal groups form the part of the way in which the process is expressed. This statement is based on the example below:

BEHAVER	PROCESS BEHAVIOURAL	RANGE	CIRCUMSTANCE
<i>He</i>	<i>stared</i>		
<i>She</i>	<i>waved</i>	<i>her hands</i>	<i>helplessly</i>

Consequently, a rather indistinct category is formed by behavioural processes in the grammar.

The happening subjectivized grammatical metaphor was translated as a noun. Consider:

154) *Death* stood at his pillow. (546 p. Ch. Dickens “Dombey and Son” 2)

154) *Mirtis* stovėjo prie jo galvūgalio. (546p. Č. Dikensas „Domkis ir sūnus“ 2)

155) How this *death* would affect Fleur had begun to trouble Soames. (192p. J. Galsworthy “To Let”)

155) Somsas staiga sunerimo, bandydamas įspėti, kaip ši *mirtis* atsilieps Flerei. (688p. Dž. Golsvortis „Išnuomojama“)

156) *Death* broke your shape and there you were. (245p. Ch. Dickens “Dombey and Son” 2)

156) *Mirtis* sugriauna formą, tuo tikriausiai viskas ir baigiasi. (655p. Č. Dikensas „Dombis ir sūnus“ 2)

157) When a Forsyte was engaged, married, or born, the Forsytes were present; when a Forsyte died – but no Forsyte had as yet died; they did not die; *death* being contrary to their principles, they took precautions against it, the instinctive precautions of highly vitalized persons who encroachments on their property. (42p. J. Galsworthy “The Man of Property”)

157) Jei Forsaitas susižadėdavo, tuokdavosi ar gimdydavo, susieidavo visi Forsaitai; jei Forsaitas mirdavo... tačiau ligi šiol jiems taip dar nebuvo atsitikę; jie nemirdavo; *mirtis* prieštarauja prieštaravo jų principams; prieš ją būdavo griebiamasi visų atsargumo

priemonių, inskitintyvių priemonių, kokių griebiasi nepaprastai gyvibingi žmonės, nepakeičianys kėsinimosi į jų nuosavybę. (12p . Dž. Golsvortis „Savininkas“)

3. 5. The translation of relational nominalization

According to Valeika (1998:55) relational processes convey the notion of being something or in some place. They are divided into three types:

- 1) attributive,**
- 2) possessive,**
- 3) circumstantial.**

The process, which is conveyed by a verb, is not so significant, that the processes is expressed by material or mental verbs. The participant is called the Carrier. The function of this process must relate the Carrier to Attribute. Attribute processes are expressed by such verbs as *be, appear, get, grow, continue, feel, keep, look, turn, hold, prove, turn out, loom, remain, run, seem, smell, taste, full, stand, go, work.*

When a relationship is set up between two concepts, these cases are involved into relational processes. Consider: *His bread is stole.*

In a syntactic meaning, all these verbs are link verbs due to the reason that they express the verbal process of a person, number, tense, aspect and mood. Consequently, a great majority of link verbs have partly lost their original concrete meaning due to the long development of them. For instore, the meaning of the verb *be* has been last therefore, only grammatical functions are performed by it. According to the meanings of verbs, they can be divided into two groups:

- 1) link verbs of being and remaining (e.g. *be, remain, keep* etc)
- 2) link verbs of becoming (e.g. *become, get, grow,* etc)

Other verbs can also be used in order attribute processes to be conveyed, they are such as: *equal, add up to, play, mean, define, represent, spell, express, form, give substitute, imply, stand for, symbolize, realize, indicate, signify, betoken.*

According to Valeika (1988:60) these processes are expressed by these verbs: *have, belong, own, proressess, lack, need, deserve, include, exclude,* etc. The noton of not possessing (*lack, need*), notion of being worthy to possess (*deserve*) and the abstract relations of *inclusion, exclusion* and *containment* are included into this category as well. Some of the verbs function as material processes. According to Valeika (1998:62) circumstantial processes are expressed by such verbs: *stretch, cost, weigh, last, lie* etc. The process is

specified by the verbs, which „name“ the process. The use of the marked verb is determined by the type of circumstance.

In a great number of relational subjectivized grammatical metaphor was translated as a noun. This statement was illustrated in the following examples:

158) *His frequent **reference** to Miss Dombey was suspicious; but the Captain had a secret kindness for Mr. Toots's apparent reliance on him, and forbore to decide against him for the present; merely eyeing him, with a sagacity not to be described, whenever he approached the subject that was nearest to his heart. (130p. Ch. Dickens "Dombey and Son" 2)*

158) *Jo dažnos **užuominos** apie mis Dombi buvo įtartinos, bet kapitonas jautė slaptą prielankumą misteriiui Tutsui už jo pasitikėjimą juo ir tuo tarpu dar susilaukdavo nuo priešiško jam apsisprendimo; jos tikrai stebėdavo jį su neapsakomu akylumu kas kartą, kada tas paliesdavo artimiausią jo širdžiai temą. (143p. Č. Dikensas „Dombis ir sūnus“ 2)*

159) *And although my defined and recognized **connexion** with your affairs is merely of a business character, still I have that spontaneous interest in everything belonging to you, that---“(186p. Ch. Dickens "Dombey and Son" 2)*

159) *Ir nors nustatyti ir pripažinti **ryšiai**, siejį mane su jūsų reikalais, tėra tik tarnybinio pobūdžio, bet aš jaučiu tokį savaiminį dėmesį visu tuo, kas jus liečia, jog... (206p. Č. Dikensas „Dombis ir sūnus“ 2)*

160) *“Yes, but is there any **connection** between what we say and we do?” (213p. J. Galsworthy "The White Monkey")*

160) *–Taip, bet ar yra koks nors **ryšys** tarp to, ką mes kalbam ir ką darom? (416p. Dž. Golsvortis „Baltoji beždžionėlė“)*

161) *“There's no **connection** in life between reward and your deserts. (223p. J. Galsworthy "The White Monkey")*

161) *Gyvenime nėra **ryšio** tarp nuopelnų ir atpildo už juos. (189p. Dž. Golsvortis „Baltoji beždžionėlė“)*

162) *His **acquisition** of the real Goya rather beautifully illustrated the cobweb of vested interests and passions which mesh the bright-winged fly of human life. (68p. J. Galsworthy "To Let")*

162) *Autentiško Gojos kūrinio **atsiradimas** jo kolekcijoje puikiai galėjo pailiuoti, koks pelningai investuoto kapitalo ir aistrų voratinklis gali apraizgyti skaisčiasparnį žmogaus gyvenimo drugelį. (579p. Dž. Golsvortis „Išnuomojama“)*

The relation subjectivized grammatical metaphor “appearance” was translated as a noun as well. Consider:

163) *The profound **appearance** of this philosopher, who was bulky and strong, and on whose extremely red face an expression of taciturnity sat enthroned, not inconsistent with his character, in which that quality was proudly conspicuous, almost daunted Captain Cuttle, though on familiar terms with him. (416p. Ch. Dickens “Dombey and Son” 1)*

163) *Giliamintė šio filosofo **išvaizda**, jo stambus, tvirtas stuomuo, jo neregėtai raudoname veide tarytum soste viešpataujanti ramybė, kuri puikiai derinosi su jo būdu, beveik suglumino patį kapitoną Katlį, nors juodu ir artimai draugavo. (440p. Č. Dikensas „Dombis ir sūnus“ 1)*

164) *These and other **appearances of a similar nature**, had served to propagate the opinion, that Miss Tox was a lady of what is called a limited independence, which she turned to the best account. (33p. Ch. Dickens “Dombey and Son” 1)*

164) *Šie ir kiti panašūs **požymiai** padėjo pasklisti kalboms, kad mis Toks esanti, kaip sakoma, ledi su ribotais ištekliais, kuriais ji vis dėlto puikiausiai mokanti naudotis. (15p. Č. Dikensas „Dombis ir sūnus“ 1)*

165) *The **appearance** of a new boy did not create the sensation that might have been expected. (204p. Ch. Dickens “Dombey and Son” 1)*

165) *Naujo mokinio **pasirodydas** nesukėlė tokios sensacijos, kokios galima buvo laukti. (207p. Č. Dikensas „Dombis ir sūnus“ 1)*

166) *Mr. Perch’s **appearance** corroborated this recital of his symptoms. (357p. Ch. Dickens “Dombey and Son” 2)*

166) *Misterio Perčo **fizionomija** pasitvirtino nurodytus simptomus. (395p. Č. Dikensas „Dombis ir sūnus“ 2)*

167) *When Kit is mother had done speaking, the old lady struck in again, and said that she was quite sure she was a very honest and very respectable person or she never would have*

*expressed herself in that manner, and that certainly the **appearance of the children** and the cleanliness of the house deserved great praise, and did her the utmost credit, whereat Kit is mother dropped a curtsey and became consoled. (187p. Ch. Dickens “The Old Curiosity Shop”)*

*167) Kito motinai nutilus, vėl prakalbo senoji ponija ir pasakė tikrai mananti, kad ji labai sąžininga ir garbinga moteris, nes tik tokia galėtų taip kalbėti, ir kad **vaikų** bei namų tvarkingumas bei švara nusipelnė didžiausio pagyrimo; po tų žodžių Kito motina padarė reveransą ir nurimo. (172p. Č. Dikensas „Senienų krautuvėlė“)*

The relation subjectivized grammatical metaphor “expression” was quite often translated as a noun. Consider:

*168) **An expression**, old as the Boer war, that he had never got used to – meant nothing so far as he could see! (101p. J. Galsworthy “The White Monkey”)*

*168) Po būrų karo atsirađęs **posakis**, prie kurio jis taip ir nepriprato, - kad ir kaip žiūrėtum, o juk neturi jokios prasmės! (78p. Dž. Golsvortis „Baltoji beždžionėlė“)*

*169) Trite **expressions** were knocking against Soame’s plate. (157p. J. Galsworthy “Swan Song”)*

*169) Nuvalkiotos **frazės** sukosi Somso galvoje. (581p. Dž. Golsvortis „Gulbės giesmė“)*

*170) But Jon’s **expression** – deepset on the mask of his visage as the eyes in his head! (171p. J. Galsworthy “Swan Song”)*

*170) Bet Džono **išraiška** – mintys giliai pasislėpusios po kauke kaip ir giliai kaktoje pasislėpusios akys. (593p. Dž. Golsvortis „Gulbės giesmė“)*

*171) “The **expression of your face**,” he seemed to say,” pleases me. (140p. J. Galsworthy “The White Monkey”)*

*171) „Man patinka jūsų **veido išraiška**,-rodės, sakė jis. (113p. Dž. Golsvortis „Baltoji beždžionėlė“)*

*172) What brutes he did not know, but the **expression** exactly summed up their joint feeling, and restored a measure of equanimity. (145p. J. Galsworthy “Chancery”)*

*172) Kas tie gyvuliai, jis pats nežinojo, tačiau šis **žodis** nepaprastai tiksliai išreiškė abiejų jausmus ir sutvirtino dvasios pusiausvyrą. (405p. Dž. Golsvortis „Kilpoje“)*

173) *The **expression** on his client's face was not encouraging.* (194p. J. Galsworthy "Chancery")

173) Kliento **veido išraiška** toli gražu nebuvo patenkinta. (450p. Dž. Golsvortis „Kilpoje“)

174) *The **expression** on her face – hungry and hard and feverish – had the most peculiar effect on Soames; his heart ached, and leaped with relief at the same time.* (251p. J. Galsworthy "Swan Song")

174) Jos veido **išraiška** - alkana, rūsti, karštiligiška – padarė Somsui keisčiausia įspūdį; jam širdis suskaudo ir tuoj pat krūptelėjo pajutusi palengvėjimą. (660p. Dž. Golsvortis „Gulbės giesmė“)

175) *The **expression of his mother's eyes**, resting on him for a moment, cast Jon down level with the ground- a true worm.* (120p. J. Galsworthy "Swan Song")

175) **Motinos žvilgsnis**, akimirka įsmigęs į Džono veidą, sumalė jį į miltus, sutrypė kaip niekingą kirminą. (625p. Dž. Golsvortis „Gulbės giesmė“)

176) *The fire of his eyes, **the expression of his features**, the very voice in which he spoke, were all subdued and quenched, as if the spirit within him lay in ashes.* (115p. Ch. Dickens "Dombey and Son" 1)

176) Akių spindesys, **veido išraiška**, net patsai jo balsas – viskas atrodo prislopinta, be gyvybės, tarytum jo dvasia būtų virtusi pelenais. (106p. Č. Dikensas „Dombis ir sūnus“ 1)

However, only in a narrow minority of cases a relational subjectivized grammatical metaphor was translated as a verb. This statement is based on the following examples:

177) *With all due deference he submitted that Mr. Forsyre's **expression nullified itself**.*(332p. J. Galsworthy "The Man of Property")

177) Kad ir kaip gerbdamas misterį Forsaitą, jis privalo atkreipti dėmesį, jog misteris Forsaitas pats **anuliavęs savo posakio prasmę**. (219p. Dž. Golsvortis „Savininkas“)

178) *The **feelings** of Mrs. MacStinger, as a woman and a mother, **were outraged** by the look of pity for Alexander which she observed on Florence's face.* (408p. Ch. Dickens "Dombey and Son" 1)

178) *Mis Mak-Stindžer, kaip moteris ir motina, įsižeidė, pastebėjusi Florens gailiaširdiškai bežvelgiančią į Aleksanderį. (433p. Č. Dikensas „Dombis ir sūnus“ 1)*

179) ***The expressions** "Freedom of the Press" and "At the pistol's mouth," were being used to the point of tautology! (14p. J. Galsworthy "Swan Song")*

179) *Nuolat kartojamos **frazės** "Spaudos laisvė" ir "Prieš revolverio vamzdį" pasidarė kone tapačios. (461p. Dž. Golsvortis „Gulbės giesmė“)*

180) *There was for him a fixed **connection** between unpleasantness and the East End, in times of industrial disturbance. (26p. J. Galsworthy "Swan Song")*

180) *Jis visada jautė, kad industrinių neramumų metu Ist Endės **glaudžiai siejasi** su visokiais nemalonumais. (471p. Dž. Golsvortis „Gulbės giesmė“)*

3. 6. The translation of existential nominalizations

These processes have some common characteristics with behavioural processes, however, their main characteristic is, that they can be defined in negative terms and express the mere existence of entity without predicating anything else of it. Due to this feature they are called **existential processes** and are easy to be recognized due to the Subject 'there'. This argument is based on the following examples. Consider: *There was a ramp leading down; Maybe there's some other darker patter.*

The only participant is in progress in such clauses, which is called the **Existent**. On the one hand, the word 'there' is need as the Subject, on the other hand, it has no, experimental meaning, its function is to avoid the need **for**, or the possibility **of**, or a second participant in the clause.

What is particular with the group of existential processer, that the speaker sees no need the participant to be represented, due to this arrangement and explicit signal of this renunciation is provided by the distinctive structural pattern, it is also vital to be noticed, that other details concerning the Existent can be given but only in circumstantial elements which do not make such an important influence on the meaning of the clause. On the one hand, existential process are clearly related to rational processes, on the other hand, they are closely connected with the material processes of the 'happen' type. It is worth comparing an existential process with a possible rewording using the verb 'exist'. This argument is based on the following example: *Maybe some other darker pattern exists.*

The verb 'exists' itself must be analyzed as a material process, on the basis of this argument existential process relate to material processes in some way, which can be seen in relatively, infrequent cases, when more activate verbs than 'be' are used in existential clauses. This statement is clearly proved by the following example: *Then there arose one of those odd situations that no one ever predicts.*

In this particular case the writer instead of writing 'one of those odd situations arose', which would weaken the 'presentational' meaning of the original preferred signaling, that more details are going to be given about the 'add situation'. On the basis of these examples it is vital to notice, that the function of the existential clause is simply to announce the existence of the situation. This function can be seen in terms of the writer how information is presented in the text.

According to Valeika (1998: 63), existential processes express the notion of being and occurrence, they contain a participle and include the structure *there to be*. *There* is not a participant due to this reason, that it has no semantic content, in spite of this fact, that it has both a syntactic function as a *Subject* and a textual function as presentative element. The single participant in the *Existent*, which may be either human or non-human.

All the found existential subjectivized grammatical metaphors are translated as nouns. This statement is illustrated in the examples below:

181) *Our land policy depends, not only the prosperity of farmers, landlords, and labourers, sirable and important though that is, but the very **existence** of England, if unhappily there sould come another war under the new conditions. (92p. J. Galsworthy "Swan Song")*

181) *Nuo mūsų politikos žemės ūkyje priklauso ne vien fermerių, žemvaldžių ir darbininkų gerovė, nors ji taip pat reikalinga ir svarbi, bet ir pats Anglijos **egzistavimas**, jeigu, mūsų nelaimei, vėl kiltų karas. (312p. Dž. Golsvortis „Gulbės giesmė“)*

182) *His **social existence** had been more like that of an early Christian Than an innocent child of the nineteenth centure. (105 p. Ch. Dickens "Dombey and Son" 1)*

182) *Bailerio **gyvenimas** žmonių tarpe tapo labiau panašus į pirmųjų kikščionių, o ne į nekalto vaiko gyvenimą dvynioliktajame amžiuje. (95p. Č. Dikensas „Dombis ir sūnus“ 1)*

183) *The nighty absence of the old man, the solitary **existence** of the child at those times, his illness and recovery, Quilp's possession of the house, and their sudden disappearance, were all the subject of much questioning and answer. (333p. Ch. Dickens "The Old Curiosity Shop")*

183) Tada, nepažįstamasis džentelmenas ėmė smulkiai klausinėti Kitą apie jo senąjį šeiminką ir mergaitę, jų atsiskyrėlišką gyvenimą, ipročius atsiribojimą nuo aplinkos, nuo senio naktines išvykas, meraitės vienišas **naktis**, jo ligą ir pasveikimą, kaip Kvilpas užgrobė namus ir kaip staigiai jiedu dingę – į visus tuos nepažįstamojo klausimus buvo išsamiai atsakyta. (309p. Č.Dikensas, „Senienų krautuvėlė“)

The existential subjectivized grammatical metaphor “presence” was translated as a noun. Consider:

184) *Forty years at least had elapsed since the Peruvian Mines had been the death of Mr. Pipchin; but his relict still wore black combazeen, of such a lustreless, deep, dead, sombre shade, that gas itself couldn't light her up after dark, and her **presence** was a quencher to any number of candles.* (142 p. Ch. Dickens “Dombey and Son” 1)

184) *Mažiausia keturiasdešimt metų buvo praėję nuo to laiko, kai Peru kasyklos nuvarė į kapus misterį Pipčiną, bet jo našlė vis dar tebevilkiėjo juodu bombazinu, tokio dulso, blandaus, negyvėliško ir niūraus atspalvio, jog net ryški dujų šviesa negalėjo jos apšviesti sutemus, ir jos **pasirodymas** nelyginant koks gesiklis užtemdydavo bet kurią žvakių skaičių.* 137 p. Č. Dikensas „Dombis ir sūnus“ 1)

185) *Anette's handsome **presence**, with its tendency to black lace, was always pleasing to Michael, who had never forgotten her espousal of his suit in days when it was a forlorn hope.* (198 p. J. Galsworthy “The White Monkey”)

185) *Dailiosios Anetės, pasidabinusios taip mėgstamais juodais nėriniais, **viešnage** visada buvo maloni Maiklui, nepamiršusiam, kaip ji palaikė jį tuo metu.* (166p. Dž. Golsvortis, „Baltoji beždžionėlė“)

186) *His **presence** and example diffused such among the persons employed, that in a few hours the house was emptied of everything but piece of matting, empty porter-post, and scattered fragments of straw.* (125p. Ch. Dickens “The Old Curiosity Shop”)

186) *Neužaugos vadovavimas ir pavyzdys taip išjudino samdinius, kad per kelias valandas namas liko tuštutėlis, jei neminėsime keletą demblių, tuščių alaus indų ir išdraskytų šiaudų kuokštų.* (115p. Č. Dikensas „Senienų krautuvėlė“)

187) As his **presence** had not interfered with or interrupted the preparations, they were now far advanced, and were completed shortly after his departure. (249p. Ch. Dickens "The Old Curiosity Shop")

187) Šio džentelmeno **apsilankymas** nei nutraukė nei trukdė darbų eigos, tad jie gerokai pasistūmėjo į priekį ir jam išvykus netruku viskas buvo baigta. (229p. Č. Dikensas „Senienų krautuvėlė“)

The existential subjectivized grammatical metaphor in the structure "there to be" is also translated as a noun. Consider:

188) There was no such **Being** in the world. (287p. Ch. Dickens "Dombey and Son" 2)

188) Pasaulyje nebebuvo to **žmogaus**. (317p. Č. Dikensas „Dombis ir sūnus“ 2)

189) Now, **there are more congratulations** on this happiest of days, and more company, though not much; and now they leave the drawing – room, and range themselves at table in the dark – brown dining – room, which no confectioner can brighten up, let him garnish the exhausted negroes with as many flowers and love – knots as he will. (17p. Ch. Dickens "Dombey and Son" 2)

189). Vėl **skamba sveikinimai** šios laimingiausios dienos proga, ir atvyksta naujų svečių, nors jų ir nedaug; bet štai jie palieka svetainę ir susėda už stalo niūriame rudame valgomajame, kuriam joks konditeris nepajėgtų suteikti linksmesnės išvaizdos, kad ir kažin kaip puoštų sunykusius negrus gėlėmis ir įmantriomis kokardomis. (19p. Č. Dikensas „Dombis ir sūnus“ 2)

190) **There is only one interruption** to this excellent state of mind, which is occasioned by a young kitchen- maid of inferior rank – in black stockings – who, having sat with her mouth open for a long time, unexpectedly discharges from it words to this effect, "Suppose the wages shouldn't be paid!" (459p. Ch. Dickens "Dombey and Son" 2)

190) **Šitokią puikią jų nuotaiką sudrumsčia** tik vieną kartą žemesnės pradėties tarnaitė, - jaunutė indų plovėja juodomis kojineėmis, kuri sėdi ilgą laiką išsižiojusi ir staiga prabyla šitokiais žodžiais: " O kaip bus, jei mes negausime algos?" (507p. Č. Dikensas „Dombis ir sūnus“ 2)

191) His Royal Highness the Duke of York observed on more than one occasion, 'there is **no adulation** in Joey '. (173 p. Ch. Dickens "Dombey and Son" 1)

191) Jo karališkoji aukštybė Jorko diukas mėgdavo sakyti: „Džojus **nemoka pataikauti**“.
(171 p. Č. Dikensas „Dombis ir sūnus“ 1)

192) „ The fact is, “ said Mr. Brogley, „ there’s **a little payment** on a bond debt – three hundred and seventy odd, overdue: and I’m in possession. ” (161 p. Ch. Dickens “Dombey and Son” 1)

192) – Dalykas toks, - tarė misteris Broglis, - kad štai čia aš turiu **neapmokėtą vekselį** – trims šimtams septyniasdešimt su viršum. (158 p. Č. Dikensas „Dombis ir sūnus“ 1)

193) Everybody knew that “young Mont” had a “bee in his bonnet” about child emigration, and there was little **disposition** to encourage it to buzz. (76p. J. Galsworthy “Swan Song”)

193) Visi gerai žinojo, kad vaikų emigracija- „Juodojo Monto“ silpnybė, todėl nerodė **ypatingo noro**, kad jis ant jo užsisėstų. (513p. Dž. Golsvortis „Gulbės giesmė“)

194) There’s no **suspicion** of being shadowed so far. (172p. J. Galsworthy “Chancery”)

194) Jiems lig šiol nekilo **įtarimas**, kad yra sekami. (429p. Dž. Golsvortis „Kilpoje“)

195) There was such a continual **reverberation** of wind in it, that it sounded like a great shell, which the inhabitants were obliged to hold their ears night and day, whether they liked it or no. (142p. Ch. Dickens “Dombey and Son” 1)

195) Vėjas amžinai **kėlė aidesį**, gaudžiantį kaip milžiniškas kiaukutas, kurio užesio pilies gyventojai turėdavo dieną ir naktį noromis nenoromis klausytis. (137p. Č. Dikensas „Dombis ir sūnus“ 1)

196) “There can be **no action for breach**, that is one comfort.” (73p. Ch. Dickens “The Old Curiosity Shop”)

196) - Viena paguoda, kad manęs **neprikirps už pažado laužymą**. (65p. Č. Dikensas „Senienų krautuvėlė“)

197) There was some **movement** in it now, interest here and there – this Member and that were pecking at it. (224p. J. Galsworthy “The Silver Spoon”)

197) Šiuo metu **jis dar kiek gyvas**. (425p. Dž. Golsvortis „Sidabrinis šaukštas“)

198) Of course, there’s legal **separation** – we can get that. (32p. J. Galsworthy “Chancery”)

198) *Tiesa, yra įteisintas išsiskyrimas, antrajai pusei išvažiavus, - jį lengva gauti. (308p. Dž. Golsvortis „Kilpoje“)*

In some cases existential subjectivized grammatical metaphor was omitted, which is illustrated in the example below:

199) *”Death give him up!” returned the old women, impatiently. (337p Ch. Dickens “Dombey and Son” 2)*

199) *Nieko panašaus! - nekantriai atkirto senė. (374p Č. Dikensas, „Dombis ir sūnus“ 2)*

Due to the reason of the emphasis of the certain idea in some cases the same subjectivized grammatical metaphor was repeated twice. Furthermore, in the example below it is shown that the same subjectivized grammatical metaphor was omitted twice in the original text. For example:

200) *The thought of life without Soames was for her strange and - possible; precisely, in fact, like the thought of life with him. (271p J. Galsworthy “Swan Song”)*

200) *Gyvenimas be Somso atrodė jai keistas ir - įmanomas; lygiai toks pat, teisybę pasakius, kaip ir gyvenimas su juo. (675p Dž. Golsvortis „Gulbės giesmė“)*

It was defined, that the subjectivized grammatical metaphors, which were effected by this change, expressed feelings or very emotional actions. The following example demonstrates the evidence of this statement:

201) *The spiritual excitement of the last fortnight, working upon a system affected in no slight degree by the spirituous excitement of some years, proved a little too much for him. (546p Ch. Dickens “The Old Curiosity Shop”)*

201) *Per praėjusias dvi savaites patirti jaudinantys išgyvenimai pakirto organizmą, ne mažiau dirgintą alkoholiu keletą pastarųjų metų, ir visai išmušė jį iš vėžių. (514p Č. Dikensas, „Senienų krautuvėlė“)*

Conclusions

The present study was an attempt to reveal the peculiarities of subjectivized grammatical metaphor in the translation from English into Lithuanian.

All the objectives of this study were attained.

1) The definition of the concept of nominalization was introduced by referring to valuable theses of theoretical scholars.

2) The definition of the concept of nominalization as one type of grammatical metaphor was clarified by means of theses and examples of scholars.

3) The peculiarities of the translation of subjectivized grammatical metaphor was revealed by the statements and examples of translators and interpreters who clarified their theses by application of knowledge in practice. The practical application of subjectivized grammatical metaphor in the translation from English into Lithuanian was carried out according to these types of processes: material, mental, relational, verbal, happening and existential. Having performed the research based on the translation peculiarities according to the parts of language it was found that in a great majority of cases a subjectivized grammatical metaphor was translated as a noun. However, it was translated as a verb in considerably less cases.

4) Due to the reason, that subjectivized grammatical metaphor is considered to be a significant phenomenon in language, some variants of the ways how it was translated were found. The analysis of the translation of subjectivized grammatical metaphor according to syntactic point of view was also carried out. Summing up all the results of this research it was obvious that in most cases subjectivized grammatical metaphor was translated as a subject. The translation of subjectivized grammatical metaphor as a predicate was performed in considerably less cases. Furthermore, the only example was found when a subjectivized grammatical metaphor was translated as a place adverbial.

In a great majority of cases a subjectivized grammatical metaphor was translated as a noun, in considerably less cases it was translated as a verb and its different forms: present or past participle, subjective mood, etc. When a subjectivized grammatical metaphor was translated as a noun, then there were some changes of a numeral, when a subjectivized grammatical metaphor in singular was translated into a noun in plural or vice versa.

Analyzing this phenomenon through the processes of subjectivized grammatical metaphor, it was observed, that the subjectivized grammatical metaphors conveying material processes were found in most cases. Due to their variety these cases of translation were

divided into three parts: concretization, generalization and omission transformations. Comparing these three types of transformations it was observed, that concretization transformation was used in a great majority of cases due to the reason, that the meaning of subjectivized grammatical metaphor would be expressed in a precise way in the target language.

Generalization transformation was often found as well, however, in this case the semantic meaning of a certain subjectivized grammatical metaphor was completely generalized in the target language. Omission transformation was used as well in these cases, when the idea of a certain sentence was clear without translating a certain subjectivized grammatical metaphor. Summing up all the material processes of a subjectivized grammatical metaphor, which were found in this research, it was evident, that material processes were found in most cases, because the verbs, which they were derived from, conveyed material actions.

However, people not only act externally, in some situations they are active internally: in their thoughts, realizations or dreams. Consequently, mental processes usually were expressed through mental subjectivized grammatical metaphors. In this research this type of subjectivized grammatical metaphor was met quite frequently as well. In most cases subjectivized grammatical metaphors were translated as nouns, only in a few cases – as verbs.

Some cases were found, when subjectivized grammatical metaphor expressed the manner of speaking. However, they were quite rare and there were considerably less of them, compared with the cases of material or mental process. The subjectivized grammatical metaphors expressing verbal processes were also translated as nouns in most cases.

The subjectivized grammatical metaphors of happening, existential and rational processes were found only in some cases of translation. Most of them were conveyed through nouns too.

The value of this present study

1. It may help both language learning and native speaking students to enrich their vocabulary and diversify their usage of language forms.
2. It may provide useful information and insights for the students of comparative linguistics, translation theory, language teaching methodology and related disciplines to achieve better results in their respective fields.
3. It may also be useful to academic researchers of the above-mentioned fields and provide them with a lot of valuable material and useful theoretical insights for their further research.

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