

A Grammatical Study of Naming and Describing as a Tool of Textual Conceptual Function

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الخلاصة

يمكن تحليل اللغة على أنها جوهر الدراسات الأيديولوجية، حيث إنها واحدة من الطرق الرئيسية التي يتم من خلالها نقل المعنى في العالم الاجتماعي. تعتبر التسمية والوصف كأداة للوظيفة المفهومية النصية ذات قيمة كبيرة في توضيح موقف الكاتب تجاه الشيء المشار إليه الذي يستخدمه. تثير مشكلة الدراسة السؤال: كيف تعمل التسمية والوصف لإنتاج تأثيرات أيديولوجية؟ يقدم البحث خلفية نظرية لمصطلح التسمية والوصف لاستخدامهما السائد في النصوص وفعاليتهما في تفسير الأيديولوجيات الخفية. ان النماذج اللغوية المعتمدة هي: *A University Grammar of English* المقترحة من قبل راندولف كويرك و سذني جرين بوم (1973) و *Critical Stylistics-The Power of English* المقترحة من قبل لينلي جيفريز (2010). يهدف البحث إلى (1) تحديد التسمية والوصف من الناحية النحوية كأداة للوظيفة المفهومية النصية. (2) محاولة معرفة لماذا يختار الكاتب اسمًا معينًا من بين جميع البدائل المتاحة، ولماذا يستخدم صفة معينة لوصف الاسم، ولماذا يستخدم عملية التحويل الاسمي عن طريق تحويل الفعل إلى اسم. وقد توصل البحث إلى: (1) أن التسمية والوصف يلعبان دورًا بارزًا في تشكيل الأبعاد الأيديولوجية. (2) تعزيز اتساق النص بواسطة النحو، مما يضمن تدفق الأفكار بشكل منطقي. وينتج عن التعاون بين النحو والأسلوب تجربة قراءة سلسلة.

الكلمات المفتاحية: التسمية، الوصف، التأثيرات الأيديولوجية، الأسلوبية النقدية، التحويل الاسمي.

List of Abbreviations

Adv. = Adverb

NP = Noun Phrase

Conj. = Conjunction

PP = Prepositional Phrase

Det. = Determiner

Prep. = Preposition

M = Modifier

S = Subject

N = Noun

V = Verb

O = Object

VP = Verb Phrase

Abstract

Language can be analyzed to be the core of ideological studies as it is one of the major ways through which meaning is transferred in the social world. Naming and describing as a tool of textual conceptual function is of a very great value in unfolding the writer's attitude concerning the referent he utilizes. The problem of study raises the question: How naming and describing are functioned to produce ideological effects? The paper presents a theoretical background of the term naming and describing for their dominant use in the texts and their effectiveness in interpreting the hidden ideologies. The linguistic models adopted are: *A University Grammar of English* proposed by *Randolph Quirk and Sidney Greenbaum* (1973) and *Critical Stylistics-The Power of English* adopted by *Jeffries, L.* (2010). The paper aims at (1) identifying grammatically naming and describing as a tool of textual conceptual function. (2) trying to figure out why the writer chooses a specific noun among all the available alternatives, why he uses a particular adjective to modify the noun and why he uses the nominalization process by converting the verb into a noun. The paper has arrived at: (1) Naming and Describing plays a prominent role in shaping ideological implications. (2) Consistency of a text is enhanced by grammar, which guarantees that ideas flow logically. A smooth reading experience is produced by the cooperation of grammar and stylistics.

Keywords: Naming, describing, nominalization, ideological effects, critical stylistics.

1. Introduction

Language ideologies are deeply ingrained conceptions of language use, structure, and nature that are socially embedded and they exist in all types of societies. Najm (2012) denotes that communication is best done through language that indicates that information is transmitted from the speaker/writer to the listener/reader.

In 2010, Jeffries created Critical Stylistics (CS), a thorough set of analytical tools that she added to the Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) that have been traced back to Critical Linguistics introduced by Fowler and Kress. Critical Stylistics is concerned with the study of textual meaning which is the essence of stylistics, and how this meaning is advanced from Halliday's ideational function of language to portray an ideologically charged version of reality. The term *naming and describing* refers to a broad category of descriptive linguistic practices, such as the choice of a noun to denote a referent, the modification of a noun phrase construction to further specify the nature of the referent, and the use of a *noun* rather than a *verbal* process.

The importance of this tool is to give a clear set of analytical processes to the reader or hearer so that he/she can follow in implementing critical analysis of texts, with the aim of revealing the underlying ideologies of the texts. Jeffries provides a Critical Stylistic framework in a way that the text analysis of stylistics is combined with the ideological awareness of CDA to uncover the underlying meaning of a text through linguistic features (Jeffries & McIntyre, 2010, 194).

2. What is grammar?

Greenbaum and Nelson (2009) claim that the word *grammar* is the central component of language. It refers to the set of rules that the words in English can be combined into larger units. It can be classified into two linguistic terms: syntax, the study of sentence structure and morphology, the set of rules that describe the structure of words. It mediates between the system of sounds or of written symbols and the system of meaning. Grammatical structures have various applications: (a) They help understand the grammar of a foreign language. (b) They are essential in interpreting literary and non-literary texts. (c) They can help evaluate the choices available when revising an earlier written draft. We undertake a formal study of grammar so that we can make explicitly the knowledge of the rules which we apply when using the language.

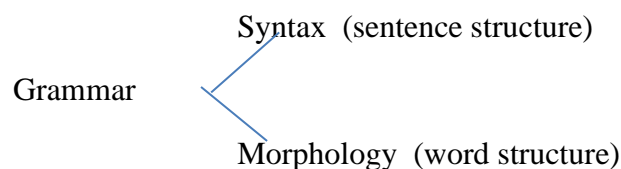


Fig. (1) Classification of grammar

Quirk et, al. (1973) indicate that in grammar, Standard English exhibits a somewhat less monolithic character, but the global consensus is still remarkable and appears to be growing as a result of increased global communication and the dissemination of identical cultures, both material and non-material. When writing in neutral or formal English on topics that are not clearly of local interest, the uniformity is particularly close; in

these situations, one can often read page after page without coming across a feature that would identify the English as falling under one of the national standards.

3. Naming and describing

As a tool of textual conceptual function, *Naming and Describing* is grammatically involved with nouns, adjectives and the conversion of a verb into a noun.

Quirk et al. (1973) affirm that the main function of noun is to be the "head" of a noun phrase. This implies that it can come after a determiner, an article, or both, and that it can contain one or more adjectives between the article and the noun. The way nouns function as components of noun phrases within the broader framework of sentence structure is the other aspect of their function. When combined with other noun phrase components, they can operate as the subject, object, complement, or even an adverbial phrase, giving them the broadest potential of any word class.

Downing (2015) affirms that the adjective is employed as a descriptor to give the referent a quality e.g. *large, ancient, red*, etc.. This could be an objective quality e.g. *a round table, a blue truck, old magazines* while others are subjective and represent the speaker's or writer's attitude towards the referent like *good, nice, lovely, bad, stupid, horrible*, etc.. However, it is not as obvious as we might believe to distinguish between the subjective and objective.

Nominalization is another aspect of naming. This can be seen when something that is really a process is turned into a concrete 'thing' such as the word *nominalization* itself!. For example, *accept* is a verb, and *acceptance* is the nominalized form; *ratify* is a verb, and *ratification* is the nominalized form. Sometimes, both forms are represented by the same word, such as with *decline* in '*his affairs will decline / the decline of his affairs*' (<http://languageinconflict.org>).

3.1 Choice of nouns

Generally, the grammatical term *noun* suggests a person, place or thing, for instance, *Chris, home* and *table* respectively.

Stageberg (1981) declares that the two characteristics of form—the derivational and inflectional morphemes identify nouns as such. The noun possessive {-s ps} and the noun plural {-s pi} are the inflectional morphemes. A noun is any word with the possessive {-s ps}. A word is also a noun if it has the plural form {-s pi}. Furthermore, it is a noun if it lacks the {-s pi} but still accepts it in the same position - sometimes with a context readjustment to make room for a plural form. Thus in: *The author seems nervous*, because it can be readjusted to its plural form and remain in the same location, *author* can be converted from a noun to a plural noun.: *The authors seem nervous*. But in the sentence *Her brother may author a new book*, in this context, *author* cannot be made plural because it is not a noun.

Additionally, words with only a plural form will be regarded as nouns, such as clothes, goods, vitals, glasses (spectacles), oats, pants, pliers, scissors, and thanks. In addition to noun-forming derivational suffixes appended to verbs, adjectives, nouns, adverbs, and bound forms, nouns are distinguished by inflectional morphemes. Compare these sentences: *The quality is pure* and *The quality is purity*. It is the form of purity, denoted as a noun by the addition of -ity to an adjective. Generally, the signal of nounness is provided by the suffix itself and our awareness of the part of speech to which it has been affixed.

As for the characteristics of nouns, Gelderen (2002) says that morphological characteristics involve the shape of an element while syntactic ones involve how the element fits in a sentence while the semantic characteristics involve meaning as in Table (1) that shows how nouns can be linguistically characterized.

Table (1) Characteristics of nouns linguistically

Levels of language	Characteristics of nouns
Morphology	a. plural-s with a few exceptions eg, <i>deer, mice, men</i>
	b. possessive 's
Syntax	c. preceded by determiners
	d. modified by adjective

	e. followed by preposition and noun
Semantics	f. person, place, thing

The choice of a word with pejorative or ameliorative connotations is another kind of choice in naming and it has more clear ideological potential. In other words, where a choice of word not only makes reference to something, but also shows the speaker's attitude of that referent. In the example:

1) *Someone gave me a smile and they gave me a leer*

though the choices of *smile* and *leer* are related to the facial expression being described, the former carries a neutral evaluation while the latter carries a negative evaluation (Jeffries: 2010).

Downing (2015) denotes that nominal groupings are mostly used to refer to the participants in context. In addition to people, places, things, organizations, and other collectives, they also include activities like *swimming*, abstractions like *thinking*, attributes like *beauty*, feelings like *rage*, and phenomena like *thunder*, *success*.

Greenbaum and Nelson (2009) assert that the contrast between abstract (broadly, immaterial) nouns like *warmth* and concrete (broadly, tangible) nouns like *bottle* is broken down by the classifications of count and non-count nouns. Although abstract nouns can be count like *remark* or non-count like *warmth*, there is a significant amount of overlap between the two. This is a linguistic phenomenon rather than something that comes from nature. They might be proper or common nouns. Proper nouns, which usually start with a capital letter, are names of particular persons, places, or events, such as *Shakespeare*, *Chicago*, *January*, *Christmas*, or *Ramadan*. Names can have multiple words in them: *The Hague*, *The New York Times*, *Captain Andrews*, *Heathrow Airport*, and *Mount Everest*. Common nouns are those that are not names, like capital in:

2) *The Hague is the capital of Dutch.*

There are two categories into which common nouns can be divided:

1. Type of referent: abstract or concrete
2. Grammatical form: count or non-count.

girl, *kitchen*, and *car* are examples of concrete nouns that describe persons, places, or things. *Humor*, *belief*, and *honesty* are examples of abstract nouns that describe qualities, states, or actions. Depending on what they mean, several nouns can be either concrete as in: *Thomas has a 50-yard football kick* or abstract as in: *On Saturdays, Thomas frequently plays football*.

The classes of noun are illustrated through the following diagram.

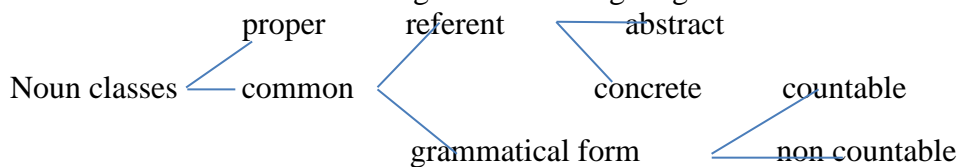


Fig. (2) Noun classes

The traditional recognition between "abstract" (broadly, immaterial) nouns like *warmth* and "concrete" (broadly, tangible) nouns such as *bottle* is disrupted by the categories count and non-count. However, there is a significant amount of overlap between abstract and non-count nouns, even though abstract nouns might be count-like remarks or non-count-like *warmth*. This is language-specific and does not arise naturally. However, when we look at the large class of nouns that can be both count and non-count, we find that there is frequently a significant difference in meaning, which roughly accords to particularization or concreteness in count usage and abstractness or generalization in non-count usage. (Quirk et, al., 1973).

3.2 Noun modification

Finch (2000) mentions that the process of modification enables phrases to grow and include a range of supporting information. It is made up of words, phrases, and sentences that are in some manner dependent on the head word and can appear either before or after it. Modification is referred to as pre-modification when it happens before the head like the adjective *pretty* in: *The pretty girl* and post-modification when it happens after it as in: *The girl is pretty*.

Relative clause serves as a post-modifier in a noun phrase introduced by a *Wh* - word having a grammatical role in both its relative clause and joining function (Rauf, 2015).

Jeffries (2006) denotes that in English, an adjective phrase is usually limited to the adjective itself. Only gradable adjectives usually contain intensifying adverbs before them, such as totally *awful*, particularly *galling*, very *unhappy*. Therefore, it may be simpler to recognize adjectives by their overall grammatical purposes rather than by their roles inside individual phrases. Adjectives have two main functions in a noun phrase: as the premodifier for the head noun (*a talented artist*) and as the complement of a clause after an intense verb *the artist is brilliant*. The majority of adjectives can fulfill these functions, and regardless of the functions of an adjective, its meaning usually stays the same. Nonetheless, there are instances where the adjective takes on distinct meanings depending on where it is used.

Quirk et al (1985) denote that when adjectives premodify a head of a noun phrase, they are considered attributive:

3) *The beautiful lady came*

When adjectives function as either the subject complement or object complement, they are predicative. Subject and subject complement have a copular relationship:

4) *The children are happy.*

5) *He made the children happy*

Adjectives are subject complement not only to noun phrases, but also to clauses, which may be finite clauses or non-finite clauses:

6) *That she annoyed him* is obvious. (finite clause)

7) *Reading books* is enjoyable. (non-finite clause)

The following figure shows the syntactic functions of adjectives.

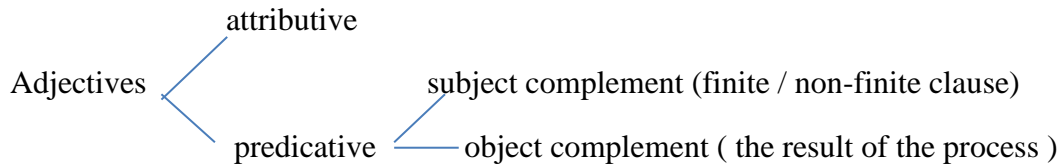


Fig. (3) Syntactic functions of adjectives

Downing (2015) denotes that since the speaker inevitably expresses the quality through his eyes, the act of appreciation is necessarily subjective. However, because it is tied to a cultural norm, the appreciation is objectivized. Some characteristics of "objectivity" vary among cultures. People from other cultures may not see what is considered a tall man or a small street as such. the speaker's or writer's subjective evaluation of the referent is expressed through the attitudinal (evaluative) adjective. There are two main categories of evaluation:

- **appreciative:** *good, wonderful, heavenly (a good film, an intelligent remark)*
- **pejorative:** *bad, idiotic, monstrous, appalling (a horrible film, a foolish remark)*

Attitudinal adjectives are usually placed before descriptive ones: a *marvelous sunny* day; a *sickly greenish* yellow. In addition, they frequently come before or after others that convey the same ideas, which serves to amplify or reinforce the attitude or emotion: a *lumbering great* lorry, a *whopping big* lie, that *splendid, delicious* meal a *sweet little* girl.

Tabbert (2016) claims that modifiers expand the meaning of the head by adding "descriptive" information, frequently limiting the head's scope of reference. Thus in the article of *Guardian*:

"32-year-old man has been charged with the murder of a father who was found dead in the basement of a West Midlands house".

the adjectival phrase "32-year-old" characterizes the noun "man" by adverbially indicating the age of defendant. The choice of additional information that is offered (as opposed to information that is withheld) can highlight particular characteristics of an entity that are consistent with their designation.

Stojanovic (2015) denotes that adjectives that imply a speaker's attitude or valuation, whether positive or negative, are known as evaluative adjectives. The adjectives *good* and *bad* along with *mediocre*, *terrible*, *awesome* are evaluative adjectives and *beautiful*, *pretty*, *hideous*, *ugly* are aesthetic adjectives. By looking at conjunctions in which an evaluative adjective is used while the corresponding evaluative attitude is denied, evaluativity can be checked:

10) *It is a bad approach, but I don't value it negatively.*

11) *Paris is beautiful, but aesthetically, I don't value it positively.*

Many adjectives not by their very nature aesthetic can be *used* to make an aesthetic judgment. Also, a value-judgment can be expressed by many ordinary adjectives: thus describing e.g. a project as *ambitious* may, in a specific context, express a positive stance towards the project; but express a negative stance in another.

Tabbert (2016) mentions that in the following *Guardian* article:

"Daynes, who used the online monicker EagleOneSix, befriended Breck in the internet gaming group TeamSpeak in which the 19-year-old was described as the controlling ringmaster. Outlining his story in a matter-of-fact manner, the controlling killer told the operator: "I grabbed the knife and stabbed him in the back of the neck"."

the adjective *controlling* is evaluative. It gives value judgments or interpretation to the noun and is crucial not only for the creation of the referent but also for the labeling process since it offers a moral guideline. Because of how Daynes handled the problem, he is portrayed as clever and resourceful, which are positive character traits. By virtue of the setting, his use of these resources to execute a crime and maintain power thereafter turns them as negative ones, portraying Daynes as cold-blooded and manipulative with no sign of remorse. This judging adjective is used to paint Daynes as being in a strong, superior position both at the time of the crime and just after it was committed. These decisions about Daynes' discription have ideological significance in terms of how he is perceived and categorized. We disregard the notion that these decisions may have been made by the text producer subconsciously since we are only concerned in the text and its meaning.

Jeffries' claim that noun phrases have the ability to 'package up' ideas or information is demonstrated by Tabbert (2015) who affirms that the use of pre- and post-modifiers in the extended noun phrase functioning as the subject in the sentence taken from *Yorkshire Post* article: *"The two accused brothers, who cannot be named for legal reasons, each face the same four charges"* expresses its propositional content as an existential presupposition by jamming a lot of distinct information into a noun phrase. Since the reader is unlikely to challenge the information, he takes them for granted which allows for manipulation.

Quirk et.al (1973) claim that the use of non-restrictive adjective reflects the writer's desire to add extra interest without giving an identity. So, the sentence: *Mary Jan, the attractive girl, works as a typist* is based solely on the reference to her beauty; the mention of her employment as a typist is provided merely to pique curiosity rather than to aid in identification. Using pre-modifying adjectives denotes our intention that it be taken for granted.

3.3 Nominalization

Linzhou et al. (2022) affirm that semantic continuity of expressions of abstract-concrete, static-dynamic, and subjective-objective appears to be the source of the shift in the process of nominalization at the semantic level, in addition to the degree of bounded characteristic. More precisely, nominalization tends to produce abstract nouns, which typically link the qualities of typical nouns with abstract concepts. Furthermore, the act of nominalization implicitly changes the subject of a clause, which might depersonalize the language of a text. The process of nominalization causes most abstract structures that make a representative list of abstract noun phrases.

There are four distinct functions that nominalization fulfills inside the ideational metafunction:

a) Concision which is the process or the property is reworded into an entity through the nominalization process, which clarifies the logical part of the argumentation in a text and better fulfills the purpose of clearly expressing human experience.

b) Increased lexical density which refers to a situation where the nominalized pattern is more tightly packed into a single clause, with nouns expressing the internal lexico-grammatical relation. This can be compared to a coordinate clause or a clause complex that includes a subordinate clause connected by logical connectives. One of the potentials of nominal groups is to be described, characterized, and specified by other parts; in other words, additional information is added to clauses by adding more words. But as this procedure primarily involves defining non-content features, such as tense, number, aspect, voice, etc., the extension of verbal groups does not add additional information to the clause. Consequently, the lexical density—or potential content—of the text has increased by converting verbs and other parts of speech into nouns.

c) Objectivity that requires turning verbs into nouns, the actor (i.e. the doer) of the clause is displaced by possessors (shown as the genitive case: -'s or by-phrase) which is taken as qualifiers to nouns as in:

12) *Jack's assistance is very necessary in this current time.*

The internal subject “Bourdieu” is changed into a genitive case, that further enhanced the objectivity of language.

d) Formality which is the last function acknowledged as an efficient formal method. The authoritativeness of interpersonal meta-function is its function. The removal of the logical subject causes a clause to change from being a proposition to a presupposition, which makes the style more authoritative because the assumption cannot be disputed or rejected as in:

13) *We will execute him on Monday* ~~His execution~~ *will be on Monday.*

The *yes or no* structure can be used to argue the former phrase e.g., *Will you? —Yes, we will. —No, we won't.* Nonetheless, the proposition of the previous phrase has been transformed into an inarguable thing or fact through the process of nominalization (execute-execution) (Linzhou et al., 2022).

Words can be converted into nouns by adding some nominal derivational suffixes. Stageberg (1981) shows that these include all non-inflectional suffixes. We shall focus on three traits of derivational suffixes in this discussion:

1. Derivational suffixes combine arbitrary words with one another. The word *fail* merely has to join with *-ure* to become the noun *failure*, but the verb *decorate* requires the addition of *-ion* in order to become a noun *decoration*.

2. A derivational suffix changes the word to which it is attached in many, but not all, circumstances. By adding *-ive*, the noun *act* becomes an adjective *active*. Similarly, we may add *-ate* to the adjective *active* to make it a verb, *activate*.

3. Derivational suffixes typically do not end a word; that is, one can frequently add an inflectional suffix and occasionally add another derivational suffix after a derivative one. For instance, the word *fertilize*, which ends in a derivational suffix, can have another one added, *-er*; similarly, the term *fertilizer* can have the inflectional suffix *-s* added to it to close it.

The following table contains some nouns derived from their verbs due to the nominal derivational suffixes they attach to.

Table (2) Some nominal derivational suffixes with their senses and examples

Nominal suffix	Senses	Example	Nominal suffix	Senses	Example
-age	forming a noun	<i>store-storage</i>	-er	one who	<i>run-runner</i>
-ance	an act of, a state of	<i>maintain-maintenance</i>	-ing	in the process of	<i>drive-driving</i>
-ant	one who, that which	<i>account-accountant</i>	-ion	an act of, a state of	<i>act-action</i>
-ar	one who	<i>beg-beggar</i>	-ism	act, condition	<i>terrify-terrorist</i>
-ate	one who, that which	<i>certify-certificate</i>	-ive	an act of, a state of	<i>relate-relative</i>
-ation	a state or concept of	<i>inform-information</i>	-ment	abstract noun	<i>pay-payment</i>
-ative	an act of, a state of	<i>conserve-conservative</i>	-or	one who, person	<i>act-actor</i>
-atory	an act of, a state of	<i>conserve-conservatory</i>	-sion	noun from a process	<i>admit-admission</i>
-cation	a state or concept of	<i>modify-modification</i>	-ure	a thing	<i>press-pressure</i>

-ence	an act of, a state of	<i>reside-residence</i>	-y	an act of, a state of	<i>recover-recovery</i>
-ent	one who, that which	<i>reside-resident</i>			

Jeffries (2007) assures that nominalization is the morphological derivation of a noun from a verb. These would include, for example, *introduction*, *sleeping* and *significance* from the verbs *introduce*, *sleep* and *signify* as in:

14) *The introduction of projects was a government ploy.*

15) *Sleeping early is good for your health.*

16) *The significance of that subject seems very clear.*

Although stringent nominalizations occur frequently in English, the majority of them only offer a modest amount of economy. Not only is this rewriting explicit, but it also highlights the fact that, as in this second line, we occasionally utilize nominalizations for general reference. We discover that the verb *sleeping* lacks a clear grammatical subject when we attempt to reverse the nominalization.

Jeffries (2007) affirms that as Fowler notes, the force of nominalization extends beyond the loss of agency, modality, and tense. Reification, the other, is the process of formulating existential presuppositions. Thus, the use of a nominalization *confirmation* in the sentence:

17) *The confirmation that the house is old may make him reconstruct it.*

focuses on the outcome instead of the process of the announcement. The noun *confirmation* here is more like an entity and less like a process, and it is also presupposed to exist, as it is noted through its constancy in the negated version:

18) *The confirmation that the house is old may not make him reconstruct it.*

4. Discussions

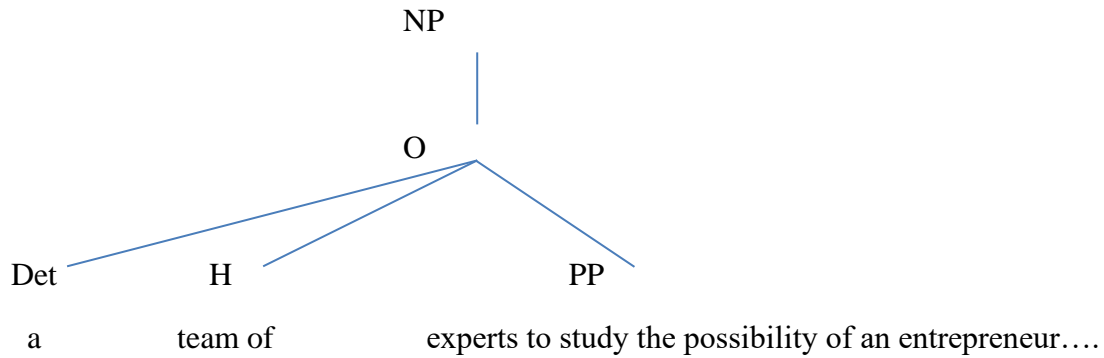
The essence of the topic of naming and describing is to unfold the ideologies or the ideas that the writer or the speaker has towards the referent. Another very significant point regarding this topic is to reproduce ideological effects. The following analyses including some of political texts of *the Wall Street Journal* show the role of grammatical structure in revealing ideological effects made by *Naming and describing*.

"A decade ago, the Pentagon paid a team of experts to study the possibility of an entrepreneur or private company building and selling bombs". (Feb. 2, 2024)

This sentence has an AdvSVO structure. The subject is made up of an NP, *the Pentagon* and the predicator is made up of a main verb *paid*, *a team of experts* is the object having *team* as a head and the rest of the sentence is the prepositional phrase having *to* as a preposition and the remaining is VP. Beginning with *A decade ago*, the chronological structure of the sentence places the action in a particular historical setting. Readers may be prompted to consider how past choices have affected the present by this temporal frame. The word "Pentagon" conjures up a potent image of military might and political judgment. It implies an institutional and formal setting. Choosing the noun *experts* that is neutral or positive which indicates authority and competence among all the available alternatives such as *boffin* that represents more negative connotation reflects the sympathetic view of the writer towards the referent. The use of the determiner *a* which is indefinite article indicates that this team of experts is generic which suggests that this combination tells the listener what kind of team it is. The verb *to study* conveys intent and purpose, implying that the Pentagon was actively investigating contentious possibilities.

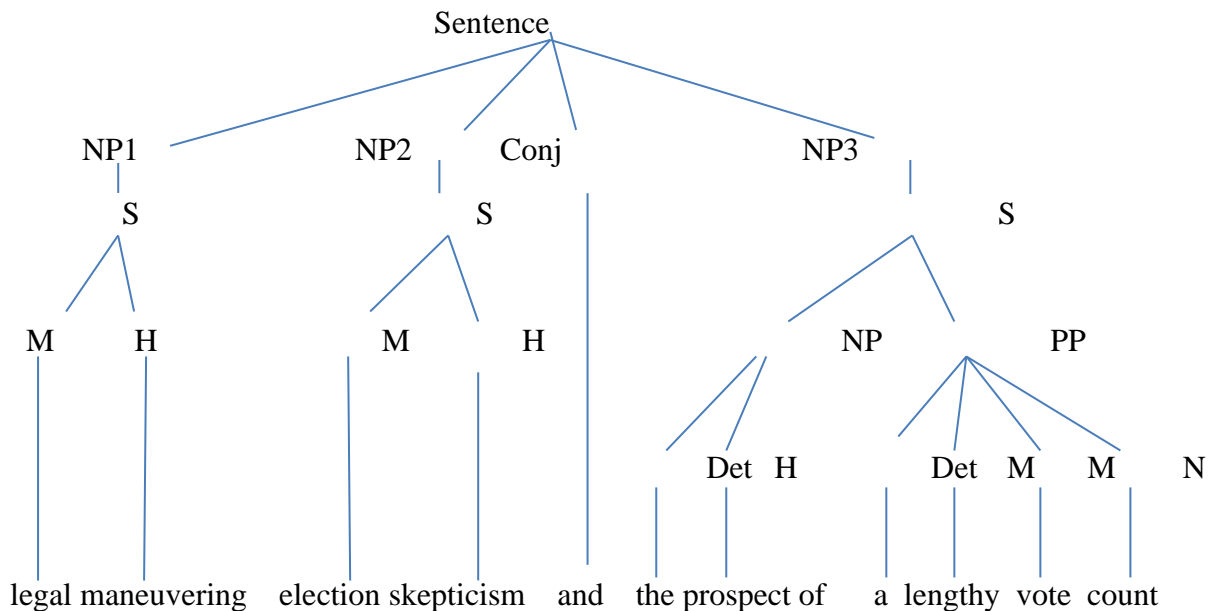
The text assumes that the viability of private companies producing weapons is a matter of justifiable interest. It suggests that the notion that such commercialization might be taken into consideration is accepted. Additionally, it makes the assumption that the reader is aware of the possible repercussions of enlisting private firms in military affairs, raising ethical questions. Although this was taken into consideration, the wording *to study the possibility* implies a speculative approach and makes no claims that any action was done. The issue becomes more ambiguous and cautious as a result of this utilization of modality. Using the NP *private company* brings the notion of economic interests in military activities, while the term *entrepreneur* implies creativity and capitalism. The morality of commercializing military assets is called into doubt by this comparison.

The idea (ideology) is packaged up through the noun *building* by being named, rather than proposed that is then taken for granted. The nominalized form of the verb *build* permits the speaker/writer to represent this process as an actual, concrete thing. Utilizing the expression *Building and selling bombs* is an extremely strong statement. It evokes a sense of peril and moral complexity because it is straightforward and plain. Because it evokes ideas of violence and devastation, the choice of *bombs* is very significant. This is an example of how contestable views as tangible and inarguable can be presented potentially by speakers/writers. The PP is not part of proposition due to the reification way in which processes become tangible entities through nominalization.



"Legal maneuvering, election skepticism and the prospect of a lengthy vote count have the state on edge".
(Oct. 6, 2024)

This sentence is an SVO clause, with the main verb *have*. The subject is made up of a coordinated pair of NP1, NP2 and NP3, and the object is a complex NP. Looking at these in detail, we have subjects: NP1 *legal maneuvering*, NP2 *election skepticism* and NP3 *the prospect of a lengthy vote count*.



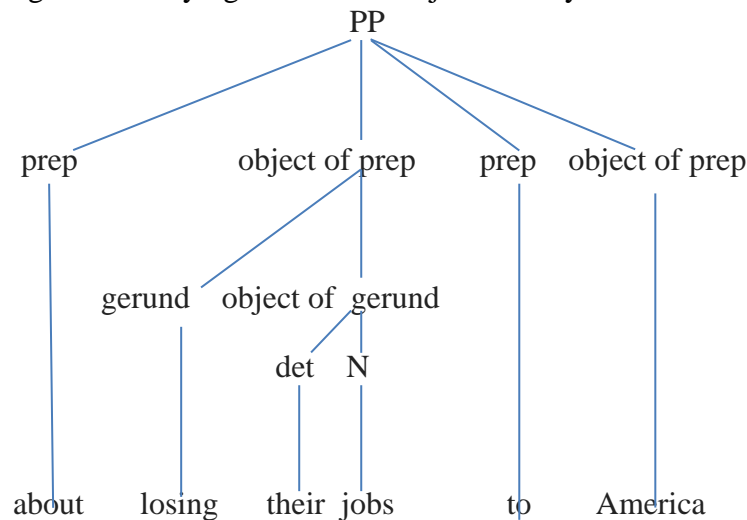
Three separate but related topics are listed in this sentence, which uses a compound construction. This arrangement highlights the complexity of situation implies that various elements work together to create an unstable environment. The subject here is taking for granted the existence of the *maneuvering*, *skepticism* and *the prospect of a vote count*, which are simple phrases referring to an immensely complex set of issues of international elections. The first NP has the head noun *maneuvering* modified by the adjective *legal*, which implies that there may be other (illegal) *maneuverings*. The word *maneuvering* connotes possibly

dishonest behavior, which may indicate a lack of openness or moral behavior. A sense of conflict or manipulation within the legal system is evoked by this word choice. In the NP2, the term *skepticism* is used negatively to convey skepticism or mistrust of the democratic process. This decision suggests that there is a serious doubt about the integrity of the election. The term *lengthy* in the NP3 conveys a sense of immobility and annoyance, which could make the voting process appear ineffective or troublesome and increase worry. NP3 here is assuming that there will be a doubtfulness of elections and potential for prolonged vote count. The choice of the word *state* implies a formal or situational context, elevating the seriousness of the situation. By using the present tense *have the state on edge*, these issues are implied to be immediate and significant at the moment. The sentence assumes that there is a high degree of worry or anxiety in *the state*. It is assumed that readers are aware of the background of these problems and how they affect the stability of society. It also suggests that the emotional or psychological state of the state may be directly impacted by legal actions and public opinion regarding elections. *Have the state on edge* conveys a sense of certainty over the state's emotional condition. It makes clear that these problems are generating genuine distress and exudes a strong feeling of urgency and worry.

"Foreigner nations will be worried about losing their jobs to America" (Sep. 24, 2024)

As noted, the sentence has the structure of NP VP PP. In the NP, the adjective *foreigner* which is the modifier of the subject *nations* makes those nations stand for outsiders and carries the sense of conflict. It is distinguished by its very nature, implying a difference between American and non - American (other countries). A sense of alienation or otherness may be evoked by this decision, thus encouraging a nationalistic viewpoint. The adjective *worried* evokes a feeling of unease and worry, suggesting that the countries in question are actively feeling threatened rather than merely being passive bystanders.

Concerning the PP, the nominalized form *losing* coming from the verb *lose* brings the loss into the existence. It indicates an economic vulnerability. An argument can arise regarding the worry of those nations, so one can say *foreigner nations will not be worried* as the verbal phrase can be proposed. On the contrary of the VP *will be worried*, the NP *losing her jobs* cannot be proposed since the verb *lose* which is a process is turned into a concrete entity *losing* by the process of ratification. The future tense *will be worried* in this sentence construction suggests a forecast about what will happen in the future. This implies that the speaker anticipates continuing or intensifying conflicts over job security.



The noun phrase *losing their jobs* mirrors serious considerations attached to significant factors like globalization in which companies internationally expand, so they may give jobs to countries with lower labor costs, which results in job loss for the foreigner nations. Another important factor is associated with economic policy that favor American industries can upgrade fear concerning job security in other countries.. The possessive determiner *their* has a great value in suggesting that these nations have important jobs in America. Therefore, the sentence implies a competitive state involved with economic issues between these nations and America. This NP also highlights the financial and human risks involved by implying a direct danger to livelihood. It implies that American economic policies have a direct effect on people's employment in other countries. The expression *to America* portrays America as a potent force, implying hegemony or supremacy in the global labor market. It presents the United States as a rival that other countries should be wary of.

By implying that the countries have little control over the issue, the structure *losing their jobs* highlights the nations' weakness. The sentence implies a pervasive perception that American competition poses a threat to jobs by assuming that job loss is a real worry for these countries. Additionally, it makes the assumption that American policies and job security in other nations are directly and clearly related, implying a tense economic dependency.

5. Conclusions

The findings of the research have reached at some of considerable conclusions that can include the following substantial points:

1. Naming and Describing plays a prominent role in shaping ideological implications.
2. The choice of noun is of great significance in creating ideology by choosing a specific noun and not another, the same is the case with the construction of noun phrases with modifiers (in pre- and post-positions) to further determine the nature of the referent, and nominalization by the reification way associated with the processes of proposition, affirming, assuming, and presupposition.
3. Consistency of a text is enhanced by grammar, which guarantees that ideas flow logically. A smooth reading experience is produced by the cooperation of grammar and stylistics .
4. The importance of critical stylistics lies in deducing the ideas present in a specific text and presenting them as a specific ideology.
5. Grammatical structure is of a great value in unfolding the view point of the writer / speaker regarding a specific referent.

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