ADVERBIAL ADJUNCTS :

A Critical consideration of work on their Classification

BY

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ABSTRACT

This study is conoerned with some of the problems of classifying adverbial adjuncts in English, It attempts to investigate the primary function of English adverbial adjuncts, and, on that basis, to isolate the properties which uniquely distinguish adverbial adjuncts from the rest of the major classes of English.

Chapter one relates the problem of delimiting adverbial adjuncts to the wider problem of objectively classifying the 'parts of speech[1] that characterise the English Language. A brief survey of scholarly opinion connected with this problem is given to help evolve an oolcotio and, it is hoped, pedagogioally rewarding scheme for classifying adverbial adjuncts and related classes.

Chapter two examines various attempts by grammarians to cope with the problem of identifying or defining adverbs. It also investigates the nature and scope of adverbial modification and in particular tries to establish the difference between the adjunctive functions of adjectives and adverbs.

Chapter three studies the form of adverbial adjuncts, their morphological structure, and how this is related to or derives from their primary function as adjunctive modifiers.

Chapter four attempts a sub-olassifioation of adverbial adjuncts drawing extensively upon existing work on the subject, commenting on it and suggesting alternative, less fragmented solutions. It tries to draw attention to the basic similarity between what on the surface might appear to be conflicting views due to differences in terminology and

approach, and than attempts to synthesize, them.

Chapter five concludes the dissertation by setting down two criteria for isolating adverbial adjuncts (oriterion of omissibility and criterion of optionality) and a minor criterion (gradability) for distinguishing between 'word-modifying' and sentence-modifying' adjuncts. It also tentatively explores the possible rhetorical or stylistic value of adverbial adjuncts, their purposeful use for effective communication.

Finally, a bibliography containing most of the works oonsulted and sources oited in the course of the dissertation is given at the end.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The adverb as a 'part of speech' presents special problems which grammarians of all schools, traditional and modern, have found rather hard to solve. It has defied accurate and exact definition partly because as a word-class its constituents are notoriously heterogeneous and partly because the problem of delimiting the word-class is closely tied up with the still unsolved problem of how best to classify all the parts of speech that characterise the language - i.e. how to devise an integrated and comprehensive framework to which they are individually and collectively related. It is a linguistic vicious circle. Any attempt to 'tidy up' or systematise adverbs must take account of the other word classes to which they are formally and semantically interrelated, this system of interrelationships being the grammar of the language.[1]

The problem thus exists at several levels. As indicated by Crystal,

> 'one cannot isolate word classes, giving them an identity of their own apart from the grammar. The proper emphasis in establishing or describing them does not allow them to be disassociated from the grammar at all the concept word class implies the prior establishment of a grammar, and explicating the word classes of a language involves explicating its grammar'.2

In selecting criteria for classifying adverbs, therefore, we naturally have to consider general criteria for classifying the main

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1. c.f. Halliday (1970).

2. Lingua 17, p. 27.

word classes of English. This is a necessary safeguard against basing our analysis on the sort of arbitrary or simplistic assumptions that seem to underlie and therefore vitiate treatments of the parts of speech in some school grammars.

Three bases have traditionally been used to classify English words:

(1) Formal - classes are established on the basis of their ability to be inflected for number, person, possession, or tense. Thus a noun is often defined in terms of its ability to take the plural morpheme 's'.

noun stem	+	s	Plural noun
girl	+	s	girls
boy	+	s	boys
or noun stem	+	's	Possessive noun
boy	+	's	boy's (owned by a boy)
John	+	's	John's (= owned by John), etc.

1.1 But not all nouns behave this way. Items such as news, sheep, breese, cattle, impertinence which are neither singular or plural, and which carry the plural morpheme only on special occasions, are powerful counterexamples. It is not enough to call them 'irregular' nouns, even for convenience of analysis. Nor is it possible to classify nouns according to their endings, e.g. -hile, -phone, -dom, -ism, -ology, -let, -ence, -scopy, -tion, etc.; for to do so would suggest that each ending, had a meaning. Some to be sure are derivational, e.g. -ism in marxism, -dom in kingdom, -ence in repentence, but what is the meaning of, say, -tion in convention? And if all these items belong to the same word-class, the noun, why can they not have the same form-ending? That would help the learner quite a lot.

A list of possible noun-endings may be part of a discovery procedure or may tell us something about their formation, but it does not necessarily distinguish nouns from other word-classes. 'Sentence' may be a noun or a verb in the same way as 'telephone' may be a noun or a verb, depending on context. Similar objections may be raised against applying such techniques to verbs, adjectives, or even adverbs; for the usual adverb-designator '-ly' may occur at the end of some adjectives such as kindly, motherly. '-ly' and '-wise', '-wards' and '-wise' should better be treated as adverb-deriving suffixes, useful for classifying adverbs but not for distinguishing them from other word-classes.

On the same sort of basis, formal basis, verbs are sometimes identified as terms which inflect for tense, person, and number. For example,

go	going	goes	went	gone
eat	eating	eats	ate	eaten, etc.

Such a scheme, useful though it may be in the case of verbs cannot be applied to adjectives and adverbs which on the whole are unaffected by changes in tense, person or number.

1.1.3 Adjectives, on the other hand, are sometimes identified on the basis of their ability to carry the comparative and superlative morphemes er/est:

nice	nicer	nicest
brave	braver	bravest
great	greater	greatest

But cf. 'good better best' - how does one prevent a foreign speaker, or young learners from saying by analogy, 'good, gooder, goodest', and from regarding all adjectives as gradable?

One thing to notice in all these cases is the lack of uniformity in the criteria used. In other words, one does not use the same criteria even when one uses a single base, in this case a formal one.

1.2. The second commonly used base is semantic - words are defined on the basis of meaning. This criterion is often applied to nouns, viz; a noun is 'the name of a person, place or thing'. The working of such definitions depends entirely on the assumption that we all know what stands for a person, place or thing, and that all physical objects neatly sub-divide into these categories: Jack is the name of a person, London is a 'place', and a book a thing. There are certainly many other items which can be identified as 'nouns' on this basis, but not all of them may be so treated. Consider, hunger, honesty, spy, knowledge, etc., and the inadequacy of this approach becomes self-evident. Consider in addition the nominal elements underlined in the following statements:

(i) They may spoonfeed you but they'll never provide you with enough food for thought.
(ii) He gave me a light.
(iii) He has seen the light.
(iv) They have decided to take a concrete action.
(v) It's more a government of decision than of reflection.

Each of them is normal, but their defining characteristics as nouns go beyond notional semantic distinctions. They are hard to grapple with because they relate to different or overlapping levels of human perception, and defy solution even in terms of the traditional

sub-categorisation of nouns into concrete or abstract, common or proper, stative or dynamic, etc.

1.2.1. A further weakness of meaning - based definitions is the difficulty in rigorously stating the differences in the meaning of some items which, however, are distinguishable grammatically. For instance, run/run (e.g. they run; they made a run), deliver/delivery, act/action, arrive/arrival, decide/decision, house/house, try/try, toy/toy, Man/man, etc. The first of each pair is a verb and the second a noun, but their meanings are basically the same.

1.2.2. Furthermore we should note that verbs, adverbs and adjectives cannot be defined on the basis of the frame(X is the name of Y'). Such a frame is limited to nouns and even if it is a useful mnemonic device it does not cover all nouns, as we have seen in 1.1.1.

1.3. The third base widely used is functional - classes are defined in terms of their grammatical function in the clause. For example, 'nouns' may be defined as items that can function as the subject or object of a sentence; 'adjectives' as items that qualify a noun or noun phrase; 'verbs' as items that express the relation holding between the subject and object or complement of a sentence; and adverbs as items that "modify a verb, an adjective, or another adverb".

1.3.1. Such definitions are circular in many respects. For one thing, each word-class can be defined only with reference to the other word-classes; a prior knowledge of them or ability to identify them is necessary for the definitions to work. For another, such definitions assume that the reader or learner 'knows' what functioning as subject or object 'means', and that he can appreciate the difference (a rather misleading one) between modification and qualification, otherwise the whole thing would be meaningless to him. Taking the definition

of adverbs as an example, we should note that their characterisation as words that "modify a verb, an adjective, or another adverb" gives the mistaken impression that adverbs can modify all verbs, all adjectives, and all other adverbs, and that this is their only function.

In the first place, the definition should specify that there is a constraint on the number and type of verbs, adjectives and other adverbs, that adverbs can modify, the constraint of word-order and collocation. Thus in well-fed, newly arrived, hastily conclude (cf. *well mistaken, *utterly well, *very excellent, *fast new) the adverb modifies verbs, but not adjectives. In very experienced, very softly, quite nice, utterly wrong, very briefly (cf. *very married, *rather undertaken, *very eaten) the adverb modifies adjectives or adverbs, but not verbs[1]

In the second place, the definition makes no mention of the fact that adverbs also modify whole sentences or clauses and that their placement determines the nature of their function as well as their semantic interpretation (we shall have more to say on this in later sections)

Functional definitions, like semantic ones, can thus be simplistically notional, and therefore equally unreliable unless function is interpreted syntactically. That is, words should be classified on the basis of what positions they occupy in particular sentences, and on what kinds of syntactic relationships they consistently have with other words, and how this affects their semantic force. Hence their names, if we must give them any at all, should only refer to particular syntactic/semantic properties. Nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs should have no meaning or function in isolation if we want our grammar to be explicit. A 'noun' is not a noun merely because it denotes persons, places, or things in isolation but because it consistently refers to the syntactic properties of words which occupy the positions we choose to call 'Subject' and 'Object' in a sentence.

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1 I owe this insight to Bolinger, 1968, p. 291.

Thus in John is a boy we cannot say John and boy are nouns, and consequently function as the subject and object of the sentence. We have to begin by saying John and boy respectively have the syntactic properties that we characterise as subject and object; and as they share these properties with many other words and like them denote physical objects or living beings in these positions, we may call them nouns. Similarly, an adverb, is not a modifier because it is an adverb; rather it is an adverb because it is a modifier; that is, it has the syntactic and semantic properties which a particular set of words we call modifiers tend to display.

2. In this section I shall briefly discuss proposals made by some linguists on the classification of adverbs and other words classes and comment on their adequacy.

First among them is Gleason. He suggests a compromise formula to explicate such overlapping categories in English as cannot be adequately accounted for by applying any one single criterion.

For example, Gleason observed that cattle, handshake and perseverance may be 'nouns by some definitions but not by all'. He suggests two ways to cope with them:

(a) the criteria might be found within the word, i.e. in its types of inflection, derivational suffixes, or other features; for example - s, - ance, -ity, -ism, etc. for nouns, singular or plural; -ly, etc. for adverbs; -ize, -ate, etc. for verbs; etc. (The weakness of this system has already been indicated)

(b) The criteria might be found outside the word, e.g. in its use in large structures such as phrases or sentences. This allows the use of the frame (the - is/are good) to indentify nouns, for example. Roberts (1955) in fact describes a noun as a word that can occupy the empty space in such a frame.

This is a very useful teaching device, and it is in accord with the findings of psychollinguists who, using the word association technique, have shown that 'the responses of adults and children above the age of seven or eight are predominantly paradigmatic. That is, their response to the stimulus word is of the same form class as that stimulus word' (c.f. Herriott 34-5, 82)

This guarantees that only a word belonging to the class of nouns, that has the grammatical properties of nouns, may be substituted in the space provided.

The only difficulty is that the determiner the complicates the choice of nouns; perseverance, for instance, cannot occupy the noun-determining slot in the frame above. For the frame to be useful for all classes of nouns it has to be restructured, using, for example, 'lexical props' (c.f. Crystal, 1967, p. 44) in place of specifying determiners or restrictive predicators: thus the frame may be either [*'such - and - such' is/are good*], or [*a/the - is/are 'such - and - such'*].

Otherwise an uncontrolled use of subsitution frames may have certain unwanted results, as Quirk has indicated:

> "The substitution test is something we all use in our work, consciously and explicitly, and it is beyond question a most powerful and valuable tool. But its formal character appears to have encouraged a belief that it can be applied mechanically and promiscuously at all levels of linguistic analysis with no fear of the results being other than structurally true,"

Such applications may, among other things 'involve the linguist in a proliferation of forms in a misleading guise of free variation, and obscure the necessary distinction between' the merely and marginally possible and the actually normal! (1968, pp. 161-2, 165).

As a practical way out of the problem of finding satisfactory criteria for classification, Gleason suggests the use of a joint definition exploiting the potentialities of the two possibilities he posited above. Gleason rules out the possibility of adequate definitions of the parts of speech, but insists that they can nevertheless be 'characterised'. That is, features can be listed by which, taken singly or in combination most words can be assigned to an appropriate part of speech. Occasional refractory cases may defy any such easy classification but the difficult cases are generally recognisable as such by the fact that they fit the characterisations in ambiguous or conflicting ways' (cf. the concept of gradience and serial relationship as defined and used by Quirk and his associates to determine 'bridge-classes'; this will however, not be gone into in this study because we are concerned with broader issues).

P. H. Mathews also advocates the joint use of criteria to achieve descriptive adequacy. He indicates that the parts of speech no longer

occupy the central position they did in traditional descriptions, and that as a grammar is increasingly thought of as a system of rules, or at least as a system of relations between categories, rather than as a system of categories alone, the definitions or descriptions of the various items need neither exhaust the lexicon nor be homogeneous. Indeed it seems most likely that they should be most heterogeneous!

A few lines later he adds: 'Furthermore, some definitions may be mixed in character; say, partly 'notional' and partly 'formal' or partly 'morphologic' and partly 'syntactic'!

This assessment of the problem is quite realistic, but an uncontrolled mixing of criteria as suggested by Mathews could complicate rather than help matters; its lack of rigour betrays the tendency for some grammarians to treat lexical units as though they belong to predetermined slots or cells. At one extreme, traditional grammarians concerned themselves largely with classifying units on taxonomic scales. At the other, generative grammarians tend to pre-occupy themselves with contructing syntactic structures and rules governing the entry of lexical units into mechanical slots. Neither seems to pay much attention to the significance of <u>context</u> in determining the characterisation of individual units or groups and their overall meanings. Contextual features should be taken account of first before proceeding to syntactic analysis. In other words, the internal organisation of words in a series of utterances and the impact of the environment (semantic and extralinguistic) should be decisive in constructing any general theory. We should begin with words as used within particular contexts and characterise them on the basis of their behaviour in such

contexts. The observation of actual usage should precede analysis, not the reverse. Starting with rules and then turning to usage to provide convenient examples, often idiosyncratic, has the disadvantage of making the analysis mechanical and the output artificial or idealised.

This is the more so in cases where a word may have varied usages and hence varied meanings. Jespersen, for instance, expresses the rather curious view that the distinction between word-classes "is not obliterated in English" by this ability of a word to behave differently, "for in each particular combination the form concerned belongs decidedly to one class only, but the form should not be looked at in isolation" (p.71).

For one thing, the statement is contradictory. If the word 'belongs decidedly to one class only' there is no reason why it cannot stand being 'looked at in isolation'. For another, it is inconceivable how a word can have 'regular' as well as 'temporary' roles in a language. Jespersen's distinction between primary, secondary and tertiary functions of words is invalidated by his failure to treat homophones as words having parallel or independent values even though "the context shows in most cases unmistakably what part of speech is meant". He writes:

> "In this way we may even have three words of the same form derived from one another. Thus 'smoke' is first a substantive (the <u>smoke</u>) then a verb(he <u>smokes</u> a pipe), and finally a new substantive formed from the verb in the last sense (he likes a <u>smoke</u> after dinner)"

In the same way gossip, originally meaning 'godf ather' has come to mean 'an idle talker', from which a verb meaning 'to talk idly' ha
(~~the~~ substantive meaning 'idle talk' is formed.

The apparent circularity of this description stems from the notion that the substantive is the starting point of all semantic and formal variations - from nouns to verbs, to adjectives, then to adverbs, in order of significance on a normative scale.

But there is no apriori reason why we should not start with the use of items as verbs or adverbs and then work our way up or down the scale to nouns and adjectives if such an approach is empirically sound.

> John Lyons advocates the use of transformational schema in determining the word-classes of a language. 'It may be taken for granted that any general theory of the parts of speech which is intended to apply to more than a narrow selection of the world's languages must give explicit recognition to the distinction between deep and surface structure and must define the parts of speech not as classes of words in surface structure but as deep structure constituents of sentences'.

He goes on to demonstrate that for English, one can isolate classes - e.g. nouns, verbs (transitive and intransitive) and adjectives, and functions, e.g. subjects and predicates, in this way (1969, pp. 320-2).

Lyons, however, contends that 'formal' definitions (i.e. definitions based on syntactic criteria) need not conflict with 'notional' ones. On the contrary he feels that the circularity of traditional definitions can be remedied or overcome by marrying formal and notional elements in the language, viz; formal elements should be used to determine class

(been derived and from which verb a 'new'

membership - only words having a similar distribution and function may be members of a designated class. Notional elements, on the other hand, should form criteria for naming the class. That is, if the vast majority of the members of a class of lexical items commonly share certain characteristics of reference, say, denote certain categories of 'persons', 'places' or 'things', etc., then that class may be given a name reflecting those characteristics. Hence nouns are appropriately called 'nouns' because they denote places, persons or things; and adverbs are appropriately called 'adverbs' because of their connection with verbs in general, etc.

Thus in order to achieve a compromise Lyons is prepared to throw overboard lexical items which do not fit in, which are 'irregular' or blend into other categories (cf. 1.3.1. above).

As far as I am aware no one has yet given a satisfactory answer to the problem of overlapping categories, items which cannot be said to belong to any single category but which are connected in meaning. For example,

(i) It's a good buy cf. Buy me a newspaper.
(ii) It's good radio, cf, He has a good radio,
(iii) It's a good read,
(iv) It's good theatre, cf. I went to a good theatre,
(v) Give me a ring. Ring me when you can.

Or such pairs as run/run, cut/cut, man/man, etc. already mentioned in 1.2.1. Crystal has discussed at length the problem of 'homophones' and other forms of overlapping(1967, pp. 47-9). He came up with a somewhat inconclusive, but perhaps the only practical answer to this vexed question:

he suggests reliance on their occurrence in two or more structurally dissimilar contexts.

This brief survey of scholarly opinion reinforces the view already expressed that whatever method one adopts in classifying the words of a language it is bound to be inadequate or arbitrary in some places. Hence one can at best justify one's choice of criteria only on empirical grounds. It seems reasonable, in selecting and ordering our criteria, to regard syntactic criteria as superior to morphological ones, and to use semantic and/or notional criteria where relevant to relate the one to the other. In practice this means tying up form and grammatical function, but starting with form because it is procedurally sound - it makes the switch to syntactic description easier.

This scheme however is likely to be most helpful in identifying the basic classes of the language only. In this study consideration of the function of adverbial adjuncts has been allowed to precede treatment of their form in order to demonstrate that the later derives from the former.

CHAPTER 2

Problem of Identity

2.0 First, it is instructive to begin with a few quotations:

a. "An adverb is a part of speech joined to a verb, an adjective, and sometimes to another adverb, to express some quality or circumstance respecting it: as, He reads well; He writes very correctly. A truly good man." (Murray 1813)

b. "An adverb, as indicated by its literal meaning joined to a verb, is an appositive to a verb, i.e. is placed before or after a verb to explain its meaning in the case at hand more clearly, much as an adjective as an appositive is placed before or after a noun to explain it: The girl is improving remarkably: The same form is used as an appositive to an adjective or another adverb and here is also called an adverb, although of course it is here not true to its name: The girl is remarkably beautiful: The girl is improving remarkably fast.
An adverb, however, modifies not only thus a single word, but often also a prepositional phrase, a subordinate clause or an independent statement as a whole: He has travelled entirely around the world: 'I arrived soon after it happened: 'I did it only because I felt it to be my duty':" (Curme 1953).

c. "The adverb is a good example of the over-inclusiveness of the traditional classes. It is defined in grammar books as a word that modifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb. Yet one can easily find adverbs that fit one form of the modification and not others." (Bolinger 1968).

d. "An excellent example of a traditional category that does not fit well in English...
The difficulty from the linguist's point of view, then is not in the form of the definition, but in the fact that there is no homogeneous group of words which fits the definition. The traditional adverbs are a miscellaneous lot, having very little if anything in common. Some fit part of the definition but not other parts. Some fit the whole definition but far exceed its limits." (Gleason 1965).

e. ".....no one scheme of sub-dividing adverbs ties in with any other. No presentation is likely to be altogether clear, straight-forward, comprehensive and free from repetition, but the most promising way of dealing with the related phenomena seems to be to take them as a whole and classify them in various ways - like cutting a cake horizontally and then vertically." (B. Strang 1969).

Such a bewildering divergence of opinion is characteristic of most statements about adverbial usage. Its negative tone tends to discourage fresh efforts, or at best to serve as a warning against expecting too much from any 'new' approach to the special problems of this rather intractable yet fascinating wordclass. Part of the difficulty in dealing with adverbs arises from the tendency for grammarians to account for them in the same way as they would the other English word-classes. It is necessary, however, to determine what uniquely distinguishes adverbs from other classes, in particular from nouns, verbs and adjectives, and whether such factors which justify constituting adverbs as a primary form class in any way resemble grounds on which other classes have been categorised.

2.1 All the quotations above suggest that the adverb, as a complex word-class, does more than just modify verbs, a grammatical function which its name attributes to it and which is often regarded as its raison detre, viz:

1. The weather has worsened considerably.
2. The demand far exceeds the supply, in which considerably may be said to modify worsened, and far to intensify exceeds.

3.

An adverb may also modify adjectives:

3. She is surprisingly intelligent.
4. The paper was much tougher than expected.
5. I'm awfully sorry.

An adverb is unique in its ability to modify itself:

6. They behaved incredibly decently.
7. The Government acted rather rashly.
8. That is nearly always the case.

An adverb can modify a noun as well:

9. He read underground literature.
10. It is kept in the office upstairs.

Adverbs modify not only single words or classes but also whole sentences (c.f. Curme above).

11. Luckily, she did not drown.
12. Seriously, I see no point in discussing the matter further.
13. The report, naturally, is dull and uninspiring.
14. This, to say the least, is intolerable!

We can use the technique of paraphrase[1] to establish the connection between the adverbs underlined in 11-13 and the rest of the sentence:

/11/ may be paraphrased - 'she is lucky that she did not drown' or 'we are/I am lucky that she.....

/12/ may be paraphrased,

'Seriously speaking, I see no....

or, 'If I may speak seriously, I see no .....'

/13/ is ambiguous, and may be paraphrased either as

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1 c.f. ch. 4 of this dissertation where paraphrasing is used extensively to establish correspondences, following Greenbaum.

(a) 'The report, as it is natural to expect, is dull and un-inspiring, or

(b) 'By virtue of its subject matter, the report is dull and uninspiring', or simply

(c) 'It is natural that the report is dull and uninspiring.'

In [14] to say the least is taken to be an adverbial phrase modifying the whole sentence because it refers to the manner in which the whole utterance is made, as well as to the speaker's attitude to what he is saying.

An adverb can also function as the anaphoric substitute for a temporal adverbial phrase occurring in a previous sentence.

15. They used to live on trees. They had no homes then. Then here means 'at that time' or 'in those days' implied in the first sentence.

Adverbs in addition premodify certain participle forms: e.g. 'tight-fitting trousers', 'deep-set eyes', 'a new-born baby'. Such forms are often interchangeable with adverbial forms with -ly suffix:

16. She wears a tightly-fitting bra.
17. His eyes are deeply set.
18. I admire their newly-born baby.
19. They are a newly-married couple.

Finally an adverb can be used not only to modify single words and whole sentences, but also to 'intensify what might be otherwise pale, colourless, unemphatic'. (Darbyshire, p. 136). Thus in

20. He came right into the room.
21. He ignored even his mother.

ritht and even respectively intensify the 'semantic effect' of the phrases following them.

In terms of function therefore, the adverb may be said to be capable of modifying almost any content-word in the language. The traditional definition of the word class as cited above is undoubtedly inadequate (cf. Gleason's and Bolinger's comments) and the name of the class itself is most inaccurate. Its over-inclusiveness is partly responsible for much of the difficulty encountered in analysing adverbs. In actual fact they have very little in common except for the kind of overlapping relationships which are not peculiar to them but which apply to all the content - containing words[1] in the language. In other words, the language being a whole, breaks up into parts and sub-parts with a series of interlocking relations at various levels.

There is thus no rhyme or reason in giving such a 'miscellaneous lot' a common name. But we shall follow the example of our predecessors in retaining the class name for lack of a better word, though keeping in mind its shortcomings. Barbara Strang appropriately speaks of the 'spectrum of adverbs' for under them we are dealing not with a class of items in the ordinary sense of the word, but with different groups of items, each large enough to be interpreted syntactically and semantically as a separate class - though, naturally (as said above) related to one another in some ways.

2.2. In interpreting adverbs definitions are not very helpful. Several attempts, including Jacobsen's, which Strang considers the most comprehensive, are doomed right from the start because of the normative

1 Adapted from Bolinger (1968).

assumptions that underlie them.

Jacobsen defines adverbs as

> 'words used as modifiers of sentences and clauses, adjectivals, verbals, adverbials and in certain cases nominals and functionals; as complements, of the copula be and verbals; and as referents calling attention to all kinds of words and word groups. In addition many adverbs are used as sequence-signals. This last function is always mixed with other functions, whereas the first three can be either pure or mixed.'

This is an attempt to give a functional, all-inclusive definition and as Jacobsen himself admits it 'requires too much explanation'! The length and complexity of it reflect the size and complexity of the problem he is trying to grapple with. One gets from this definition an impression of adverbs as a versatile multi-functional word class, but the factors which enable them to do so are unfortunately left unexplained.

In order to gain some insight into this question we must take certain steps in our analysis.

2.3. The first is to determine the primary function of adverbs.

There seems to be little or no doubt in the minds of all those who have examined the problem of adverbs that their main function is to modify other words or groups of words. This is reflected in the traditional definition of the adverb as indicated in Curme and in Jacobsen above, and in the lexical meaning of the term adverb (= 'attached to and modifying a verb' Lyons, p. 235).

The adverb is primarily a modifier. This is what relates it to other English word-classes. That is, it is a word attached to another to amplify or qualify it. It is thus subordinate to the matrix word.

In such instances adverbs are not obligatory in the basic structure of a simple declarative sentence S V C (A) cf.

22. He ate his food (greedily)
S V C optional adjunct

23. He read the letter (carefully)

24. They like it (very much)

25. The case will be (urgently) considered.

In each case the items in brackets can be omitted without making the sentence ungrammatical. This suggests that the essence of adverbial usage is not merely grammatical. Adverbs are introduced (often consciously) into the sentence in order to achieve greater accuracy or effect. This purposive aspect of adverbial usage will be considered in greater detail later.

2.3.1. Note, however, that there are important exceptions in which an adverbial particle is necessary to complete the meaning of a certain class of verbs or phrases, variously called 'two-word' verbs, phrasal verbs, prepositional verbs[1] or prepositional phrases with adverbial force[2], as in

26. He put it (in his pocket
(on the table

27. He put out the light

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1. B. Strang, pp. 177-80.

2. Chomsky - Aspects, pp. 101-3.

28. She went away
29. He lives in the country/at home
30. I'll stand by you
31. You can rely on him
32. Turn off the light, please
33. It stands in the corner
34. He likes to lie on the sofa

There are important exceptions, but exceptions which seem rather to prove the rule, for they do not invalidate our hypothesis. The items underlined are 'adverb-like' or adverbial only by virtue of the fact that they can occupy similar positions as adverbs. The two forms are established on different grounds because they are quite different. There is difficulty in determing which word each particle is syntactically and semantically related to, the verb or object. This is not the case with the majority of adverbs established on derivational grounds[1]. (cf. definition of derivation in 3.0.)

2.4. We can then go on to suggest that what distinguishes adverbs from nouns and verbs, and to some extent adjectives, is basically the fact that the last three are obligatory in the constituent structure of a grammatical sentence, while adverbs often are not. This fact was partly the reason why earlier grammarians (e.g. Plato) isolated only nouns and verbs and regarded the remaining elements as function-words or functors; and it presumably underlies the view now held by some modern

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1 cf Christophersen and Sandved.

grammarians, especially those belonging to the transformational-generative school, that adjectives and verbs have the same deep structure representation - hence the tendency to regard them as verbals plus or minus. In other words the feature (+ verbal) specifies that an item is a verb in the matrix sentence; and the feature (- verbal) specifies that it is an adjective.[2]

A pragmatic, perhaps pedagogically rewarding, answer to the problem is to regard both adjectives and adverbs as 'function-classes' (as distinct from 'function words') on the ground that they can be defined only in terms of their actual grammatical function as modifiers of other word-classes in the sentence; whereas nouns and verbs have both grammatical function as well as distinct lexical meaning; or to borrow a term from Kramsky, adverbs and adjectives have "actual" meaning only; nouns and verbs have 'actual' as well as "potential" meaning[1]. (p., 47-8).

2.5. The affinity between adverbs and adjectives is no mere coincidence. The transformational relationship between adjectives and manner adverbs, the commonest members of the adverbial group, can easily be demonstrated. Consider,

35. Mary is a graceful dancer
36. Mary dances gracefully

36 is transformationally parallel to 37 because the one generates the other.

I cf. Jacobs & Rosambaum; Lyons, 435-40; also Darbyshire for 'lexemes' and 'Functors'.

2 Jiri Kramsky - The word as a linguistic unit (Mouton, 1969), p.47-8, for distinction between actual and potential meaning of a word.

For this reason Lyons suggests that graceful and gracefully (like beautiful and beautifully in his example) should be regarded as "contextually - determined variants of the same part of speech" (p. 327) (cf. Quirk, 1968a, p. 216).

2.6. But there is one sense in which adjectives differ from adverbs and seem to be related to verbs. This is in their ability to function as predicators.

In the phrase a good man, good occupies the slot normally assigned to adjectives. Presumably it is on the basis of their ability to occupy this position that adjectives have conventionally been defined as 'qualifiers' of noun phrases. But there is good reason to suppose that good in 'a good man' indicates that a reduction transformation has been performed on an underlying sentence The man is good. Such operation, or nominalisation as it is now commonly called, may be said to apply to most adjectives modifying nouns or noun phrases on the surface structure. This leads us to assume that adjectives are essentially predicators, or by transformation, modifiers[1]. (But note that the transformation does not affect meaning: the nominalised phrase has the same meaning as the original/underlying sentence).

Adjectives are generally more easily distinguished if they can appear in the predicate phrase of an underlying sentence as in The man is good above. Adverbs do at times function as predicators, as in,

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1 cf. Hathaway p.62 (+ Lyons, 1969, p. 322) but which use of adjectives is more regular a matter of opinion. Moreover, not all adjectives have the structure (adj. + nominal structure) = (Nom. structure is adj.) e.g. driving licence, etc.

37. She is upstairs (= that is where she is)
38. The results are out (where out = have been released) + 'out' for everyone to see.

But as regards their function as modifiers of other words, including members of their own class, there is no divergence of opinion among linguists. (The divergence seems to relate to the scope and significance of the modification.) Yet as modifiers are essentially adjunctive, they have no place or largely only a peripheral one if any, in the basic pattern SVC or SVO of a simple declarative sentence. And as adverbs are modifiers per se they have no obligatory slot in the structure of such a sentence. For all practical purposes therefore adverbs should be treated as adjunctive modifiers in a sentence[2], tautologous though it may sound; this fits in with the grammatical and lexical meaning of 'adjunct' defined in the Oxford English Dictionary as

> "something joined to another, but subordinate, as auxiliary, or dependent upon it."

and in Mario Pei, Glossary of Linguistic Terminology as " a modifier; a word or word-group that qualifies, amplifies, or completes the meaning of another word or word-group, but is not itself one of the chief

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2 The same applies where adverbs serve as linkers or conjuncts. One can argue that such items have both semantic and grammatical function. In each case they are introduced to serve a particular purpose. Adjunctive and conjunctive uses may be distinguished, however, because their force is different. But as we are concerned mainly with adjunctive uses of adverbs we do not have to describe conjunctive adverbs in detail.

structural elements in the sentence.

An adjunct can only be an adverb in the light of the distinctions between adverbs and adjectives that we have made above. Their nature and function as adjunct is what in addition, distinguishes adverbs from, as well as relates them to, nouns and verbs.

This is the hypothesis on which adverbs will be treated in this study. They may for convenience of analysis and in conformity with tradition be included among the major word-classes of English, but on clearly different grounds.

urgent + -ly	urgently
time + -ly	timely
affectionate + -ly	affectionately
amusing + -ly	amusingly, etc.

but such a process is not mechanical. The new word, or derivative, usually acquires a new grammatical function and thus a new meaning different from that of its derivant.

The suffix -ly therefore is a derivational morpheme (or a 'source morpheme' according to Bolinger, p. 58f) which converts one word into an adverb, which adds the semantic feature (+ adverbiality) to the derivative.

The presence of this feature enables us, among other things, to establish correspondence relationships between adverbs in particular positions and contexts. Thus strangely in 'He shouted strangely', may be paraphrased, 'He shouted in a strange manner' whilst strangely in 'strangely, he shouted' may only be paraphrased: 'It is strange that he shouted'.

Thus strangely is used in two different senses here, yet because it has the feature (+ adverbiality) inherent in it, its paraphrase 'retains at least part of (its) morphemic identity' (Greenbaum, 1969 p. 7 - we shall have more to say about correspondences later on)

3.1. Let us now discuss in some detail the processes involved in the derivation of adverbs[2].

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2 This section depends heavily on the work of Knud Schibsbye.

In 2.5 and 3.0 above the point was briefly made that most adverbs are formed from adjectives simply by adding' -ly' to the adjective stem of the word, e.g. right/rightly, serious/seriously, nice/nicely, light/lightly, wilful/wilfully, sagacious/sagaciously, conventional/conventionally, etc.

The same process applies to stative adjectives: farsighted/farsightedly, excited/excitedly; heavyhandedly, half-heartedly, narrow-mindedly, etc.

Some nouns undergo the same process: night/nightly, late/lately - but markerless forms are more widely used in spoken English.

Other regular formations include the affixing of -ly to participial forms: interestingly, amusingly, annoyingly, surprisingly; and to adjectives ending in -al, e.g. nasally, annually, casually.

Other instances of adverb-formation involve considerable orthographic changes. Thus in the case of adjectives ending in -y; tidy, easy, funny, steady, pretty, happy, merry, etc, the adverb is formed with -ily if the -y follows as consonant, viz. tidily, easily, funnily, steadily, prettily, happily, merrily, etc. But after a vowel the -y is retained, as in the rare case of coyly.

There are a number of words which do not form adverbs in this way, however, for instance, gay/gaily, shy/shyly, sly/slyly, dry/dryly, day/daily. Other changes include (1) the dropping of -e in due, true to drive duly; truly; (2) replacing -le with syllabic value in such adjectives as noble, possible, simple, terrible, by -ly to derive nobly, simply, terribly, possibly, etc., losing its syllabicity in the process.

For adjectives ending in -ul, only -ly is added: beautiful/ beautifully, careful/carefully, faithful/faithfully, resentful/ resentfully, etc. Exceptions are some adjectives ending in -ll which, however form corresponding adverbs in the same way; for instance, dull - dully, full - fully. Finally, adjectives in -ic commonly generate adverbs in -ally:-

majestically, systematically, ironically, etc.

An important exception is publicly.

3.2. But even though -ly is the commonest adverb-forming suffix, it is not the only one. A relatively new suffix - wise is gaining ground as an alternative to -ly, especially in those instances where the corresponding adverb cannot be derived by adding -ly to the basic word, e.g. money-wise, marriage-wise, ability-wise, etc., -wise in each case meaning roughly 'as it affects .....'

There are cases in colloquial usage where the -wise form is preferred, even where a regular adverb in -ly, or its corresponding adverbial phrase, is acceptable, because it sounds 'progressive' or impressive:

> 'The book is syntactically adequate' = the book is adequate in matters connected with syntax, i.e. 'syntax-wise'.

Ernest Pulgram illustrates the tendency fully and explicityly:

> 'Our business is in trouble budget-wise', admitted the secretary-treasurer. 'We are discriminated against justice-wise', complained the leader of the minority. 'Progress-wise this has been very effective legislation', boasted the politician. 'The report is adequate content-wise', agreed the teacher, 'but not language-wise'. 'The season is in a mess theatre-wise' lamented the critic.....'

Pulgram claims that these constructs, in which a noun is turned into an adverb by adding -wise to its stem, come from 'actually heard examples' in colloquial American English; and as they are steadily gaining ground, he forecasts that, substandard though some of them are at the moment, -wise forms will with time gain acceptance in the same way as -ly forms have long been accepted as adverb-deriving suffixes.

The tendency has been operative in English, however. It is reflected in such words as clock-wise, length-wise, coast-wise, and in this century in such words as syntax-wise and money-wise (above). But its important present effect, according to Pulgram, is that it renders open-ended a group of words that used to be a closed list.

Deriving adverbs in this way has a further advantage: it 'potentially increases the available stock of adverbs by the number of nouns in the language'.

3.2.1. Another suffix used in the derivation of certain adverbs, place-adverbs, is -s, e.g. backwards, forwards, upwards, downwards, especially when they modify verbs of motion: move backwards and forwards; rise upwards; fall downwards, etc.

Here it is instructive to note that there are adjectives ending in -ly also: goodly, kindly, friendly, likely, whose corresponding adverbs can only be phrases of the form: "in a ... manner"; though goodly and likely are only marginally acceptable in this frame.

Note also that there are markerless adverbs: fast, slow (as 'go slow') hard (e.g. 'works hard') -hardly = scarcely (as in 'he hardly works', though quite rare).

Finally some adverbs can be compared in the same way as adjectives, i.e. they take comparative and superlative degree morphemes er/est. For example,

He arrives soon
He arrived sooner
The one who finishes the soonest will get a prize.
I am fast.
You run faster.
We are the fastest guys in town.

But as there are only a handful of adverbs which behave in this way, i.e. take the er/est comparative suffixes, and as adverbs generally do not inflect for tense, person, gender or number, they cannot be defined inflectionally, unlike the other word-classes (nouns, verbs and adjectives).

There are instances when adjectives or adjective phrases may be used adverbially; that is, they may have adverbial force when they are prefixed to certain participle forms, e.g.

a tight-fitting blouse
deep-set eyes
a new-born baby
a new-married couple
home-made jam, etc.

Some of these seem to have the same meaning as corresponding adverbial forms ending in -ly:

c.f. examples 16-19, p. 23f. above:

16. She wears a tightly fitting bra
17. His eyes are deeply set.
18. I admire their newly-born baby.
19. They are a newly-married couple.

The adverbial forms are, however, less commonly used in ordinary speech.

Clearly the form of all the adverbs we have been considering is restricted largely by the words they modify - a further evidence to support the hypothesis that adverbs as adjuncts are not only optional in sentence structure but also that the derivatives themselves have no independent existence outside the sentence.

3.4. However, there are forms that exist independently, that is, they are not derived from any other structures. For instance,

out, after, back, down, just, there, then, along, apart, so, around, early, here, in enough, yet, too, now, soon, not, on,

often, right, seldom, through, up, very, much, far, close, once, well, therefore, nevertheless, thus, moreover, etc. (The list is not intended to be exhaustive.)

There is nothing in the form of these items which characterises them commonly as members of one wordclass. But they can be used in such a way as to have the feature (+ adverbiality) added to their meaning. In other words, they may function in the same way as or in place of adverbs, as generic substitutes (to borrow a term from Strang). They are better designated adverbials to distinguish them from what we would like to call adverbs; that is, words which have the force of adverbs, and which have been derived through the affixation of the derivational suffix (-ly) to the stem of a basic word (c.f. Christophersen and Sandved, p. 60).

Such a distinction is in keeping with Gleason's ideal of 'maximum homogeneity' as a criterion for classifying adverbs and other word groups. '-ly' adverbs are homogeneous in respect of their derivation and distribution. The rest can only be characterised distributionally. They are adverbial or 'adverb-like' (c.f. 2.3.1. above).

We can then go on to consider the processes by which adverbs may be sub-classified. But whether in distinguishing adverbs from other word-classes in English, or in sub-classifying sets of adverbial adjuncts, we must bear in mind Jespersen's warning that 'in order to find out what class a word belongs to it is not enough to consider its form in itself; what is decisive is the way in which the word in connected speech

behaves towards other words, and in which other words behave towards it' (1933 section 7.7; also mentioned by Crystal 1967, p. 27).

CHAPTER 4

SUBCLASSES OF ADVERBS

4.0. For the purpose of sub-classifying adverbs it is necessary to tie up their semantic with their formal and syntactic properties (but noting that their formal properties are relevant here only in so far as they influence the latter). In this way we can avoid setting up lists of notional functions devoid of meaning[1], or of meanings based more on logic than on grammar.

The point has already been made that adverbs cannot be isolated or classified inflectionally (3.2.1. above); for only a handful of adverbs are affected by changes in the form of the word or words they modify, or changes in their surrounding context. Also a positional classification of adverbs which does no more than tell us that they can occur in certain positions in the sentence - e.g. initial position, pre-verbal or post-verbal position, and end - position - is worthless unless it relates such changes of position to possible changes of meaning or significance; and ideally to the properties inherent in adverbs which enable them to behave that way, and which enable speakers to exploit them for purposes of communication.

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1 C.f. Treble & Vallins p. 12: 'The adverb modifies (1) a verb: 'And Agag came unto him delicately.' 'There lay Dun can.' 'Now sleeps the crimson petal; (2) an adjective: Too deep for tears; You are very kind; and an adverb: Yours very faithfully; 'His sceptre so fantastically borne; He behaved extraordinarily badly towards me. (Note the archaicness of examples.)

In other words, one must avoid the temptation to sub-classify adverbs on the basis of what merely seems to be analytically convenient or pedagogically expedient. Such a scheme, and this applies to the other word-classes, may in the long run prove to be self-defeating: the learner only gets more confused by having to integrate unassisted abstract classes fragmented according to form, meaning and function. By approaching the problem from the viewpoint of current usage, giving primacy to the speaker's intentions as reflected in his choice and ordering of words, and to language as a means of communication, we can easily, and safely, harmonise the semantic force of adverbs with their syntactic features whenever such features help to reinforce the distinctions we want to make.

4.1. By virtue of their extreme mobility many adverbs acquire new meaning or function with every change of position. That is, many adverbs have homonymous[1] forms; for example,

1.1 Strangely, he answered the questions.
1.2 He answered the questions strangely.
1.3 He strangely answered the questions.
2.1 Naturally, he walked.
2.2 He walked naturally.
2.3 He walked with a naturally proud air.

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1 For distinction between homonymy and polysemy as they apply to adverbs c.f. Greenbaum pp. 4-8.

3.1 He enjoyed the film, though.
3.2 He is therefore rather unhappy.
3.3 Moreover, they refused to pay his debts.

Citations 1 and 2[2] exemplify the different ways and senses in which strangely and naturally can be used. The differences in meaning produced by their ability to occupy various positions can be intuitively established by paraphrasing. Thus

1.1 may be paraphrased 'It is strange that he.....'
Strangely in 1.2 may be replaced by '..... in a strange manner'.

Thus 1.1 and 1.2 may be said to differ syntactically and semantically. 1.1 relates the speaker's observation or attitude; whereas 1.2 relates to the manner in which the act of answering was made.

Strangely in 1.3 is ambiguous between the two senses of strangely in 1.1 and 1.2; that is, it refers to the fact that the questions were answered in a strange manner/way, and simultaneously to the fact that the strangeness of the answering was perceived by the speaker/reporter himself.

The same may be said to apply to the interpretation of the meanings of naturally in 2:

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2 Taken from Greenbaum (1969) and Quirk (1968b).

Therefore in 3.2 has what Greenbaum terms an illative function indicating that 'what is being said is a consequence or result of what has been said before'. It includes thus, hence, accordingly, now, etc.

Moreover in 3.3, on the other hand, implies that 'the new point being made reinforces what has already been said'. More, further, and furthermore function in the same way. They all have a transitional function.

An overall look at these items, and others which function like them, reveals that they all serve to establish a link, syntactic and semantic, between one sentence and another, between one assertion and a previous one. Therefore it is possible to distinguish between the set of items represented by moreover, though and therefore, and the set of items represented by strangely and naturally. The former are different lexical items but with similar syntactic and semantic roles. The latter are each related drivationally - they are also syntactically mobile; but as they each acquire a new meaning or significance with every change of position they should be regarded as separate lexical items or syntactic homonyms in each new position.

It is in respect of the observable differences in the meanings and functions of the two sets of items above, and in the still further variation in the meanings of the set represented by strangely and naturally, that Greenbaum classifies adverbs into adjuncts, conjuncts and disjuncts. He formulates three diagnostic criteria to test their behaviour:

1. Unacceptability in initial position in an independent tone unit with a rising, falling-rising, or level nuclear tone when the clause is negated.

   4. Always# he didn't take me by surprise. c.f. Incidentally.

2. Ability to serve as the focus of clause interrogation as demonstrated by its ability to be contrasted with another focus in alternative interrogation.

   5. Did he reply to them politely or did he reply to them rudely?

3. Ability to serve as the focus of clause negation, as demonstrated by its ability to be contrasted with another focus in alternative negation.

   6. He did not always reply politely, but he did reply politely sometimes.

Accordingly an adverb that satisfies at least one of these criteria is regarded by Greenbaum to have an 'adjunctive' function in the clause, and the adverb is said to be the Adjunct of the clause.

On the other hand, adverbs which do not satisfy these criteria are not adjuncts. Consider, for example, the functions of briefly, probably, again, however and now in the following citations (taken from Greenbaum p. 16).

7. Briefly, India faces famine because there are too many people and too little food.
8. He'd probably enjoy it.
9. Again, the Holy Spirit bears His testimony in and through the word of the Church.....
10. However, the analogy is helpful.....
11. M.P.s will now have to wait until next year for any rise in their salaries.

Greenbaum argues that (and I quote him at length) 'semantically briefly in 7 and probably in 8 express an evaluation of what is being said with respect either to the form of the communication or to its content. On the other hand, again, however and now express some connection with what has been said before. By analogy with the terms 'adjunctive' and 'adjuncts', the class of items represented by briefly and probably is said to have a 'disjunctive' function and the items are designated DISJUNCTS (a term suggesting their lack of integration within the clause to which they are subordinate), while the class of items represented by again, however and now is said to have a 'conjunctive' function and the items are termed CONJUNCTS. Though, moreover, and therefore in 3 above are similarly conjuncts.

Both disjuncts and conjuncts may be said to stand in complementary opposition to adjuncts because they satisfy the corollary to the three diagnostic criteria on which adjuncts have been isolated above.

Disjuncts may be differentiated from conjuncts by applying a simple test: 'disjuncts can serve as a response to a yes-no question, though sometimes they require to be accompanied by yes or no; conjuncts cannot serve as a response to a yes-no question even if accompanied by yes or no: Thus briefly satisfies this test,

Does India face famine? Briefly, yes.

However as a conjunct cannot serve as a response:

Is analogy helpful? *However, yes.

4.2. Greenbaum's terms (adjuncts, conjuncts and disjuncts) are apparently meant to refer to semantic but not grammatical categories; ~~in which~~ they represent semantic units specially set up for making purely semantic statements. He implicitly follows Leech's 'autonomy of levels' principle by which syntax is placed at the service of semantics. Hence his rejection of such terms as 'sentence modifiers' or sentence adverbials' because as units identified in the grammar they would render semantic statements made about them merely interpretative (Leech 1969b, p. 28).

I think a synthesis of the approaches is possible, and, indeed desirable, for such a synthesis would ideally reflect the simultaneity with which semantic, grammatical and other features combine together to suggest the meaning of a word. If I may quote him out of context, Professor Quirk has asserted that 'words are related both by grammar and collocation (and) that both grammatical analogy and semantic analogy operate when we use language' (Quirk, 1970).

I shall use the term 'sentence adverbs' (adapted from Schreiber - c.f. 4.5.1 below) to refer to all adverbs optionally introduced into the sentence structure - and therefore omissible without making the sentence ungrammatical or semantically incomplete - and having an inter-sentential or intra-sentential relational role. They should be distinguished from word-modifying adjuncts which only modify or focus single items.

4.3. Having distinguished his three major sub-classes, Greenbaum goes on to sub-divide Adjuncts into Intensifiers and Manner Adjuncts; and disjuncts into Style and Attitudinal disjuncts[1].

It is here that there is considerable overlapping among the sub-classes, making it extremely difficult to set up coherent syntactic and semantic rules to distinguish them individually. A synthesis along lines suggested in 4.2 and as explored later on may be the only reasonable answer to the problem. Greenbaum's scheme is faulty because it does not completely harmonise the semantic with the syntactic in adverbial usage.

4.3.1. The distinction between intensifiers and manner adjuncts is a distinction between two homonyms of the same part of speech made possible by its ability to occupy different positions, and by the change of meaning that this brings about.

For Greenbaum an intensifier is an adverb that may be placed before the verb and which, semantically, has 'some heightening effect on the force of the verb' (1969, p. 23).

According to this definition intensifiers collocate only with verbs and usually precede them - his own examples suggest this. How then are we to interpret items in citations such as 12-14 below:

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1 Greenbaum also sub-classifies conjuncts into eight semantic classes: listing, transitional, summative, explicatory, contrastive, illative, inferential, and temporal transitional. At the same time he distinguishes those of them that are mobile from those that are not. But on the whole they establish some sort of syntactic and semantic link between two parts of an utterance, and they are generally easily identifiable. No detailed consideration of them will be given in this study, however, as they lie outside our area of reference. C.f. Christophersen and Sandved's clause connectors, subordinators, and conjunctions pp. 82-88.

12. 'At this point the fable takes a black and decidedly macabre turn.....'

13. 'It's a moral - and political - tale and a thinly veiled one at that.....'

14. 'The book is calculatedly episodic.....'

For one thing the items underlined premodify adjectives, or words with the force of adjectives, e.g. veiled in 13. For another, they too seem to have a 'heightening effect' on the force of the adjectives following them.

Calculatedly in 14, for example, not only focusses the adjective; it suggests the manner in which the tale is 'episodic', that is, it implies the intervention of a human agent to make it so.

Decidedely in 11. is in addition partially evaluative, synonymous with incontestably: its force is determined by the details put into it by the narrator and/or by the reviewer as he perceived them.

Ambiguity as demonstrated in the use of decidedly in 11. and calculatedly in 14. is similarly apparent in the function of patiently, irritably, absently in 15 below:

15. 'Adults usually qualify their their why questions. We ask "why did you do it?" "why shouldn't I?" But at two and three and sometimes at four, unembellished stark "whys" lard the conversation. Patiently, irritably, absently, mothers all over the wordl answer. We all know you must answer children's questions honestly, but how do you honestly answer a question phrased so that you have little idea what is being asked?' (The Times 2/12/70, bottom - p. 8)

These adverbs would normally be placed in a post-verbal position, i.e. after answer in this example. Their function would then be to express the manner in which the answering was made. The effect of their inversion, however, is to focus the items themselves and make them ambiguous between manner adjuncts and intensifiers. One could argue that part of their great effect on the sentence is achieved through this ambiguity in the meaning of the adverbs[1].

Perhaps the clearest distinction between a manner adjunct and its homonymous intensifier is provided in the purposive use of honestly in the closing sentence of citation 15:

> We all know you must answer children's questions honestly, but how do you honestly answer a question phrased so that you have no idea what is being asked?

The two uses of honestly are interesting both syntactically and stylistically: the speaker/writer is no doubt aware of the semantic significance of inverting or varying the normal order of words.

Another instance of a clever, perhaps deliberately substandard use of adjuncts to persuade was observed in an advertisement on the students' notice board:

> 16. 'SPARE TIME CASH FOR GIRL STUDENTS.
> Honestly, morally, easily, and it's very interesting.
> Sell high-class cosmetics on commission.'

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1 For a discussion of the stylistic value of ambiguity, especially in literature, see Louis B. Salomon p. 36, 121.

But consider 17 and 18:

17. The whole thing is surprisingly wordy.
18. The whole thing is wordy, surprisingly.

The two sentences are not synonymous. 17. focusses as well as intensifies the adjective; 18. represents pure evaluation. The latter may be paraphrased 'It's surprising that.....' or 'I'm surprised that the whole thing is wordy.' The former may be paraphrased only by 'The whole thing is wordy in a surprising (=amazing) sort of way.' Or, ''t's wordiness is such that it surprises me.'

The difficulty in delineating the exact relationship of an adverb to the rest of the sentence is further highlighted in the following citation:

19. 'To caricature a person, emphasize his most dominant feature; to caricature a nation emphasize its most fervent preoccupation. Unsurprisingly, then, David Kaye's appropriately cruel satirical fantasy takes place in an Australia where sport has assumed the proportion of a religion.' (a TLS review 1970)

Unsurprisingly is decidedly evaluative in this context. It's meaning would have been ambiguous between approval and detachment, however, if appropriately was omitted. But as it is, appropriately disambiguates it in favour of approval by the speaker of the writer's handling of his subject-matter. Thus appropriately cannot just be said to intensify or modify cruel; it has at once an inter-sentential as well as an intra-

sentential modifying role.

4.4. Here we shall take a closer look at 'disjunctive adverbs', that is, adverbs having a disjunctive function in the sentence, and distinguish between them on the basis of what kind of attitude they express.

In 4.3. mention was made of Greenbaum's sub-division of disjuncts into style and attitudinal disjuncts. 'Style disjuncts' refer to the form in which a speaker reports or records a discourse subject. Greenbaum distinguishes two sets of such disjuncts:

(1) those expressing that the speaker is making a rough generalisation - e.g. roughly, broadly, crudely, generally, approximately, etc., and

(2) those expressing that the speaker is being frank in what he is saying - frankly, candidly, honestly, truthfully, bluntly, flatly, etc.

The difference between the two types of disjunct can be determined by a simple test: an item is a style disjunct if it collocates with say, speak, tell, put in its corresponding clause or phrase.[1] The majority of attitudinal disjuncts do not collocate with a verb of speaking.

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1 Note, however, Greenbaum's note (1969 bottom p. 92) where he points out that some style disjuncts - e.g. flatly, simply - do not collocate with one or more verbs of speaking. Also there are items not included among style disjuncts, but which behave like them: 'And it is not many years ago, historically speaking, that the army had to be called in to quell an uprising by the pupils of an English public school' A.K. Rice The Modern University, p. 99.

Examples,

20. Generally, I have nothing against him.
= Generally speaking, I have nothing against him
or In general, I have nothing against him.

C.f.

21. Amazingly, he finished first.
≠ Amazingly speaking, he finished first.

But 'it is amazing that.....' is acceptable because it underlies and therefore expresses the same attitude as the source sentence.

Similar restrictions apply to questions. But here the disjunct may refer to the form or content of the question asked, or to the form or content of the answer being elicited:

22. Briefly, did you enjoy the concert last night?
= To put it briefly, did you enjoy the concert.....?
In brief, did you enjoy the concert .....?
I ask you to tell me briefly, did you.....?
If I may ask you briefly, did you.....?
If I may be brief, did you enjoy.....?

All of which are semantically equivalent to the disjunct in the source sentence. C.f. *Delightfully, did you enjoy the concert last night?

Frankly is perhaps the most productive of the style disjuncts.

In a simple declarative statement, negative or positive, e.g.

24. Frankly, I enjoyed the concert last night.
25. Frankly, I didn't enjoy the concert last night.

frankly may be interpreted either as

24.1 To be frank (with you) (I would say that) I enjoyed .....
25.1 To be frank (with you) (I would say that) I didn't enjoy the concert....

Or

24.2 I would say frankly that I enjoyed the concert.....
25.2 I would say frankly that I didn't enjoy the.....

Alternatively,

24.3 Frankly speaking, I enjoyed the concert last night.
25.3 Frankly speaking, I didn't enjoy the concert.....

C.f. 26. Surprisingly, I didn't enjoy the concert last night.

≠ I'm surprised that I didn't enjoy the concert.....
*Surprisingly speaking, I didn't enjoy.....
But 'To my surprise I didn't enjoy the concert.....'
seems acceptable.

Both frankly and surprisingly satisfy the yes-no question test, but the latter does not collocate with speak, put, say or tell.

In a question frankly can be interpreted in two ways if the superordinate clause is negative:

27. Frankly, isn't he a bloody hypocrite?
27.1 = If I may be frank, isn't he a bloody hypocrite?

Or,

27.2 If I may ask you to be frank, tell me: isn't he a bloody hypocrite?

A further correspondence to frankly is

27.3 If I may ask you frankly, isn't he a bloody hypocrite?

In this interpretation it is clear that frankly is a manner adjunct in the corresponding clause, even though it is a disjunct in the surface structure of the matrix sentence. This suggests that frankly is what is left of an underlying conditional clause truncated in the deep structure of the sentence.

In this respect style disjuncts, and perhaps some attitudinal disjuncts, may be said to have a disjunctive function only in the surface structure of the sentence. Thus in 'Confidentially, she is very stupid' Confidentially may form its correspondence in collocation with any of the saying verbs. Similarly in

28. Disappointingly she is very stupid
disappointingly may be paraphrased: 'It is disappointing that...'
It also imples 'I'm disappointed to say/declare that.....'

The difference between the two disjuncts diminishes considerably if, following Ross, we assume the presence of a token-reflexive in their underlying structure (mentioned in J. F. Staal, and in MacCawley):

27a. I'm saying it to you confidentially (that) she is very stupid.

This generates

I tell you confidentially (that) she is very stupid
in turn reducible to

Confidentially, she is very stupid.

Similarly, 28a. I say I am disappointed (to observe) (that) she is very stupid.

——> It is disappointing that she is very stupid.

——> Disappointingly, she is very stupid.

4.4.2. Attitudinal disjuncts according to Greenbaum, are those sentence adverbs which 'express the speaker's attitude to what he is saying, his evaluation of it, or shades of certainty or doubt about it' (p. 94).

These he further sub-classifies into two semantic sets (pp. 202-11). Attitudinal disjuncts under semantic set I express an opinion on the truth-value of what is being said', and can be sub-divided into two sub-sets:

a. those expressing 'shades of doubt or certainty about what is being said' - undeniably, incontestably, definitely, certainly, surely, decidedly, arguably, conceivably, presumably doubtless, probably, etc.

b. 'those that state in what sense the speaker judges it to be true or false' - apparently, actually, really, nominally, ostensibly, superficially, technically, theoretically, etc.

Under semantic set 2 we have most disjuncts which are not members of set 1, and which 'convery a judgement about what is being said', implying that

a. it is fortunate or unfortunate; tragically, sadly, happily, unhappily, fortunately, luckily, unfortunately, unluckily, etc.

b. what is being said causes satisfaction or not: comfortingly, gratifyingly, annoyingly, disappointingly, disturbingly, delightfully, regrettably.

c. it is strange or unexpected: amazingly, astonishingly, bewilderingly, puzzlingly, surprisingly, bizarrely, curiously, illogically, incredibly, ironically, oddly, strangely, paradoxically, suspiciously, absurdly, preposterously, unexpectedly, un-usually, etc.

d. it is expected or appropriate , unsurprisingly, appropriately, inevitably, suitably, typically, naturally, predictably, etc.

e. others pass judgement on the rightness or wisdom of the action described, or on the wisdom with which it has been performed: correctly, rightly, justly, wrongly, unjustly, cleverly, foolishly, reasonably, shrewdly, unwisely, etc.

The relationships between the various sets and sub-sets and the clause are discovered through correspondences. Some attitudinal disjuncts form correspondences in the manner defined by Greenbaum and as described in 4.1 above. Thus in 29. 'Naturally, he refused to budge', naturally may be replaced by 'it is natural that he.....' which is therefore its correspondence. This technique helps to establish the

semantic and syntactic properties of the disjuncts. For those disjuncts which do not form correspondences this way, paraphrasing reveals only their negative semantic properties, i.e. what they do not mean:

Outwardly he seems self-satisfied.
=*It is outward that he seems.....
or *He seems self-satisfied in an outward manner
*Outwardly speaking.....
are unacceptable as correspondents of outwardly.

4.5 As attitudinal and style disjuncts are both expressions of the speaker's attitude they overlap semantically. The syntactic differences in their behaviour are matters which can be accounted for largely in the surface grammar.

Some grammarians in fact do not distinguish sentence adverbs syntactically, but explore mainly the differences in their semantic interpretation, using syntactic features only where they help to clarify or reinforce such interpretation.

4.5.1. For instance, Peter Schreiber, working within the framework of transformational - generative grammar, identifies two sub-classes of sentence adverbs: modal and evaluative adverbs.

(I shall first of all give a brief exposition of Schreiber's arguments, then criticise them, and finally attempt a synthesis of his and Greenbaum's views on the basis of other available evidence.)

As instances of modal adverbs, consider

31. Clearly / Obviously / Apparently } Nixon is beholden to Strom Thurmond.

For evaluative adverbs, consider

Unfortunately / Predictably } the war has been extended to Cambodia / the army has taken over the government

Other representative forms of modal adverbs include: allegedly, certainly, conceivably, evidently, possibly, presumably, probably, undoubtedly, unquestionably, etc.

Evaluative adverbs are more numerous and include: astonishingly, fortunately, incredibly, interestingly, ironically, luckily, naturally, oddly, paradoxically, strangely, surprisingly, unbelievably, understandably, unluckily, etc.

Schreiber sets up four main criteria to distinguish the two sub-classes:

Criterion 1. semantic interpretation - an evaluative adverb 'presupposes the positive truth-value of the (surface) predication with which it is in construction and offers an evaluation (value-judgement) of it'; a modal adverb, on the other hand, 'assigns a degree of likelihood (a probably truth-value) to the associated predication'.

Compare 33 sequences below:

Evidently / Obviously } Thurmond is extracting his pound of flesh.

He presumably / probably } is extracting his pound of flesh

He is extracting his pound of flesh, (undoubtedly / (possibly

Schreiber suggests that in all these the fact or act of extracting the pound of flesh is probable, though not necessarily true. The adverbs are modal by his definition.

c.f. 34. Surprisingly / Regrettably } he is extracting his pound of flesh

Thurmond, (naturally, / (unfortunately, is extracting his pound.....

He is extracting his pound of flesh, (understandably / (naturally

Heree the speaker evaluates the fact or act of extracting the pound of flesh. The adverbs are factive or evaluative and presuppose a positive truth-value.

Criterion 2. Occurrence in interrogative sentences: modal adverbs can occur in interrogative sentences; evaluative adverbs cannot.

35. Is he clearly / possibly } a scholar?

C.f. the unacceptability of

36. *Is he predictably / unluckily } a scholar?

Note also that the modal adverbs occur medially only.

Criterion 3. Occurrence in certain complement constructions: modal adverbs can; evaluative adverbs cannot.

37. I wonder whether he {actually / possibly} knew the answer

C.f. 38. *I wonder whether he {unbelievably / paradoxically} knew the answer.

Criterion 4. Other structural differences between the two subclasses resulting in differences of meaning, as revealed in certain predicate complement constructions. Thus in 39. 'Some people feel that possibly Roosevelt wanted to enter the war,'

= Some people feel it is possible that Roosevelt .....

C.f. 40. 'Some people feel that unfortunately Roosevelt wanted to enter the war.'

Here two 'facts' are being judged at once, making unfortunately ambiguous:

a. It might represent an evaluation of Roosevelt's policy - how it affects the country:

> Some people feel that Roosevelt's desire to enter the war was unfortunate (= mistaken)!

b. It might, on the other hand, suggest that such a feeling is harmful to Roosevelt's image; in which case the range of unfortunately would have to be specified by, for example, adding for and a pronoun co-referent with Roosevelt:

> 'Unfortunately for him, some people feel that Roosevelt wanted to enter the war.

4.5.2. Schreiber's arguments for distinguishing the two sub-classes are on the whole fairly convincing. It is his attempt to derive sentence adverbs transformationally, to prove that they are 'derivationally related to cognate constructions with adjectives' that is dubious.

He presents four arguments to support his view:

1. The synonymy of the source sentence containing a sentence adverb and its correspondence (to borrow a term from Greenbaum), e.g.

41. Clearly Nixon is beholden to.....
=42 It is clear that Nixon is beholden to.....

'If we assert that 41. and 42. are derived from one underlying structure, we thereby automatically account for the synonymy of these sentences'.

2. Imperative sentences: sentence adverbs do not occur in imperatives. This is explained by the fact that they are derived from the structure also underlying the adjectival constructions. Hence the unacceptability of

43. *Clearly, go home.

because clearly here has no appropriate underlying structure containing its adjective base. A further restriction is that imperatives require underlying you as subject.

3. The third argument is a consequence of 2. that is, the non-occurrence of sentence adverbs in imperatives prohibits their occurrence in certain types of complement constructions. For instance, the unacceptability of

44. *I command you probably to leave
45. *I command you conceivably to leave

is a logical consequence of the fact that one does not find

46. *I command you (for it) to be probable to leave.

4. Finally, such a position helps to impose restrictions on the formation as well as the delimitation of possible sentence adverbs. The relationship between the adverb and the underlying adjective which generates it must be such as to make the two forms synonymous. For instance the non-occurrence of

47. *Warmly, John was at fault.

follows automatically from the fact that 48. is also not possible:

48a. *That John was at fault was warm.
48b. *That John was at fault was easy.

4.6.3. Schreiber notes the existence of other sub-classes of sentence adverbs, but does not discusss them. Ironically, such forms may serve as powerful counter-examples to undermine his position. He makes a passing reference to them in his notes and they are exemplified by:

49. Frankly, I don't understand the question.

50. Economically, Appalachia is a disaster area.
51. Consequently, John will not returen.

None of these may be replaced by 'it is .....that'. Viz:

*It is frank that I don't understand the question
*It is economic that Appalachia.....
*It is consequent that John.....

These paraphrases are unacceptable either as representing the underlying forms from which the adverbs have been derived, or as manifestations of their underlying semantic structures.

Frankly in 49. is what we have already characterised as a 'style disjunct' following Greenbaum, and corresponds in this context to one of the following:

frankly speaking.....
putting it frankly.....
If I may speak frankly.....
or To be frank.....

Economically in 50. represents what Greenbaum would call an 'aspectual disjunct' commutable with 'from an economic point of view'.

Consequently in 51. is an instance of 'illative' conjuncts meaning 'as a consequence' in this context.

These examples suggest that the underlying semantic structure of a disjunct (or sentence adverb) does not always reveal the processes by which it has been derived. The structural differences that we have observed between modal and evaluative adverbs as exemplified by possibly and unfortunately further suggest that the basis of the synonymy of some

sentence adverbs to their corresponding clauses does not derive solely from their adjective frames in such clauses but from the structure and context of the predication as a whole. Transformational formulas cannot account for the wide range of meaning of adverbial adjuncts. (C.f. Eschilman et al. p. 15.)

4.6. Schreiber's modal and evaluative adverbs come under 'attitudinal disjuncts' in Greenbaum's classification; they roughly correspond to the two major groupings into which he sub-divides attitudinal disjuncts (pp. 211-12):

a. 'those that convey an attitude towards the truth-value of what is being said', e.g. clearly, certainly, outwardly, seemingly, decidedly, perhaps, ostensibly, superficially, etc.

b. Clearly, certainly, possibly are modal adverbs in Schreiber's system.

b. 'those that convery any other attitude towards what is being said', e.g. tragically, delightfully, oddly, rightly, blessedly, justly, naturally, etc.

Schreiber would call these evaluative (or 'factive') adverbs.

Greenbaum distinguishes the two groupings by means of a simple test: disjuncts in (a) do not allow the special use of should in their correspondence, as defined by Palmer - 'in this use should is restricted

to utterances that express surprise or some other kind of emotion'.

Disjuncts in (b) do. For instance,

52. Clearly, he is behaving badly
≠ It is clear that he is behaving badly.

53. It is <u>decidedly</u> a well-made play.
≠ It is decided that it is a well-made play.

C.f. 54. Oddly / Interestingly / Surprisingly, he is behaving badly

= It is odd / interesting / surprising that he <u>should</u> be behaving badly.

Note that style disjuncts are like disjuncts in (a) in not allowing the special use of <u>should</u>:

55. Briefly / Frankly / Honestly, he is behaving badly

≠ It is brief / frank / honest that he <u>should</u> be behaving badly

The sequence is doubly ungrammatical - the correspondence is unacceptable, and <u>should</u> is not allowed by it.

It is no coincidence that 'style disjuncts' should behave like 'modal adverbs' in some instances. Semantically they both refer to the form, mode or 'style' of the communication, to the speaker's confirmation

of, or lack of involvement in what is being said or reported. To borrow a term from Kruisinga, they may be said to express modality (124). Conveying an 'attitude towards the truth-value of what is being said' is, for me, semantically equivalent to making a 'rough generalisation' or 'being frank' (Greenbaum's definition of style disjuncts), and involving the same activity as assigning 'a degree of likelihood (a probable truth-value) to the associated predication' (Schreiber's definition of modal adverbs).

Poutsma designates as 'Modal Adverbial Adjuncts' those adverbs which 'express the speaker's attitude with regard to the fulfillment of an action or state' (p. 103). Greenbaum criticises this view on the grounds that Poutsma 'seems to be restricting the class of "modal adverbs" to those that have modal auxiliaries that correspond semantically to them' (vide his notes, p. 100) such as possibly.

This inadequacy in Poutsma's definition, however, does not rule out the value of the term modal for our purposes. Broadly, such adverbs are 'modal' not simply because they 'have modal auxiliaries that correspond semantically to them' but also because they may collocate with other verbs to refer to the form, mode, or style of the communication, or in Kruisinga's words 'to confirm', 'to deny', or to 'express or emphasize probability, etc., all these being forms of uncertainty' (p. 124). C.f.,

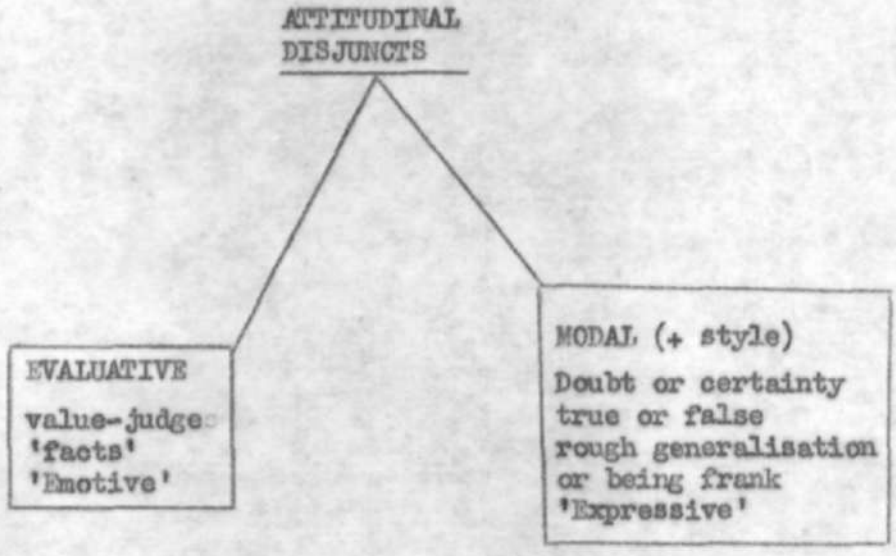
56. He will certainly / definitely } come

57. He knows about it, apparently.

58. Clearly / Obviously / Evidently / Frankly / Honestly } he needs to work harder.

As the term 'attitudinal' has such a wide semantic range, we can use Schreiber's term evaluative to describe all the disjuncts which value-judge a predication. In other words, we can regard all disjuncts as expressing a wide range of attitudes (- in this respect Greenbaum's detailed sub-classification of such attitudes is extremely valuable). Therefore all disjuncts may be said to be attitudinal. We can then sub-divide them into evaluative and modal (subsuming 'style') disjuncts.

Diagrammatically this may be represented as a tree-branch;



CHAPTER FIVE

Conclusions

5.0. It appears from the results of our analysis that the criteria for isolating adverbial adjuncts may be reduced to two.

(i) Criterion of optionality - as the items are adjunctive their placement in all possible positions in the sentence structure is accordingly optional.

(ii) Criterion of omissibility - the items being adjunctive, may be omitted without rendering the sentence unacceptable grammatically and/or semantically.

Items which violate these criteria may be regarded as obligatory in the clause or sentence structure (c.f. sequences 26-35 in chap 2) and are therefore not necessarily adjunctive in function.

5.1. In sub-classifying adjuncts[1] a minor criterion for distinguishing between 'word-modifying' and 'sentence modifying' adjuncts is gradability, a characteristic determined on a semantic rather than on a syntactic or morphologic scale (as put forward by Bolinger, 1967, as implied in the concept of antonymy suggested by Sapir, discussed by Lyons pp. 465-67.) Employing the insight it provides we can say that generally, only items that are gradable (nouns, verbs, adjectives) may be intensified. The item so intensified may also be said to be implicitly compared to the item immediately below it; that is the intensification almost always involves comparison. For example very in:-

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1 Disjuncts according to the two criteria above are adjuncts differentiated intonationally and attitudinally.

58. It's very nice.

59. She was very upset.

is being implicitly compared to a recognised norm of niceness, or to a norm related to the extent by which people's emotion is measured. In each case very implies 'beyond-the-norm'.

Intensifiers themselves are gradable; for instance 'absolutely-words', i.e. words which can be intensified by absolutely, are higher on the scale than 'very-words', the former are highest, the latter are lower than highest.

Manner adjuncts too are gradable - loudly in

60. He sang loudly.

implicitly contrasts with a singing 'level-norm'.

Downtoners are appropriately so-called because on the basis of this semantic scale, they tend to make the implicit contrast less marked - e.g. quite and rather are lower than very, as in

61. It's rather dull today isn't it?

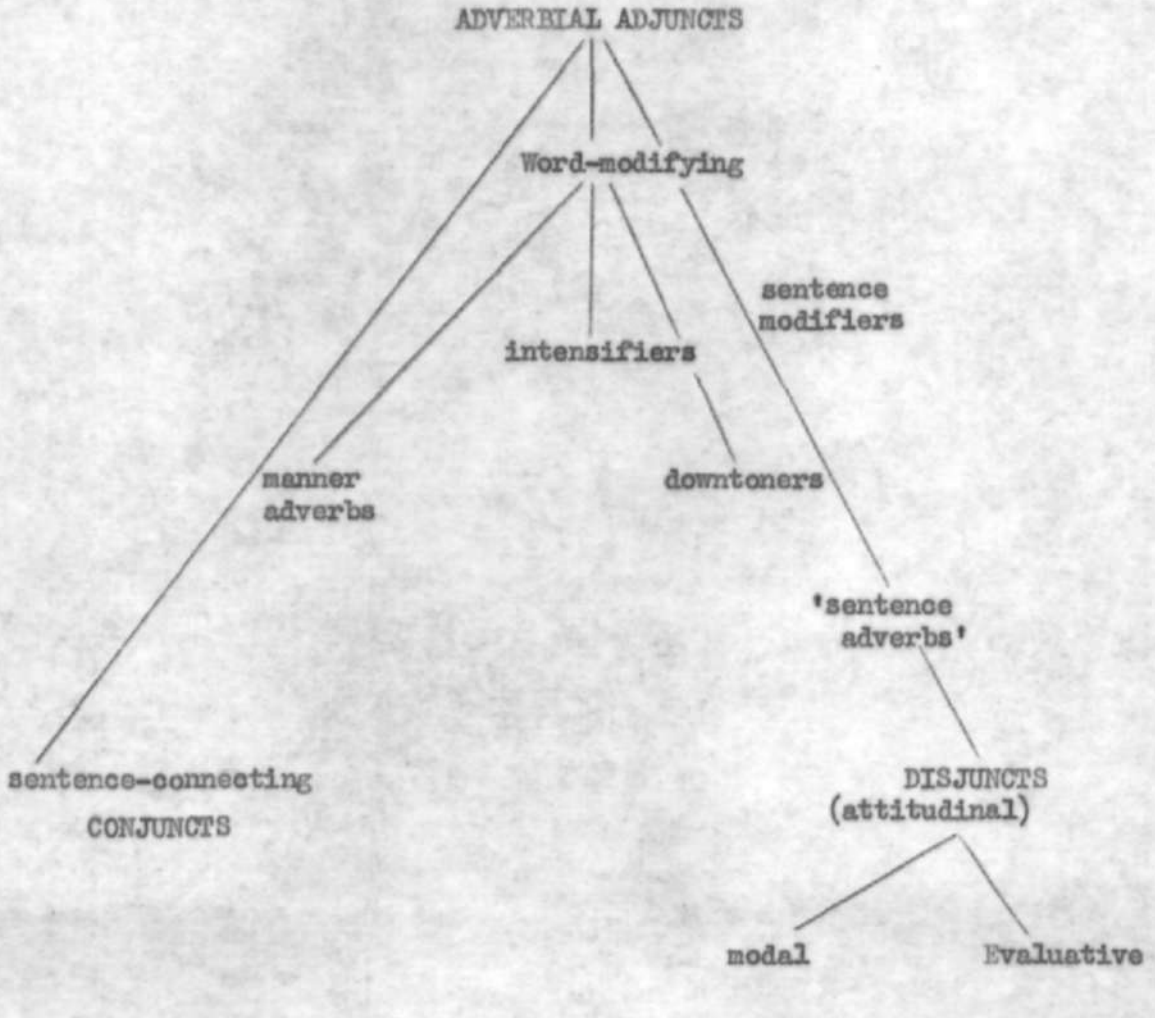
62. We were quite pleased with our performance.

But rather does not refer to any fixed degree. Yet while it is 'lower than' very it still appears to be 'more than' the norm modified by other downtoners, like quite.

Disjuncts do not seem to be so constrained in their function. As they modify more than one word, i.e. are sentence-modfying, they cannot

imply any graded contrast. If there is any contrast in their meaning and function at all, it must be in relation to the speaker/writer's attitude to the situation only, to what he is saying or to what is being said about it. Such a contrast would only hypothetically relate to what the reader's attitude would be if he found himself in such a situation.

5.2. We may now in summary draw a diagram incorporating the distinctions we have made in our classification of adverbial adjuncts:-



This classification, a modified version of Greenbaum's, has the advantage of being explicit without over - simplifying. It avoids the temptation to overclassify yet is of sufficient depth to apply to nearly all cases of adjunctive usage.

Another advantage is that such distinctions as we have made, enable us to relate the maning and the function of adjuncts to extralinguistic factors - for instance, their purposeful use to achieve greater effect in communication.

Adverbial usage, especially as it helps to convery a speaker's attitude to what he is saying or what is being said, may be regarded as stylistically significant. And from this point of view one can argue that most adverbial adjuncts, in particular sentence adverbs are, or may serve as 'style - markers'. This brings us to a consideration of the possible rhetorical value of adverbial adjuncts, but it must be borne in mind that the following discussion though emanating from the limited theme of this dissertation is only speculative and tentative.

5.3. We always speak of the syntactic and semantic features of the terms we describe; yet we seldom ask: to what end are such terms assigned such features, or to what end are such features, intrinsic to the terms, usually exploited by users of the language?

It hardly needs mention that 'the primary function of language is to convey meaning, (and that) grammatical structures exist for this purpose'[1] only. We consciously manipulate the grammatical structures

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1 c.f. R. B. Long, pp. 1-2.

of our languages, the system of options they make available to us, to convey particular meanings or desired effects. This may be regarded as an aspect of purposive usage, stylistic in quality, because extrinsically determined. It complements the presence within the grammar of certain optional sub-structures, adjunctive forms such as intensifiers, (e.g. extremely, greatly, absolutely), modifiers (manner adjuncts, etc.), downtoners (e.g. nearly, fairly, quite), evaluative and modal disjuncts, etc., which in meaning and function are inherently stylistic.

Werner Winter concieves style as an aspect 'characterised by a pattern of recurrent selection from the inventory of optional features of a language.'[1]

As 'features' optionally introduced into the basic structure of an English sentence, adverbial adjuncts may thus be characterised as 'style-markers' in Winter's sense of the term 'style'.

Adverbial adjuncts generally have the effect of clarifying or underlining the meaning of a text. Their extreme mobility and the variation in their meaning potential which this makes possible, enable the speaker/writer, in the words of Eschilman, et al, 'to vary the syntactic pattern to avoid monotony of style', and to 'emphasize units (words, phrases, or clauses), elevating the importance of the bridge,[2] or relationships of

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1 Quoted by Nils Erik Enkvist, Linguistics and Style, p. 35.

2 The term 'bridge' refers to the author's conception of adverbial usage: "Adverbs are actually semantic bridges relating NP + VP to space, time, frequency, probability, cause and so forth", p. 44.

ideas', as well as the impotance of the idea expressed in the word phrase, or clause (p..44).

Sentence adverbs (as we have seen) in particular serve to indicate a writer's attitude to what is being said, or to the way it is being said. This is evident from the fact that their excision may make a lot of difference to the effect or meaning of a whole or part of a text, e.g.:-

(1) I'd acknowledge that the tremendously academic child may become interested in absolutely anything simply because he is a glutton for learning or getting things right. But notoriously, the argument for broadening the syllabus is used not only with reference to the academic child; in fact[3] it is used primarily with regard to the non-academic who is then supposed to carry the academic in tow. But it seems to me absolutely obvious that if non-academically - inclined members of the sixth form are now bored by working for two A levels which they may or may not get, but which perhaps they have to work for because there's nothing else, they'll be more - not less - bored by working at five subjects'. (Mary Warnock - 'Personal View' The Listener 14 1.71)

Now try reading the passage without the adverbials underlined. The effect, it seems to me, is to make the passage flat and ambiguous (if not meaningless) in some places. For example the excison of academically from non-academically inclined renders it imprecise. Also notoriously has no connection with the child's gluttony, but with the

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3 'not only ... in fact' is conjunctive + modal - but outside our area of reference.

implied view point which supports broadening the syllabus for the benefit of both the academic and the non-academic child. Notoriously refers to the writer's attitude and can be paraphrased:-

'it is notorious that the argument for.....'
or 'it seems to me notorious that the.....'
or 'it is notorious of some people to use the argument for broadening the syllabus not only with reference....'

But not * I'm notorious that the argument.....'

Such a paraphrase would however, be acceptable if surprisingly is substituted for notoriously:

'I'm surprised that the argument for ....' - the reference then would not be anaphoric, but would directly related to the cognitive content of the matrix sentence.

There can thus be no doubt that adverbs have the effect of varying the interpretation, of properly modifying the meaning of a whole or part of an utterance. Their use is therefore stylistically significant.

To take another example, intensifiers themselves do not merely serve to intensify the items they collocate with; they are focussing devices also. In:-

(2) 'We told him to go to school, but he absolutely stared at the Post Office Tower'

the act of staring is not what is being focussed but the total non-execution of the original order; absolutely confers definiteness as well as surprise on its collocate, and in this way suggests the intensity

of the speaker's attitude. This is further indicated by its carrying the nuclear stress in the conjoined clause.

A similar effect is achieved in 3, below:-

(3) 'He absolutely ran round and round the track.'

In addition, consider the following sequences:

(4) Mary is certainly extremely beautiful

(5) How greatly they all admire the Professor!

(6) How thoroughly did they enjoy themselves?

(7) 'His interpretation of Tchaikovsky is patently obviously exaggerated' (T.V. remark on Ken Russell's film: 'The Music Lovers')

In (4) the degree of Mary's beauty is not in question, nor is it the most important piece of information; certainly is the information focus expressing the speaker's conviction, affirmation and emotion.

In (5) greatly in addition to intensifying its collocate connotes surprise and evaluation - the exclamatory structure of the sentence embodies this.

In (6) there is no question about whether the subjects of the discourse enjoyed themselves; thoroughly focusses on the degree of the enjoyment (factive because assumed by the speaker).

Finally, in (7) we have total assertion - the speaker leaves the listener no room for doubt on what he thinks and the listener is called upon to agree with it - though even this does not seem to be the concern of the speaker. His primary goal is to make his views clear and

unequivocal; how the listener takes them does not matter very much.

Adverbial adjuncts thus serve to intensify or modify a word, clause or sentence, and simultaneously help to focus the major information points in the clause or sentence. In other words speakers are aware of all the possible effects that can be gained by choosing one position rather than another. Their use is part of the process of making one's discourse 'stylised'. Some modifiers, for instance, undoubtedly, decidedly, presumably, etc. have in fact been observed to mark idiolects. The frequent use of such and other markers in a personalised way seems to underlie the usual claim that style is the expression of a speaker's/writer's personality[1], and the related view that one can learn a lot about another person through his speech habits - the mode or form in which he habitually expresses himself.

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1. Linguists tend to use presumably, etc. to indicate the tentativeness of their statements. In literary criticism on the other hand decidedly and words generally having an assertive force tend to occur frequently. This indicates different professional styles.

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