A LINGUISTIC ANALYSIS OF MODIFICATION IN ZAYNAB ALKALI'S THE STILLBORN AND GEORGE ORWELL'S ANIMAL FARM

BY

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Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis has been written by me and that it is a record of my research work. It has not been presented in any previous application for a higher degree. All quotations are indicated by indentation or quotation marks and the sources of information are specifically acknowledged by means of references.

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Hellandendu Jacob **Date**

Dedication

To my late sister,

Mrs. Joslina Chimda David

And

My late brother,

(Hon.) Richard Hellandendu

Whose memories will remain ever green in my heart.

Certification

This thesis entitled: "A Linguistic Analysis of Modification in Zaynab Alkali's The Stillborn and George Orwell's Animal Farm submitted by Hellandendu Jacob meets the regulations governing the award of Doctoral Degree (Ph.D) in English and Literary Studies, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria and is approved for its contribution to knowledge and literary presentation.

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Dean, Postgraduate School Date

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Abstract

The effective use of modifiers makes a difference between a dull sentence and an interesting one. Modifiers breathe life into phrases, clauses, sentences and the entire paragraph of a text. They are used for contrasts, emphasis, description and for shades of meaning. Thus, both the syntactic and semantic meaning of a sentence is enriched by the appropriate use of modifiers in sentence structures. Adjectives and adverbs for instance are used for making comparisons without which it becomes difficult to show similarities or differences between two or more things in any given language. The components of modification that are considered for analysis in this study include: adjectives, adverbs, prepositional phrases, quantifiers and intensifiers. Others are qualifiers, idioms, adjectival and adverbial clauses. The relationships that exist between the modifiers identified with the headwords were explained in the course of analysis of each sentence. Chapter one presents the background information to this work, examining some working definitions of modification, justification for the selection of the set texts, feminism, themes of the set texts, motivation and statement of the problem. Other highlights of the chapter are aim and objectives which include to compare the effective use of modifiers in Alkali's The Stillborn and Orwell's Animal Farm; to determine whether adjectives and adjectival clauses are more extensively used than adverbs and adverbial clauses; others are prepositional phrases, comparative and superlative adjectives; determine to what extent poetic and idiomatic expressions are used to modify the works of Alkali and Orwell. And finally, to determine from our analysis whether gender has effect on the text that he/she creates. Significance of the study, scope and delimitation also concludes this chapter. Chapter two examines literature related materials to this study. In this respect the materials selected for review are modifiers as linguistic elements, structure of modification, ordering of modifiers, traditional grammar, structural grammar, constituent structure grammar, immediate constituent grammar, systemic grammar and the theoretical framework. Chapter three presents the methodology for this research, elicitation materials, the sampling procedure and sample analysis. The theoretical syntactic framework of Quirk et al's (1985:62), Halliday and Hasan's (1976:40) semantic model and Bloomfield's immediate constituent (IC) analysis model were adopted and modified for the analysis. The data are analyzed in chapter four and the same chapter discusses the findings. The major findings have revealed that Alkali has used more modifiers than Orwell. Alkali has used more adjectives and adjectival clauses than Orwell while Orwell has used more adverbs and adverbial clauses than Alkali. Alkali has used more intensifiers than Orwell which suggests that women use emotive language more than men and that gender has effect on the creation of texts. This analysis identifies a number of similarities and dissimilarities between Alkali's and Orwell's texts which are explained in chapter five. Finally, chapter five examines the summary of the study in which the findings are stated. The same chapter also concludes that modifiers are very crucial in the modification of texts. Other aspects which the chapter also examines are implications for the study and suggestions for further research.

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CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction

This chapter introduces the study of modification in Zaynab Alkali's The Stillborn and George Orwell's Animal Farm.. The chapter presents the background information to the study, some working definitions of modification, reasons for the selection of the set texts, statement of the problem, motivation, aim and objectives and scope delimitations of the study and limitations of the study. Thus, this chapter provides the cue to what the readers should anticipate based on the identified thrust of the research.

1.1 Background to the Study

Specifically, the study focuses on the use of modifiers in the set texts. The term modification in this study refers to the study of the relationships of modifiers to the headwords that are prevalent in the noun phrases within the structures of the texts that have been identified for analysis. Thus, the study is a textual analysis approach (TAA) used in the study of language functions. It is an eclectic study of systemic functional linguistics (SFI) and immediate constituent (IC) analysis which provide both semantic and syntactic co-occurrence of modifiers and the headwords in novel structures.

Modification as a linguistic concept is first of all conceived in human minds. This is because no word automatically does anything to another word, but the relative positions of words stimulate us to make certain associations. The word "concept" used in this context refers to the general idea or meaning which is associated with a word or symbol in a person's mind. It can be deduced from the expression "fat woman", that

the speaker or writer meant that “fat” refers to the “woman”. Similarly, “Li is clever”, would mean that the adjective “clever” used in the above sentence, refers to the subject “Li” which functions as a complement.

Adjectives and adverbs act as modifiers. They describe, limit or qualify the meaning of a word or word group in sentence structures. They may also modify phrases, clauses or entire sentences.

According to Myers (1962:105), “a modifier is a word, phrase or clause that supplies any kind of additional information (even negative information) about the element with which it is associated”. He illustrates with the following sentence:

He saw a tall man in black clothes. Here, the words “a” and “tall” and the prepositional phrase “in black clothes” modify “man” and within the phrase, “black” also modifies “clothes”.

Myers further cites another example with the sentence:

Young Lorenz worked hard, but made no progress.

In the sentence above, the underlined words: “young”, “hard” and “no progress” function as modifiers. “Young” modifies “Lorenz”, “hard” modifies the verb “worked”, while “no progress” provides negative additional information in spite of the hard work which Lorenz had done.

However, it is important to ask the question, how can we determine whether a word supplies any kind of information? This requires a careful examination of the modifiers that add meaning to the headword as exemplified above. However, notional definition of words or concepts are not always applicable in linguistic analysis because the notional definition of words is inconsistent since the definition of a class for

example noun may also apply to another like adjective (as in the word "red"), Lamidi (2000:7). The Advanced Learner's Dictionary Sixth Edition clarifies this nature of inconsistency using the following illustrations;

(i) She wears "red" (noun)

(ii) The car is "red" (adjective).

The understanding of a modifier should not be based on notional definition, but rather, on its applications. Thus, modifier is a word, phrase or clause that provides description in a sentence and makes the meaning more specific

Wikipedia Encyclopedia (2007 online) states that: a modifier or qualifier is a word that modifies another word, a phrase or a clause. In English, there are two kinds of modifiers: adjectives which modify nouns and pronouns, and adverbs which modify verbs, adjectives and other adverbs; Wikipedia's definition includes adjective and adverb phrases; Wikipedia holds the view that English has adjective phrase and adverb phrases. A modifier phrase is a phrase that acts as a modifier. Neither modifiers nor modifier phrases are usually required by a clause's syntax because they are optional. Modifiers and modifier phrases help to modify or limit the extent of the meaning of the word they modify.

Modifier is a general umbrella term used to refer to the components or elements of modification used in the linguistic analysis of texts. Such components include adjectives, adjectival clauses, adverbs and adverbial clauses, "-ed" and "-ing", participle forms of verb and prepositional phrases. Others are determinatives, intensifiers, quantifiers as well as qualifiers.

1.2 Some Working Definitions of Modification

There are several definitions of the linguistic concept of “modification”; each linguist sees it from his own perspective. However, a common string that binds most definitions is that it is the use of modifiers like adjectives and adverbs to describe, modify, identify or qualify objects or items that are being referred to in sentence structures.

Modification is a process of changing or adding a modifier before or after a noun or clause in order to describe or identify it. The structure of modification contains a “head” and a “modifier”, for example, “old man”, “fresh tomatoes”. In the above examples, “man” and “tomatoes” are modified by the adjectives “old” and “fresh” respectively. “Man” and “tomatoes” are the head (words), while the preceding words are modifiers. There could also be more than one modifier in a sentence. For instance, “very fresh green vegetables”. The modifiers here are “very”, “fresh” and “green”. Thus, it can be said that the relationship between a modifier and the words with which it occurs is a structural one. Modifiers can be applied to nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs or whole groups, clauses or sentences.

The headword in a modifying structure is the only word that can be substituted for the whole cluster in a sentence without disrupting the structure of the sentence; for instance, “many important things happened today”. In the above sentence, the headword is “things”, and because of its substitutability, it does not say much without the modifier “many important” in terms of meaning.

The function of modifiers which are also known as qualifiers and their relationships to the headwords in phrase and clause structures are central to this work.

Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech and Svartvik (1985:65), see modification as

> a largely optional function performed, for instance, by adjectives in the noun phrase, and intensifying adverbs in adjective and adverbial phrase. Pre-modifiers precede the head and post-modifiers follow it.

Although modification according to Quirk et al is largely an optional function performed by adjectives and intensifying adverbs, successful speakers and writers use them for the purposes of description, identification, clarification and modification. The effective use of modifiers breathes life into phrases, clauses, sentences as well as the entire paragraphs of a text.

Quirk et al further observe that semantically, modifiers add descriptive information to the headword. They opine that "a green table" has a more specific meaning than just "a table". Similarly, "very tall" has more specific meaning than "tall" standing alone without the intensifier "very" (ibid, p.65). Descriptive information can only be realized by an effective use of adjectives and adverbs especially when the reference is restricted to the headwords in a nominal group structure.

According to Richards, Platt and Platt (1992:234), modification is "a word or group of words which gives further information about (modifies) another word or group of words (the head). Modification may occur in a noun phrase, a verb phrase and an adjectival phrase".

The typical function of modifiers among others is to modify a word or group of words which may be headed by a noun in a noun phrase, verb in a verb phrase, adjective in an adjectival phrase and adverb in an adverbial phrase. Modifiers may precede or follow a headword in a modifying structure.

Richards, Platt and Platt further cite examples of both premodification and postmodification as follows:

(a) Modifiers before the head are called premodifiers, e.g. “expensive” in “expensive camera”

(b) Modifiers after the head are called postmodifiers, e.g. “with a stumpy tail” in “the cat with a stumpy tail” (ibid p.234).

Bradford (1976:104) argues that modification is one of the most important relationships of English grammar and that it takes many different forms. For instance:

(i) One word may modify another as in (“great singer”, “telephone box”, “big fire” or “Peter’s place”).

(ii) A group may modify a word, as in “an ape at the zoo” or

(iii) A group may modify another group as in “stone cold coffee in filter cups”.

The importance of modification is realized by the many different forms of its occurrences in the structure of English sentences. The fact that they take different forms provides the English user the option to either premodify or postmodify the headword by using a single word (modifier), a group of words or an entire group as illustrated in (i), (ii) and (iii) above.

Fromkin and Rodman (1978:210) provide a similar example of modification in two noun phrases using the sentence:

The young orangutan strummed the old red banjo.

In the above construction, “young” functions as an adjective which modifies the head word “orangutan” in the first noun phrase. “Old” and “red” in the second noun phrase modify the headword “banjo”. They illustrate this using a tree diagram as follows:

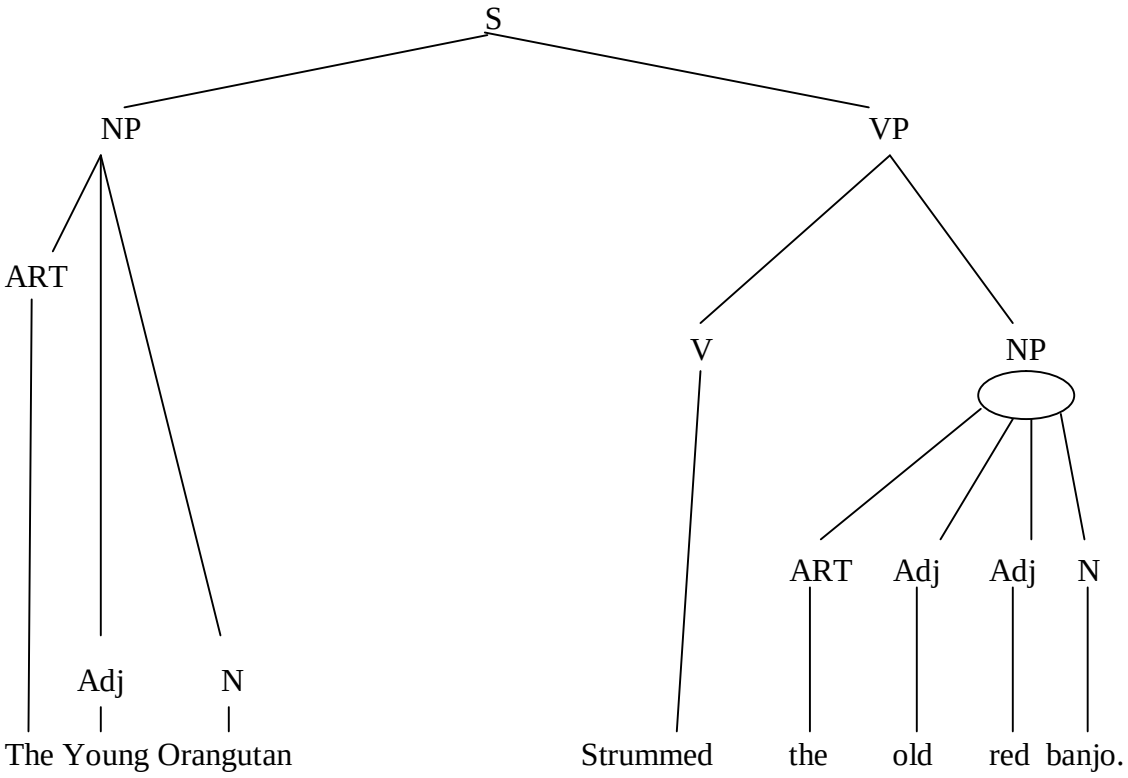


Fig. 1: Structure of Modification in two noun phrases (Fromkin and Rodman, 1978:210)

The tree diagram above has two noun phrases. The first noun phrase is “the young orangutan”, with “the” and “young” which function as modifiers of the headword “orangutan”. The second noun phrase is “the old red banjo”, with “the”, “old” and “red” functioning as modifiers of the headword “banjo”. Both “Orangutan” and “banjo” are premodified by the determinative “the” which occurs in both noun phrases. Similarly the adjectives “young” in the first noun phrase and “old” and “red” in the second noun phrase are all clear instances of premodification.

Wikipedia Encyclopedia (2007 online) also provides a tree diagram illustrating how postmodification occurs in a noun phrase using the phrase:

A student with long hair

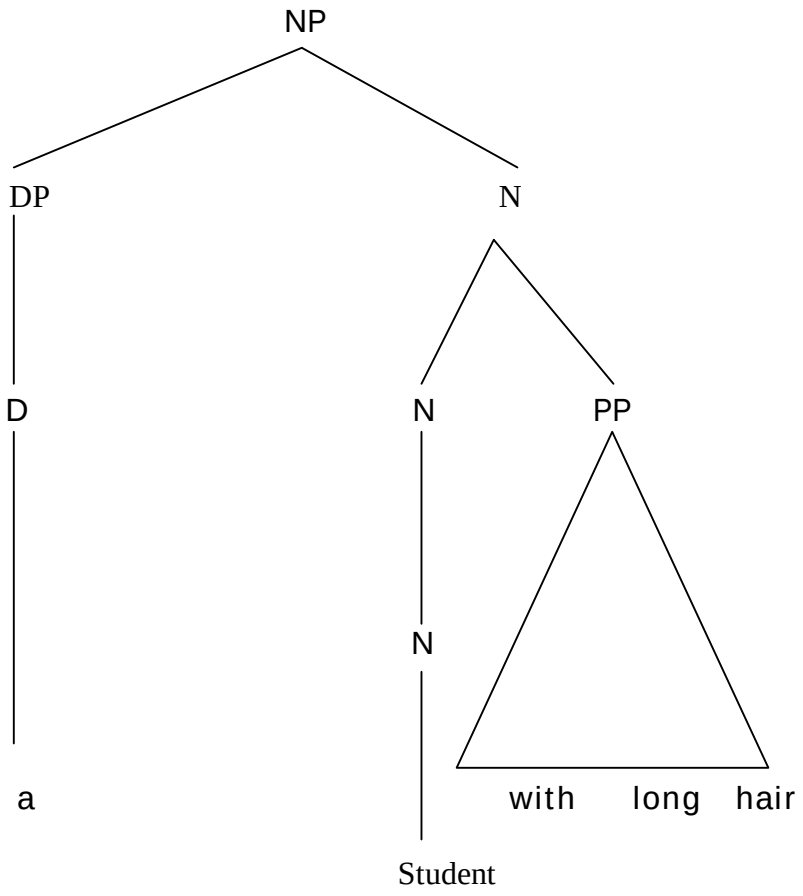


Fig. 2: Structure of Postmodification

In the tree diagram above, the prepositional phrase "with a long hair" postmodifies the noun "student" because it occurs after it. The prepositional phrase used above distinguishes the student with the "long hair" from those who may have "short hair".

Hartman and Stork (1972:143) see modification in two dimensions:

(a) The alteration of a linguistic form through borrowing, phonetic assimilation or morpho-phonemic variation.

(b) The relationship between a headword and a modifier.

The co-occurrence of headwords with modifiers in sentence structures which could be inferred from the second definition is of relevance to this work. The first definition is more concerned with phonetics, while the second is focused on grammar. The syntactic patterning or grouping of words as well as their relationships to each other in sentence structures is the primary concern of this study.

1.3 Motivation for the Study

This study is motivated by a number of factors. First among these is to identify how Zaynab Alkali and George Orwell use modifiers, for instance, adjectives and adverbs in their texts, The Stillborn and Animal Farm respectively, to capture and sustain the interest of readers. Another motivating factor for this study is to find out to what extent both authors use quantifiers, intensifiers and qualifiers as components of modification.

The study also identifies the extent to which Alkali and Orwell use prepositional phrases, inflected adjectives as linguistic elements, for instance, the Genitive (-s) the past and present participles (i.e. –"ed" and –"ing") as well as the comparative and superlative degrees (-"er", "-est" or "more" and "most") in the texts under analysis.

The fact that many authors employ some literary devices such as fixed expressions to modify their characters, serves as another compelling reason to carry out a linguistic study in texts written by novelists like Alkali and Orwell.

Another motivation for this research is to identify whether the gender of a writer has any effect on modification of the texts that he/she creates.

The fact that students and teachers at secondary and tertiary levels more often than not grapple with the problems of modification or the use of modifiers in written discourse as well as tests and examinations, calls for a linguistic analysis of modification in texts or written discourse.

1.4 Reasons for the Selection of the Set Texts under Analysis

The selection of Zaynab Alkali's The Stillborn (1986) and George Orwell's Animal Farm (1989) would provide enough data to make a comparative linguistic analysis of the use of modification. The selection has been motivated by the fact that both Alkali and Orwell have used quite a great deal of modifiers to describe, distinguish and highlight their characters, events, scenes and objects. The numerous types of modifiers as well as their extensive use and usage is enough reason to conduct a linguistic study of modification in the two texts selected for this study.

Each speaker or writer has some form of mental grammar or intuition which he displays in the production and use of well structured expressions. This means that some speakers or writers may use more adjectives than adverbs while others may use premodifiers much more than postmodifiers in the modification structures they create. Shaw (1993:183) argues that word usage varies with individual writers. The fact that novelists, playwrights, poets as well as journalists differ in their styles of description

therefore, is also a convincing reason to make a comparative linguistic analysis of modification of the texts under analysis in this study.

Since modification occurs in different forms of sentence structures, some writers may decide for instance to use pre- or post-modification as well as the extensive use of intensifiers and quantifiers, while others may use idioms, qualifiers or clauses more extensively. The study therefore, examines Alkali and Orwell's use of particular forms or styles of modification in the selected texts.

Another compelling factor for the selection of Alkali's and Orwell's texts is to make a comparative linguistic analysis of modification from the viewpoint of native and non-native speakers of English. Alkali uses English as her second language (L_2) while Orwell uses it as his first language (L_1).

The study also affords the comparison of a female author with that of a male to assess how and to what extent gender influences effective use of modification of texts.

The general motivating factor for the research is the fact that some teachers and students in both secondary and tertiary institutions more often than not, grapple with the problem of the use of modifiers in texts, written discourse and examinations, which calls for a linguistic analysis of modification in texts.

1.5 Samples of Modification in the Set Texts

A brief look at the pragmatic application of the use of modifiers in Alkali's The Stillborn and Orwell's Animal Farm, reveals the numerous types of modification or the extensive use of modifiers. Two sentences are elicited from each text starting with Alkali's The Stillborn to confirm the assertion as follows:

Extract 1:

> Nervously, she cast a glance at the others, who were fellow pupils going home for the end of the year holidays (page (1) paragraph (1) Line (3).

Here, "nervously" which functions as an adverb modifies the main clause, "she cast a glance at the others". "a" which is the determinative modifies the headword "glance" while "at the others" functions as the qualifier. The subordinate clause "who were fellow pupils going home for the end of the year holidays" is a relative clause used to modify the main clause exemplified above, which also functions as a qualifier. The head in the second noun phrase is, "home" while "fellow" modifies "pupils". "Fellow" and "year" are both nouns which modify other nouns "pupils" and "holidays" respectively. "For the end of the year holidays" also functions as a qualifier.

Extract 2:

> They were happy children, singing and clapping in rhythm to the droning of the engine and calling praise-names to the lorry driver who would from time to time accelerate in acknowledgement (page (1), paragraph (1) Line (5).

In the above complex sentence, the adjective "happy" modifies the headword "children", while "singing and clapping in rhythm to the droning engine and calling praise-names to the lorry driver" qualifies part of the main clause "they were happy children". The subordinate relative clause "who would from time to time accelerate in acknowledgement" modifies the entire main clause "they were happy children, singing and clapping in rhythm to the droning of the engine and calling praise-names to the lorry driver". "In rhythm", "to the droning of" and "in acknowledgement" are prepositional phrases, which also function as modifiers. "From time to time" is an adverbial phrase which tells more about the frequency the driver accelerates. The nominal "lorry" in turn modifies another noun "driver".

Orwell has also used modifiers to a great extent to modify his text. The following sentences illustrate the above assertion:

Extract 3:

> Mr. Jones of the Manor Farm had locked the hen-houses for the night, but was too drunk to remember to shut the pop-holes (page (1), paragraph (1) Line (1)).

In the above example, the prepositional phrase "of the Manor Farm", which is also part of the subject of the sentence, postmodifies "Mr. Jones". "Manor" further modifies the other noun "farm". "Hen-houses" on the other hand is another form of modification of two nouns by the use of hyphen. "For the night" functions as qualifier while, "too" is an intensifier which says more about the degree of Mr. Jones' tiredness. "Drunk" is an adjective which also functions as the headword in the second clause of the compound sentence. The prepositional phrases "to remember" and "to shut the pop-holes" are qualifiers.

Extract 4:

> Word had gone round during the day that old Major, the prize Middle White boar, had had a strange dream on the previous night and wished to communicate it to the other animals (page (1), paragraph (2) Line (3).

Here, "round" which is an adverb of place, modifies the adverb of time "during the day". "Day" functions as the headword in the main clause. The subordinate clause "that old Major, the prize Middle White boar, had had a strange dream on the previous night" functions as qualifier. "old" modifies "Major" the adjectival phrase, "the prize Middle White boar" also describes "old Major". The determinative "the" plus "prize", "Middle" and "White" which function as adjectives modify the headword "boar" in the second noun phrase. "A strange" modifies "dream". "On the previous night" is a qualifier. "Previous" an adjective modifies "night". "It" is another headword, while "to the other animals" is a qualifier.

1.6 Feminism

Though it is not the central aim of this research to dwell on ideologies of gender or feminism, they nevertheless deserve attention. This is because they provide some background knowledge to the understanding of what the writers stand for. Their emotions for instance may have effect on the texts that they create.

The term "feminism" covers a range of ideologies and theories that pay special attention to women's rights and their position in culture and society. Ahmad (2003) asserts that feminism refers to the women's movement which began in the late 18th century and continues to campaign for complete political, social and economic equality between women and men. Virginia Wolf's writings and critics for instance dwelt on the unfair treatment of women by men, inequality, female emancipation from the oppression of the males, women participation in politics and civil service jobs (NTI, 2000:84).

Jane de Gay observes that:

> Feminists are united by the idea that women's positions in society is unequal to that of men and that society is structured in such a way as to benefit men to the political, social and economic detriment of women (Encarta Encyclopedia, 2008).

From the above observation, it could be deduced that feminism is an awareness of the patriarchal control, exploitations and oppression at the material and ideological levels of women labours in the family, place of work and in the society in general.

Feminism then could be seen as a revolutionary theory that questions the images of women as projected by a patriarchal society and its male dominated literature. Ogunbiyi (1988:291) sees it as "a direct challenge to the misogynist interpretation of the women as physically attractive second class and domestically

responsible creation". Females now argue that they are more than just being considered as mothers but that they are physically and intellectually as rich as men. Hence both should cooperate in the private and public spheres and none should be subsumed under the other.

Surakat (2000:150) asserts that several literary works have shown that women in most cultures are treated with disdain. He illustrates using the following traditional proverb from Alkali's The Stillborn (p.13):

> Of course, the lion cub takes after its mother.

In its contextual sense, the above proverb is used by Baba to refer to either Mama or her children when lashing at Mama for an offence committed by their children or when nagging at the children. Surakat argues that the saying reflects:

> the chauvinist, misogynic and anti-feminist tendencies in the culture. Otherwise, both father and mother should share the responsibility of bringing up their children (ibid p.150).

Fathers, more often than not, apportion blame on mothers when children go wrong and, claim the credit for success, progress, achievements and every good deed of their children to themselves at the detriment of mothers.

Diji (2003:6) laments male chauvinism in her poem: "I am a woman" when she cries out that:

> When my children go wrong
> They are unuseful and unfruitful
> When they challenge the fatherhood of their father
> The maleness of their male society
> They take after their mother's stubbornness
> Ah when they do right
> They are like father like children.

Diji's lamentation above depicts husbands' unfair accusations of their wives over children's bad behaviour of which not only the mothers are responsible but also

the fathers. Mother is painted "black" because her influence affects her children negatively making them unuseful and unfruitful; since they take after their mother's stubbornness. The father on the other hand is portrayed as upright, productive as well as a role model whom children must emulate.

The major concern in feminism is to explore the role of literature in the development of social attitudes towards women and of women towards themselves. Feminist writings oppose the hostile treatment of women by males' prejudices, biases, inequality in politics, civil service and society in general.

1.6.1 Zaynab Alkali's Ideologies

The writings of Alkali mostly reflect on men and women, of life's journey and of womanhood. She exposes women's suffering under their husbands which include battering, shattering, wife neglect/abandonment. Other vices are discrimination against women and socio-cultural attitudes which hinder women's progress, empowerment and emancipation. Being aware of these unfair treatments and the unjustified discrimination against women in the society, the women in Alkali's text struggle for survival and independence. These she exposes through her female characters and the themes in her texts.

1.6.2 Themes in Zaynab Alkali's The Stillborn

Several themes abound in The Stillborn. There are major as well as minor themes which Alkali unveils in the text. One of the major themes is "male domination". The patriarchal system organized by men without consultation with women in Li's society favours men and oppresses women and females generally. Some examples of oppression by men are illustrated in the harsh manner Baba treats

his wife and children, especially the female children. Another instance is the way Garba treats Faku and his other wife. What Garba shamelessly says about the women that they are "slaving for men" (p.45) is an apt description about the status of women in the city as well as in the village. Thus, the women are like slaves and men are their masters. This is the type of domination that Li fights against in the text.

The theme of women liberation is also another major theme in the text. This theme fights against all forms of women oppression more especially the marriage institution. Alkali is not against marriage but wants women to relate in marriage on equal terms with men. However, Alkali makes women to realize that this can only be possible when women are not dependent on men for all their provisions or needs of life. In the text, the struggle for liberation centres around three women, Li, Faku and Grandma. Grandma does not succeed in liberating herself because she has no education and cannot earn a living on her own. She has to depend on men. Faku and Li on the other hand are educated. Education offers them the opportunity to break the bonds and barriers of village oppression. They now work, earn their living and fulfill their dreams of independent living (p.82).

Village and urban life constitute the minor themes in the text. The village life exposes life in the village; some of which are good while others are crude. Some of the good virtues of the village life are religious beliefs, worship, social gathering such as dancing under moonlight, farming, firewood fetching, etc. These portray an image of harmonious co-existence and stability in the village setting. However, some nasty life like gossips are occasionally heard. For instance, Grandma makes Manu's sexual impotence exposed to the general public (p.53). Habu is marked by failure (p.92),

Fiama by alcoholism (p.87) while Sule makes a blacksmsith's daughter pregnant and was disowned by his father (p.58).

The negative effects of town-life are illustrated by Garba, who almost ruined Faku and Habu through the temptations of town-life (p.45). Garba loves the life of pleasure of the town, the availability of free women, easy money and idle living (p.44). In the town women lay traps for men. Habu falls into such a trap, puts a woman in a family way, commits abortion and was forced into an unwanted marriage (p.91). Thus, town-life lures men to the town and ruins them.

1.6.3 The Similarities between Zaynab Alkali's The Stillborn and Flora Nwapa's Efuru

Nwapa's novel Efuru is a subversive novel which speaks on the surface of women's powerlessness yet celebrates their power Oha (1997:107). Her major concern is with gender and most importantly, with women's subjectivity in a male-dominated milieu. There exist similarities between Nwapa's Efuru and Alkali's The Stillborn despite the fact that Nwapa comes from Eastern Nigeria while Alkali is from the North.

The theme of wife neglect/abandonment is prevalent in both texts. Habu abandons his wife Li in the village while Adizua also abandons his wife Efuru in the village. Similarly, Habu had an illegitimate son born out of wedlock while Gilbert Efuru's second husband also had one.

The theme of liberation also abounds in Alkali's and Nwapa's works. Li liberates herself by acquiring the Nigeria Certificate in Education (NCE) which earned her a living while Efuru engages herself in trade and became prosperous.

Both texts have rural and urban settings which depict village life and town life with their peculiar social problems. Chukwuma (1980:115) remarks that:

> Nwapa presents Efuru as flesh and blood nursing her own dreams and aspirations being hurt and giving hurt and breaking with tradition when it chokes her.

From the above remarks about Efuru, one can also say that Li has experienced the same dreams, hurts and also breaking with tradition when it chokes her. Both Efuru and Li had dreams and aspirations. They expected love and happiness in marriage but their dreams were shattered. When both women were choked, they broke the traditional marriage norms and returned to their father's homes.

1.6.4 George Orwell's Ideologies

Orwell's critics discuss and examine the ideologies or beliefs which influence his writings a great deal. Rees (1961:60) asserts that Orwell satirizes the communist party in order to safeguard a socialist society against degeneration. Orwell therefore fights communism, fascism and unemployment. In the same vein Brander (1956:170) observes that Animal Farm is a little story about animals, with "satirical intent applied to Russia at one level, to all revolutions at another, and to human government in general". Each animal character in the text is a caricature of a human type, and everything the animals do caricatures human actions.

1.6.5 Themes in Orwell's Animal Farm

In the story Orwell explores quite a number of themes. The theme of greed is satirized in the novel and is illustrated by the pigs on Animal Farm. The pigs ascribe to themselves all the choicest food and drinks on the farm without taking the other animals into consideration. Only the pigs are allowed to eat apples and drink milk

because they are “absolutely necessary to the wellbeing of a pig” because pigs are “brain workers” (p.24).

Discrimination as a theme is also prevalent in the text. This could be traced to the pigs who claim to be superior to all other animals on the farm. Thus, “all animals are equal but some animals are more equal than others” (p.92). The Pigs now had established themselves in authority headed by Napoleon. They sit at table with some farmers during meetings drinking beer (p.93).

The theme of dictatorship is too pervasive to go unnoticed. Napoleon becomes ruthless to other animals who go against his constituted authority. For instance, he orders for the execution of the four pigs that had been secretly in touch with Snowball (p.57). The three hens who had been the ring leaders in the attempted rebellion over the production of eggs; a goose that ate up six ears of corn during their last year’s harvest are killed. The sheep that urinated in their drinking pool and other two sheep that murdered an old ram who was a devoted follower of Napoleon are all slain (p.58).This execution of opponents who revolt against a constituted authority is not a strange thing in politics today, more especially in military and dictatorial regimes.

Orwell’s Animal Farm therefore is an anatomy of the development of a totalitarian state (Brander, 1956:181). In each great revolutionary struggle the masses are led on by vague dreams of human brotherhood; and then,, when the new ruling class is established in power, they are thrust back into servitude. This nature of servitude is clearly explained by Rees (1961:60) when he observes that:

> Orwell saw the planned society of well-fed and contented slaves but later he was to foresee a similar state in which the slaves were even not fed – a society of oppressed animals ruled by Pigs.

1.7 Statement of the Problem

A linguistic study of modification in texts which stands at the centre of interest in this study has been neglected in earlier studies of the two texts under analysis. Modification as a linguistic concept is of great importance in language learning and teaching which should not be ignored by language teachers. Rathert (2007 Online) argues that:

> Pre- and postmodification of nouns is one of the most problematic areas of grammar for learners, yet you seldom see it dealt with full-on in teaching materials.

One of the complaints often made by West African Examinations Council (WAEC), National Examinations Council (NECO) examiners and language teachers has always been candidates'/students' poor knowledge of the grammatical functions of words in sentence structures (WAEC, 2004; NECO 2005 Examiners' Reports). Candidates' inability to identify or distinguish between modifiers and headwords, main and subordinate clauses as well as their functions is a serious impediment in language learning and teaching which call for a linguistic analysis of modification in texts.

The effective use of modifiers makes a difference between a "dull sentence" and an interesting one. Skilled writers often use modifiers as much as an artist uses colour to decorate his house for fanciful purpose. Similarly, modifiers are used for contrasts, emphasis and description and for shades of meaning. Adjectives and adverbs for instance, are used for making comparisons without which it becomes difficult to show similarity between two or more things in any given language.

The identification and application of modifiers in Zaynab Alkali's The Stillborn and George Orwell's Animal Farm constitute the thrust of this study. Orwell's and

Alkali's skills of description are analyzed paying special attention to the use of elements or components of modification; for instance, adjectives, adverbs, adjectives and adverbial clauses, quantifiers, intensifiers and qualifiers which determine to what extent the quantity or quality of something is and the degree of actions performed by characters in the texts under analysis.

Similarly, a great deal of comparatives and superlatives of regular adjectives are used to compare two or more characters or items to distinguish them from each other or from other categories. The application of the above components of modification in both spoken and written English often constitute problems to learners and users of the English Language.

Another area of interest in this study is to find out how and to what extent the gender of a writer affects modification of the texts that he/she creates. Gender, according to Arndt, Harvey and Nuttall, (2000:178), "reveals the emotive power of language use". This assertion applies to the use of modification in Alkali's and Orwell's works under review is of interest in this study.

This research therefore, aims at unraveling the extent to which Alkali and Orwell use various components of modification in their texts to achieve the aim and objectives for which they are used in the texts under study.

1.8 Research Questions

The specific questions which this study aims at answering include:

(i) How does Zaynab Alkali's style or form of modification in The Stillborn compare to or differ from George Orwell's Animal Farm?

(ii) To what extent are the components of modification, for instance, adjectives, adverbs and adverbials, used to modify characters, events, scenes and objects in Alkali's and Orwell's works?

(iii) To what extent do both authors use quantifiers, intensifiers and qualifiers as elements of modification?

(iv) How and to what extent do Alkali and Orwell employ the use of prepositional phrases, inflected adjectives i.e the Genitive (-s) the comparatives and superlatives ("-er and "-est" or "more" and "most") as well as the past and present participle of verb forms (-"ed" and "-ing") to modify or distinguish two or more characters from each other or from others?

(v) To what extent are literary devices such as fixed or poetic expressions, and idioms used to modify the texts under analysis?

(vi) How and to what extent does the gender of a writer have effect on modification of the texts that he/she creates?

(vii) To what extent do Alkali and Orwell use relative and adverbial clauses as styles or forms of modification?

1.9 Aim and Objectives of the Study

This study is guided by the following aim and objectives:

(i) to compare the effective use of modifiers as components of modification in Zaynab Alkali's The Stillborn and George Orwell's Animal Farm.

(ii) to determine whether adjectives are more extensively used than adverbs in the texts under analysis.

(iii) to determine the extent to which quantifiers, intensifiers and qualifiers are used to modify Alkali and Orwell's texts.

(iv) to find out to what extent prepositional phrases, inflected forms of adjectives i.e. the Genitive (-s) the comparative (-"er" and "more") and the superlative) "-est" and "most"), as linguistic elements are used to modify the texts under study.

(v) to identify to what extent poetic and idiomatic expressions are used as modifiers to modify the works of Alkali and Orwell.

(vi) to determine from our analyses whether gender has effect on the use of modifiers as elements of modification in texts.

(vii) to ascertain to what extent Alkali and Orwell use adjectival relative and adverbial clauses as styles or forms of modification.

1.10 Significance of the Study

This study contributes to the body of knowledge on the study of modification or the use of modifiers in texts, by providing different instances of styles of modification, for example, pre- and post-modification. The study also sheds more light on the types, use and usage of some modifiers found in English language.

The research will benefit students, teachers and future researchers by bringing to limelight the components of modification, for instance, adjectives, adverbs, quantifiers, intensifiers, prepositional phrases, etc.

Finally, the study has the potential of spurring further research in the study of modification in other texts, other literary works or students' written discourse.

1.11 Scope and Delimitation of the Study

This study is limited to the examination of the functions of modifiers in Zaynab Alkali's The Stillborn and George Orwell's Animal Farm by comparing the use of primary modifiers like adjectives, adjectival clauses, and prepositional phrases used as modifiers. Other primary modifiers include: adverbs and, adverbial clauses.

In examining the modifiers in the two texts, minor modifiers such as the definite article, "the" and the indefinite articles "a" and "an" are not considered as important modifiers for analysis. In this study, attention is focused particularly on the basic linguistic components of pre- and post-modification of the headwords that are identified in noun phrases in the sentences under analysis. It is anticipated that this analysis of the use of modifiers could afford useful and sufficient grounds for comments on modification in texts and other literary works or written discourse.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter examines literature relevant to this study. In this respect, the literature selected for review is divided into four:

(1) The first subdivision focuses on literature related to modifiers as linguistic elements.

(2) The second subdivision reviews literature items which focus on the structures of modification of texts.

(3) The third subdivision dwells on the examination of research works on types of modifiers and their positions in sentence structures; and

(4) The fourth subdivision reviews theoretical framework models and establishes the most appropriate framework of analysis used for the analysis of the data.

2.1 The Structure of Modification

Modifiers generally describe, identify and explain how people feel, tell them when, how and where an event takes place. Communication, therefore, would be made difficult without the use of modifiers. No wonder then, many linguists have discussed the types, functions, ordering and pedagogical implications of modifiers.

Aliyu (2001:143), for instance, lists some early grammarians who have looked at adverbs and adverbials, their mobile nature as well as their functions as modifiers in sentences. They include: Dionysius Thrax (c./ 400 – 100 BC), Jespersen (c 1800), Bloomfied and Gleason (1900), Chomsky and Lyons (1950). Dionysius describes the

adverb as “of speech without inflection in modification of, or in addition to a verb” (ibid, p. 138).

According to Aliyu (2001), the thinking and description of the parts of speech then were greatly influenced by what obtained in Greek grammar (400 – 100 BC) and Latin grammar (0 – 500 AD). Dionysius’ description of the adverb does not say much in terms of function; “a speech without inflection in modification or in addition to a verb, does not say anything about the components of modification. Notional definition of words was one of the problems of traditional grammar.

Adjectives and adverbs are modifiers. In other words, they are the parts of speech that slightly change the meaning of other words by adding description or by making them more specific. Adjectives modify nouns or pronouns, while adverbs modify verbs, adjectives and other adverbs in sentences. Forlini, Bauer, Capo, Kenyon, Shaw and Verner (1990:37) observe that without adjective, much of the colour in written and spoken language would be lost.

The problem of the teacher, student and many language users is to identify and decide what category a particular word should be assigned. Thornborrow and Wareing (1998:54) suggest that one way of doing this is to establish what the grammatical form of the word is. In other words, what it is actually doing and where it occurs in a sentence. One important thing to also observe is the relationship of the modifier to the headword in the sentence. It is with these views in mind that modifiers are examined from the perspectives of their types, characteristics, functions, inflections and comparisons in this study.

French (1963:9) states that “in most languages if not all, words are arranged in a certain fixed order in a sentence”. Thus, it could be observed that in English sentences, the arrangement is particularly important because the order in which the words are put determines the work that each word does in a phrase or a sentence. Modifiers for instance co-occur with their headwords to modify them in phrase or sentence structures.

Arndt et al (2000:47) observe that language is by nature structured. It follows from this that the structure of a language is supported by the existence of rules which allow the speakers of the language to say whether the statement is acceptable or unacceptable within the structured framework of the language concerned. The notion of structure in this work is the patterns of modification of some English sentences in the two selected texts for analysis.

Christophersen and Sandved (1967:233) add that English sentences do not consist of isolated words but cluster together into larger structures. They further assert that the structure of modification contains the head and a modifier.

For instance:

Fresh “air” helps.

The subject of the above sentence is “fresh air”, which is an example of a structure of modification with “air” as the headword while “fresh” is the modifier. Their other examples include:

> “old car”, with nominal “car” as head and “old” as modifier, “can/will remember”, with the main verb “remember” as head “can” and “will” as modifiers. “very good”, with the adjectival “good” as the head and the intensifier “very” as the modifier, “very quickly” with the adverbial “quickly” as head and the intensifier “very” as the modifier (ibid, p.235).

To Robert and Valin (2001:4), relational structure encompasses relationships like “modifiers” and the “modified”, for instance, in “tall building” and “walk slowly” where “tall” (adjective) and “slowly” (adverb) function as modifiers and “building” and “walk” as the modified (heads).

Gleason (1965:146) opines that in linguistic analysis, modifiers are generally written on slant lines below the base line and that there is no distinction between various types of modifiers. Those hung from verb lines are adverbs, while those attached to the subject and noun complement lines are all considered as adjectives. He illustrates with a diagram using the following sentence:

“The big black bear ran away quickly”

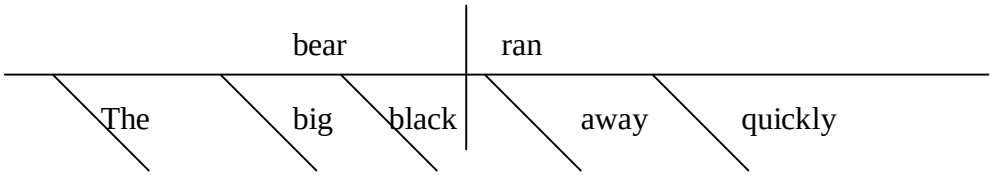


Fig. 3: Structure of Modification in a Simple Sentence

Implicit from the above diagram are multiples of modifiers. The definite article, “the” with “big” and “black” which function as adjectives premodify the headword “bear”, while “away” and “quickly” are adverbs which postmodify “bear”. In English, when modifiers are carefully selected and used according to the rules of the language, they express the unique slant of the situation being captured with such words.

Similarly, Forlini et al (1990:85) agree with Gleason above when they say that adjectives and adverbs are placed on slanted lines below the word they modify. They illustrate with a diagram using the following sentence:

"The very tasty dessert has been prepared quite easily
Adv. Adj. **Adv. Adv.**

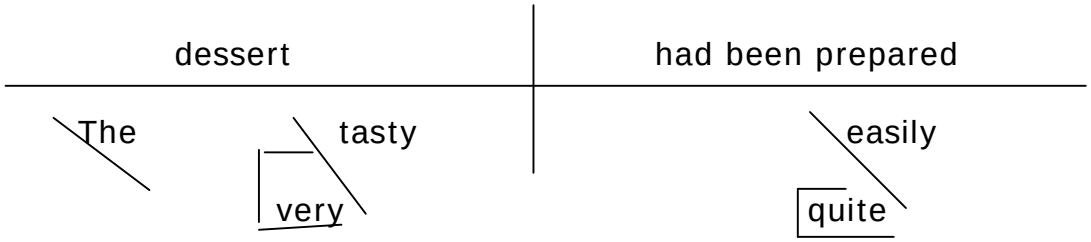


Fig. 4: Structure of Modification in a Simple Sentence

Osisanwo (1999:39) points out that the structure of modification in noun phrase contains the headword represented by "h" which is obligatory in the nominal group. The prehead information is termed modifier represented by the symbol "m" while the postheaded information is termed qualifier with the symbol "q". The modifier and qualifier are optional in sentence constructions. He cites the following examples:

(i)	m	m	h
	the	old	woman
(ii)	h	q	
	John	the	barber

From the noun phrases exemplified above, it is clear that the elements of nominal group structure are "m", "h", and "q" and that the head of a nominal group is always a noun.

National Teachers' Institute (NTI) (2000:144) cites some examples of structures of nominal group as follows:

"Lazy students" – adjective premodifier
"The boy" – determiner premodifier
"Stone walls" – noun premodifier
"The man there" – adverb postmodifier
"The principal of the college" – prepositional phrase postmodifier

"The person to fear" – infinitive postmodifier
"The girl who broke the plate" – adjectival clause postmodifier.

Leech and Svartvik (2002:331) observe that determiners are more essential to noun phrase structure than modifiers. According to them, the only situation in which a noun phrase has no expressed determiner is where it has a "zero article". They cite the following examples of modification in noun phrase structure:

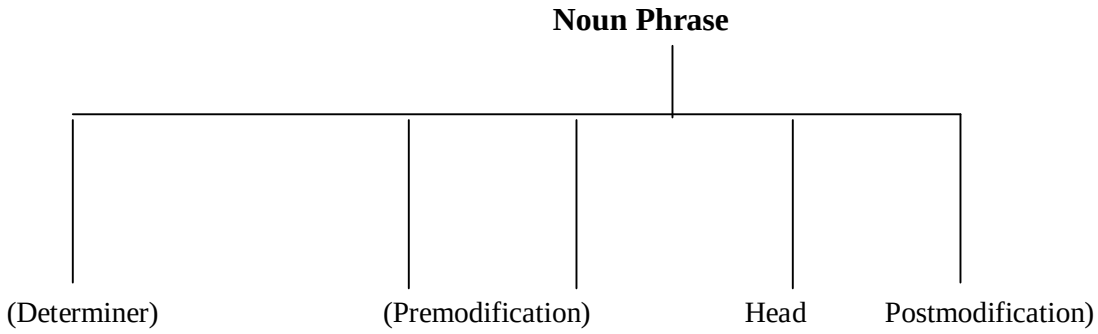


Fig. 5 : Structure of Noun Phrase (NP)

The brackets indicate that the determiners and modifiers can be left out in sentence structure.

This implies that determiners and modifiers are not obligatory in sentence structures. This is because they could be excluded in a sentence structure and the sentence can still be intelligible, except that it has lost its flavour. The definiteness and quality of what is said are lost when the definite article and modifiers are excluded in sentence structures.

2.1.1 Ordering of Modifiers

Osisanwo (1999:40) asserts that in the modifier position in English, some specific word classes have a particular sequence of occurrence in the nominal group (NG) structure. According to him:

Coming first we have deictic at which operates determiners such as “the”. Following deictic we have ordinal at which operates numerals such as “two”, “three” or “four”. Coming next is epithet at which operates adjectives such as “beautiful”, “white” or “big”. The final in the sequence is nominal at which operates nouns joining in premodification of the headword. For example:

d	o	e	n	h
The	four	tall	iron	(gates)

d	o	e	n	h
The	two	old	rubber	(bats)

In the above illustrations the two NGs show the elements of the structures where “d” stands for “determiner”, o for “ordinal”, “e” for epithet, “n” for nominal and “h” for headword. The sequence or order in which the modifiers occur above can never be changed or else the structure of the (NG) would be erroneous. For instance, we cannot say The tall iron four gates or The old two rubber bats.

In the same vein, Olu Tomori (2004:58) says that it is possible to have at least eleven modifiers each occupying a unique position relative to the others as the following structure shows:

11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	H
All	the	first	five	strong	huge	rotound	young	white	African	sea	horses
both	my										
half	our										
most of	your										
some of	his										
	her										
	their										
	those										
	these										

The ordering of the modifiers starts from 11-1. This means that words in position 11 must come before those in 10, those in 10 before those in 9 and so on.

The qualifier which is also an element of NG structure admits items ranging from single words to whole sentences as the following illustrations show:

Word as NG qualifier:

h q
Nothing/useful (q = adjective)
Group as NG qualifier
m n q
The carpenter/next door (q = NG)
Clause as NG qualifiers
m h q
The house/which he built (q = finite clause)
Ibid (pp. 40-41)

2.2 Modifiers

Modifiers are words used in syntax which limit or qualify a headword in a noun or verb phrase. Sometimes, linguists limit this term to pre-nominal constructions, for instance: “the four tall boys”, where “the”, “four” and “tall” modify the headword “boys”.

Wikipedia (2007 online) states that modifiers can be adjectives, adverbs, absolute phrases, infinitive phrases, participle phrases, prepositional prhases, adjective clauses and adverb clauses. Wikipedia however, remains silent about quantifiers, intensifiers and qualifiers which are also components of modification. The types of modifiers exemplified by Wikipedia include:

adjective - poor
adverb - quickly
absolute phrase – a sight requiring a year of therapy before Stephen could eat eggs again.
infinitive phrase – to get through his biology lab.

participle phrase – gagging with disgust.
prepositional phrase – on the cafeteria tray.
adjective clause – who just wanted a quick meal.
adverb clause – as a tarantula wiggled out of his cheese omelet.

According to Morley (1985:12), elements of the noun phrase group which precede the head may be classed as modifiers and those which follow it are qualifiers. Thus, from Morley's definition of modifiers, it can be inferred that modifiers and qualifiers are identified by their positions in relation to the headword.

The relationship of modifiers and qualifiers to the headword is a structural one. However, modifiers do not just occur arbitrarily but follow a sequential order of occurrence in sentence structures. For instance, the structure "good very student" is anomalous, but "very good student" which adheres to the structural pattern of English is not.

According to Napoli (1996:314), adjective phrases modify nouns (e.g. "shallow skin"), adverb phrases modify adjectives (e.g. "comfortingly warm"). Adverb phrases also modify verbs as "comfortingly" describes "warmth" and "quickly" describes the verb "run". Thus, "shallow", "comfortingly" and "quickly" are modifiers.

Olu-Tomori (2004:57) asserts that all the constituents of a group that come before the head, if there is one, are known as modifiers. These constituents of a group referred to above are of course the premodifiers.

Hardie (1999:168) clarifies modifiers and their positions in sentence structures, when he states that any modifying word which comes in front of a noun, can be referred to as "premodifier" and those modifiers that come after the noun are called "postmodifiers", for instance:

a young beautiful girl (premodifiers)

The girl who sat near Ali (postmodifiers)

Premodifiers therefore, are those modifiers placed before the headword of a noun phrase, e.g. “we had a pleasant holiday”. Modifiers that follow after the headword are called postmodifiers.

Singleton (2000:9) observes that modifiers occur before the headwords. He provides the following example:

“The “wolf”, “the large wolf”, “the extremely large wolf under the tree”.

The above example shows a clear modification process in the noun phrase. The headword “wolf” has been given multiples of premodifiers which state something about the size of the ‘wolf”. The prepositional phrase “under the tree” postmodifies the headword, providing more information about the place where the wolf is located.

Scott, Bowley, Brockett, Brown and Goddard (1968:37) identify the complex nominal group and cites an example of it as follows:

“The famous bearded cricketer with the notorious thirst”.

From the above example, the headword is “cricketer”. The premodifiers are “the”, “famous” and “bearded”. The group “with the notorious thirst”, functions as the qualifier. The head of a nominal group is usually a noun or a pronoun. The modifiers may however belong to a number of different word classes, while qualifiers may be words, phrases or clauses that follow the headword in sentence structures.

Leech and Svartvick (2002:364) identify some types of premodifiers which are modifiers placed after determiners but before the head of a noun phrase. They further identify other types of premodifiers as follows:

Adjectives as premodifiers:
We had a peasant holiday this year.
"-ing" participles as premodifiers:
The developing countries.
"-ed" participles.
A retired teacher.
Nouns as premodifiers:

The passenger liner dropped anchor in the harbour (ibid p. 364).

In the above examples, the headwords are premodified by the underlined words.

Quirk and Greenbaum (2000:399) unveil another type of premodifier which they refer to as "genitive". The genitive ending "s" can often be used with the same meaning as an "of" phrase, especially where the genitive has human reference, for instance:

"This nasty women's clothing"

Thus, "women's" in the above phrase would mean "this nasty clothing belonging to (or designed for) women". Similarly, "a man's old bicycle" could mean "the bicycle belonging to an old man or an old bicycle designed for a man (or even a bicycle designed for an old man)" (ibid, p. 399).

According to Hornby (1975:151), "genitive" means "possession", "to belong", "own" or "possess" something. Hornby opines that the word can be used in a wide sense to refer to characteristics, origin or relationship which can be expressed in various ways by the use of the verb "have", for instance:

They have a large garden.

Thus, Hornby's definition of genitive to some extent differs from Quirk and Greenbaum's. While Quirk and Greenbaum restrict it to genitive use of "s" e.g.

"women's", "men's" etc., Hornby declares that it can be expressed by using the modal verb "have", as exemplified above.

Quirk and Greenbaum (2000:143) observe that some prepositional (phrase) uses may best be elucidated by seeing a preposition as related to a clause (i.e. as a modifier). For instance:

The man with the red hat. The man who has a red hat.

In the first sentence above, the prepositional phrase "with the red hat" modifies the subject "the man". Similarly, the adjectival clause "who has the red hat" in the second sentence also modifies the subject "the man". "Who has the red hat" is also referred to as a relative clause. Relative clauses are introduced by relative pronouns. "who" or "whom". The relative clause does not only relate its clause to its antecedent, it also functions as a substitute within the noun phrase structure. For example:

The parents wanted to meet the boy who was going out with their daughter

The subordinate relative clause who was going out with their daughter postmodifies the main clause. "The parents wanted to meet the boy".

Similarly, Christophersen and Sandved (1969:236) state that a very common type of modifier with a nominal head is a prepositional phrase. Such modifiers are normally found "after" the head (i.e. they modify the headword predicatively). For example:

"The man in the room"
"The books on the table"
"A work of no interest"

Some adjectives are only used attributively when they precede headwords in nominal group structures. Such adjectives however do not directly characterize the noun referent. For example, when one says "an old student" it does not necessarily

imply that the student is old, rather, the implication is that the person referred to has been a student for a long time. Therefore, "old" does not characterize the noun "student" but "studentship".

However, Christophersen and Sandved observe that sometimes in journalistic style, the prepositional phrase modifier is put first as illustrated below:

An on-the-spot investigation.
An off-the-record remark.

Though the above examples of the use of prepositional phrases are attributed to journalists, they also suggest that modifiers could precede the head or follow it in a modification structure. Thus, "on the spot" and "off-the-record" premodify the headwords "investigation" and "remark" respectively.

Some examples of types of postmodifiers in noun phrases include:

Prepositional Phrase

A nice young woman <u>in jeans</u> was watching me.

Appositive Clause:

There is no getting away from the fact <u>that inflation is causing hardship</u>.

Adverbs:

Where is the way <u>out</u>?

Adjectives

There is nothing <u>new</u> about these techniques (ibid, p.360).

In the examples above, the underlined words or phrases are the postmodifiers.

According to Aremo (2004:226), the most common types of postmodifiers (modifiers which come after the head) in the noun phrase in simple sentences are

prepositional phrases. A prepositional phrase consists of a preposition (e.g. on, in) followed by a noun, a noun phrase or a pronoun; for example:

He put it on the table
She came in the morning

Quirk and Greenbaum (2000:386) remark that non-restrictive postmodification can also be achieved with non-finite clauses. They cite the following example:

The apple tree swaying gently in the breeze had a good crop of fruit

In the above text, the structure, "swaying gently in the breeze" postmodifies the head "apple tree".

Barr (1992:355) observes that prepositional phrases could function either as adjective or adverbial phrase. The following structures illustrate the point:

(i) The man from the repair house fixed it.

(ii) He walked across the hall.

In sentence (i) above, the structure "from the repair house" functions as an adjective phrase, which says something about the man who fixed it or repaired it. The structure "across the hall" in sentence (ii) is an adverbial phrase which denotes the direction where the man walked.

2.2.1 Some types of Modifiers and their Usage

According to Aremo (2004:281), modification simply means the use of modifiers to expand sentences with pre and post-modifiers of various kinds. He further observes that coordinated attributive and post-posed adjectives function as modifiers within some nominal parts. For instance:

(i) All the beautiful but less fascinating ladies protested.

(ii) They buy new or used cars.

(iii) Then, we saw a large, round and shining object.

(iv) He is a man soft-spoken, reasonable and persuasive (ibid, p.283).

An attributive adjective premodifies the headword in a sentence, while a postposed adjective follows the item it modifies. Thus, in sentence (i) above, "beautiful", "less" and "fascinating" function as attributive adjectives. They premodify the headword "ladies". The "-ing" participle "fascinating" is used to modify "ladies". In sentence (ii), "new" and "used" also function as attributive adjectives. They premodify the head "cars". The "-ed" participle "used" modifies "cars". Similarly, "a large", "round" and "shining" modify "object" in sentence (iii). In sentence (iv), "soft-spoken", "reasonable" and "persuasive" are postposed adjectives. They postmodify the headword "man".

Robert (1964:232) observes that modification in sentence structure provides clear identity of people or objects that are being described or referred to in sentences. He cites examples of modification by adjectival clauses as follows:

(a) The men who were in the street.

(b) The men who were wounded by the explosion.

In the above examples, the relative clauses in (a) "who were in the street" and (b) "who were wounded by the explosion", identify or distinguish the men that were being referred to from other men who in (a) may be standing or walking somewhere and in (b) other men who may be wounded by gunshots or spears.

Thus, modifiers enable speakers or writers to accurately transfer the image or feeling that they have in their minds into the minds of their listeners or readers.

Close (1975:2-3), states that nominal groups such as the headmaster's "desk", in which "desk" is the head and in which "headmaster's" modifies the headword "desk" is another form of modification in a nominal group. He cites other examples of modification in pronominal groups as follows: We all and everyone in our class in which the pronouns "we" and "everyone" function as headwords while "all" used as the quantifier and "in our class", used as qualifier function as modifiers.

Halliday (1961:257), uses the names modifier (M), head (H) and qualifier (Q) to explain the concept of modification. He provides the following structure to clarify his point:

The	house	on the corner
(M)	(H)	(Q)

From the above structure, "the" which is a determinative, functions as a modifier of the headword "house" while the group of words "on the corner" functions as the qualifier of the headword. Qualifiers postmodify headwords in sentence constructions, by providing additional information about the headword. The prepositional phrase: "on the corner" identifies which house is being referred to, or where it is located. The identification and understanding of the function of qualifiers are of paramount importance to this study.

Rutherford (1968:46-50) exemplifies how modification is realized through transformation, explication, integration, restatement, guided reply and expansion using the following examples:

Transformation:

The club for the faculty
"The faculty club".

Explication:

The people are in the office
The "people" "in the office" (are very helpful)
The "office people" (are very helpful).

Integration:

He's a man
He's "big"
He's "a big" man.

Restatement:

It's a matter of importance
It's "an important" matter.

Guided Reply:

Is that a bookshelf?
No, it's a shelf ("for toys")

Expansion:

Mailman
The man delivers "the mail".

Thus, the functions of the words in quotation marks and those in brackets in the second modified structures function as premodifiers or postmodifiers of the headwords they modify. They also serve to illustrate how headwords can either be premodified or postmodified in sentence structures.

Asher and Simpson (1994:1529) explain the basic notion of head and modifier relationships. Using the phrase "extremely heavy books", they argue that the adverb "extremely" says more about the adjective "heavy" while "heavy" in turn gives more information about the noun "books", which functions as the headword in the above construction. They assert that this intuition can be justified grammatically in that there must be an element for an adverb like "extremely" to say something about an adjective while it is possible to have an adjective like "heavy" without the adverb. Similarly, an adjective like "heavy" cannot occur without a noun but a noun can occur without an

adjective. Thus, in the modification process “extremely” and “heavy”, “heavy” premodifies “books” and conversely, “books” is the head of the construction “extremely heavy books” (ibid, p.1529).

Matthews (1997:229) agrees with Asher and Simpson above when he states that “modification is a type of syntactic construction in which a head is accompanied by an element typically not required by it”. Thus, in Matthew’s opinion, nouns in general do not necessarily require accompanying adjectives. For instance in the following sentence:

I like white chocolate.

The construction of the object of the sentence “white chocolate” is one in which the adjective “white” premodifies the headword “chocolate”. It could be argued here, that the accompanying adjective “white” is optional in the construction: “I like white chocolate”. This is because the adjective “white” could be excluded from the construction to have a new sentence:

I like chocolate.

Quite a number of idioms if examined closely would reveal that they also consist of nominal groups. Akinwale (2005:149), observes that such nominal groups “reflect a structural pattern of “a modifier” + “head” + “qualifier”, the qualifier itself being “a prepositional group”. For instance:

a drop in the ocean, a skeleton in the cupboard and a thorn in the flesh.

Akinwale further states that some idioms are made up of prepositional groups alone. Examples of this subtype include: in a nutshell, out of touch, to the letter.

In the above examples, “nutshell”, “touch” and “letter” function as headwords, while “in a”, “out of” and “to the” function as modifiers of the headwords.

Greenbaum and Quirk (1990:82) observe that English has fixed expressions which they refer to as “idiomatic fixity”. “Fixity” is particularly notable with some common prepositional phrases. Greenbaum and Quirk cite the following as instances:

“On foot,” “in step” “out of step, “in turn”, and by heart “in case of” and “with intent to”. The prepositions, “on”, “out of”, “in” and “big” function as modifiers. They modify the nouns that follow after them. The prepositions “of” and “to” which come after “case” and “intent” in the last two examples above function as qualifiers because they provide additional information about the headwords.

2.3 Headwords

The nominal group structure is made up of three elements of modifier represented by the symbols M, for modifier, H for head and Q for qualifier. This structure has a noun as its head, with a modifier occurring in a prehead position and a qualifier in a posthead position. For instance:

m	h	q
our	teacher is	very kind

It is important to note that not every element of a group structure functions as headword. The determiner “the” for example can never function as headword. Only nouns, pronouns and nominalization can operate at headword level as the following illustrations show: good <u>boys</u> (noun), <u>He</u> is handsome (pronoun), the <u>writing</u> of the book in which “writing” functions as an example of nominalization in the last structure.

Loratim-Uba in Ugbabe (2001:46) asserts that deictic elements in English occur in the Nominal Group (NG) and are optional elements that usually precede the obligatory headword in the NG structure as follows:

(m) (h), (q)

Loratim-Uba further points out that the deictic modifier element has the following internal structure at its tertiary degree of delicacy and provides the following illustration:

D

D_1 D_2 D_3

Implicit from the above illustration, is that pre-determiners operate at D1, determiner proper at D2 and post-determiner at D3 in combined modification of the headword as the following analysis portrays:

All	the	other	professors
D_1	D_2	D_3	H

Olu-Tomori (2004:57) identifies the structure of nominal group which consists of M H Q. It follows therefore, that of the three elements M, H and Q, both M and Q are optional while H is obligatory.

According to Halliday (2002:108), the modifier-head structure may be represented by m, h or interchangeably h, m (head – modifier).

The above example suggests that a headword could be premodified or postmodified by placing a modifier before or after it.

Osisanwo (2004:39) agrees with Olu Tomori above when he says that while the obligatory member of the nominal group is called the headword, the pre-headword information is termed modifier and the post-headword information is termed qualifier.

Osisanwo further identifies four structural types of nominal group in English and illustrates as follows: h, mh, hq and mhq representing head, modifier head, head qualifier and modifier head qualifier.

Hardie (1999:12) states that a noun phrase may consist of more than one word. One of these words, a noun or pronoun, is the "headword". The other words describe or modify the headword. Hardie cites the following examples:

> The tall girl.
> A striking beautiful girl.
> The tall girl with green eyes (ibid, p.121).

Leech (1983:181) observes that pronouns could also function as headwords in sentence structures as the following illustrations show:

(i) I order you to stand up

(ii) I order them to stand up.

In the illustrations above, "you" in sentence (i) and "them" in (ii) function as headwords. Since pronouns function as nouns in sentence structures, they could equally function as heads of nominal group structures.

Morley (1985:12) asserts that the head element is the main or focal element of the nominal group on which all other elements in the group depend syntactically and that modifiers and qualifiers are thus identified by position in relation to the headword.

Leech and Svartvik (2002:330) emphasize the importance of the presence of headword in a noun phrase when they say, "A noun phrase is called a noun phrase because the word which is its head (i.e. main part) is typically a noun". Thus, from Leech and Svartvik's emphasis, it can be deduced that the noun phrase cannot exist without the headword.

Quirk and Greenbaum (2000:117-8) observe that adjectives can function as heads of noun phrases. As such, they do not inflect for number or for the genitive case and must take a definite determiner and that most commonly, such adjectives have personal references, for instance:

The extremely cold need a great deal of attention.

We will nurse your sick and feed your hungry.

The adjectives "cold", "sick" and "hungry" function as headwords in the examples provided above. "Cold" is premodified by the intensifier "extremely" while "sick" and "hungry" are premodified by the possessive pronoun "your". They are instances of premodification because the modifiers in the above examples precede the headwords.

Quirk et al (1985:65) state that adjective phrases consist of an adjective as head, optionally preceded and followed by modifying elements. They illustrate using the following sentence:

The weather was too hot enough to be enjoyed.

In the above text, "too" which is an intensifier premodifies the adjective "hot" which is the headword. The other modifying structure enough to be enjoyed, functions as a qualifier. However, semantically, "too hot" would normally require a qualifier as completive at the end of the sentence in which it occurs, e.g. "the tea is too hot to drink".

Quirk et al further remark that an adverb may premodify an adjective or another adverb. They cite instances of both cases respectively as follows:

(a) That was a very funny film.

(b) They are smoking very heavily (ibid, p.65).

Quirk et al opine that the modifying adverb is an intensifier and the most frequently used intensifier is “very”.

Aremo (2004:222) observes that a noun may be used as a premodifier to another noun functioning as a headword. As premodifiers in the noun phrase, nouns usually come after adjectives and take the position closest to the noun head. Some few examples include:

(i) City boys are fashionable.

(ii) City electrification requires a lot of money.

In the above examples, “boys” and “electrification” are the headwords which are modified by the noun “city” which is a noun but performs the function of an adjective. Modification of a noun by another noun can only occur when the noun takes the position closest to the noun head in the sentence structure.

2.4 Qualifiers

Osisanwo (2004:39) states that the post-headword information is termed qualifier with the symbol “q” used for it. In other words, a word or group of words which limits or extends the meaning of another word is termed a qualifier. For instance:

All the kiosks near the library will be demolished.

The prepositional phrase, “near the library” which provides more information identifying the particular kiosks that will be demolished serves as the qualifier of the kiosks that will be demolished. These particular kiosks are made distinct from other kiosks which may be located opposite or far away from the library.

Wikipedia (2007 online) refers to qualifier as a word or phrase that changes how absolute, certain or generalized a statement is. Wikipedia identifies four types of qualifiers which include:

(a) Qualifiers of quantity: some, most, all, none etc.

(b) Qualifiers of time: occasionally, sometimes, now and again, always, never etc.

(c) Qualifiers of certainty: I guess, I think, I know, I am absolutely certain etc.`

(d) Qualifiers of relative quality: best, worst, finest, sharpest, heaviest, etc.

Thus, qualifiers show how convinced or committed speakers are to accept or reject an idea or a thing. Qualifiers are often used unintentionally, and they act as signals flagging the speaker's inner thoughts.

Morley (1985:12) declares that in the nominal groups, the qualifier elements may consist of a single word as in:

"The president elect" or a prepositional group, e.g. "his most amazing feat of eloquence" or even in a defining relative clause e.g. "the achievement that John treasures most".

Olu-Tomori (2004:59) agrees with Morley above when he observes that qualifiers can be single words like "upstairs" or groups like "in the room" or clause like "who came here yesterday". He cites the following examples of types of qualifiers"

(1) Single words: e.g. :upstairs" as in "the man upstairs"

(2) Groups and phrases "in the room" as in "the man in the room" and "to see" in "the man to see is John".

(3) Clauses – e.g. “who came here yesterday”, as “in the man who came here yesterday”.

Qualifiers are established in modification structures when they postmodify headwords. It does not matter whether it is a single word as it is the case in (i), in group as in (ii) or in clause as in (iii) above.

Prepositional phrases constitute quite a great deal of elements of modification in texts. Aremo (2004:42) observes that a prepositional phrase is basically an item consisting of:

a preposition and a noun (e.g. from India)
a preposition and noun phrase (e.g. with a trap)
a preposition and a pronoun (e.g. against us).

As is clear from the above illustrations, prepositional phrases are also elements of modification because they identify places, noun phrases and pronouns in sentence structures.

Huddleston and Pullum (2002 online) define a relative clause as a subordinate clause that modifies a noun. For example, the noun phrase, “The man who wasn’t there”, contains the noun “man” which is modified by the relative clause “who wasn’t there”. The examples illustrate that relative clauses function as modifier. They modify the main clauses in sentence structures of complex sentences. Their functions as modifiers make them relevant in this study.

Wikipedia (2007 on line) identifies some types of postmodifiers as follows:

Finite clauses:	“the girl who lives next door”
Non-finite clauses:	“a letter written by my grandfather”
Verbless clauses:	“the contestants, some of them primary school children”
Prepositional phrases:	“friends from Boston”
Adjectival phrases:	“the road back”

Reflexive pronouns	"Li herself"
Noun phrases:	"Shoes this size"
Appositive phrases:	"My husband George"

Meyers (1974:177) also comments that relative embedded sentence is a modifier of the equivalent noun phrase in the outer sentence. Meyers illustrates qualifier with the following sentence:

The woman who had a green hat started her car

In the above sentence, the embedded part of the sentence "who had a green hat" modifies "the woman". Meyers opines that a relative embedded sentence should be kept next to its equivalent noun phrase or else the modifier will be in a misplaced position which is not acceptable.

NTI (2004:104) also observes that qualifiers can be single words, groups, phrases and clauses. For example:

Single words: outside (the dog "outside")

Groups and phrases: "in the class", "the voice on the phone".

Clauses: "who joined the class last year".

It is not usual to use a large number of qualifiers after the head. The number of qualifiers that can normally be used after the head should not exceed two or three (ibid, p.104).

Hartmann and Stork (1972:143) refer to post-nominal constructions as qualifiers. For instance, "boys of certain ages". Thus, "of certain ages" qualifies the head "boys" in this group.

2.5 Quantifiers

Other important linguistic elements used in modification are the quantifiers. Hardie (1999:156) remarks that quantifiers are used to indicate the amount or quantity

of something referred to by a noun. They differ from numbers because they indicate an approximate amount rather than an exact amount. For instance, “all”, “some”, “any”, “much”, “enough” and “no”.

Hardie further states that quantifiers are used to express “graded” amount of items. “Graded” means that the quantity extends from a low point on a scale to a higher point. For example:

> “Many”, “more”, “most”, are used with graded quantities of plural count nouns.
> “Much”, “more”, “most” are used with graded quantities of an uncount noun.
> “Few”, “fewer”, “fewest” are used with graded quantities of plural count nouns and “little”, “less”, “least” are used with graded quantities of uncount nouns.

This implies that there are rules that govern the use of quantifiers, just like there are rules that govern the use of other grammatical elements. For instance, a quantifier which should precede a plural count noun cannot be used before an uncount noun, e.g. “many sugar” but “much sugar”, nor “less books” but “few books” when reference is to the quantity of sugar or number of books. In which case, it is appropriate to say, “many boys”, “much food”, “few books”, “little oil” while “many”, “much”, “few” and “little” function as modifiers of “boys”, “food”, “books” and “oil”.

Nnorom (2004) who argues that quantifiers have a limited distribution that depends on the countability of the nouns they correlate with, groups quantifiers into three distinct groups as follows:

(a) Quantifiers that correlate with count nouns:

Many trees	several trees
A few trees	a couple of trees
Few trees	some trees

(b) Quantifiers which co-occur with non-count nouns

Not much dancing	A great deal of dancing	A little dancing
A good deal of dancing	A bit of dancing	No dancing

(c) Quantifiers which co-occur with both count and non-count nouns

All of the trees/dancing	A lot of the trees/dancing
Some of the trees/dancing	Lots of the trees/dancing
Most of the trees/dancing	Plenty of the trees/dancing
Enough of the trees/dancing	A lack of the trees/dancing

The illustrations above portray typical examples of noun phrases. The quantifiers function as premodifiers of the headwords. In group (a), the headwords are 'trees" while in group (b), the headwords are "dancing" and in group (c) the headwords are "'trees", while "dancing" functions as qualifiers providing more information about the "trees".

According to Hartmann and Stork (1972:190), "quantifier is a word indicating quantity used to modify another word or group of words. For instance: numerals like 'two', 'twenty' or words like "much", "several" "few" etc. Thus, while Hardie above excludes numbers in his definition of quantifiers, Hartmann and Stork admit numbers as quantifiers.

Leech and Svartvik (2002:376) opine that quantifiers are words such as "all", "any", "some", "nobody" which denote quantity or amount. They can function both as determiners "some people" and pronouns "some of the people". There are also two sets of pronouns with "personal" reference: one set ending in "body" ("everybody"; "something", "anybody", "nobody") and another one ending in "one", "(everyone", "someone", "anyone", "no one") both sets with personal reference have a genitive form: "everybody's", "everyone's" which functions as quantifiers.

Pronouns and quantifiers especially reflexive pronouns and genitives, therefore function as modifiers. Genitives show possession e.g. "John's book", while reflexive pronouns function as qualifiers e.g. "John himself".

Quirk et al (1985:261-2) identify the following types of quantifiers:

(a) Cardinal numerals e.g. “my three children”

(b) Ordinal numerals and general ordinals e.g. “the first day”, the “last month”.

(c) Closed class quantifiers, e.g. “few people”.

(d) Open class quantifiers, e.g. “a large number of people”.

“Many” “a (few)” and “several” co-occur only with plural count nouns. For instance:

There were { too many / only a few / very few / several } mistakes in our essay

“Much” and “a (little)” co-occur only with non-count nouns. For example

She hasn’t got much money
She has only got a little money.

Other examples of quantifiers include: “plenty”, “a lot”, “a great deal”, “a good number of” (ibid, p.263).

The above examples explicate how quantifiers co-occur with plural count nouns. “too many”, “only a few”, “very few” and “several” modify the headword “mistakes” which is a plural count noun.

Palmer (1984:183) cites some examples of quantifiers using two sentences to illustrate their mobile nature in sentences as follows:

Many men read few books
Few books are read by many men.

Thus, the passive transformation in (ii) above changes the order of the two noun phrases and their quantifiers. This means that the positions of quantifiers are not static but mobile in nature, depending on whether the sentence is an active or a passive construction. Similarly. Quirk and Greenbaum (2000:220) add that some of the quantifiers must be analyzed as direct objects, because they can be made the subject of the passive form of the sentence.

For instance:

(i) They paid a lot for those pictures. (ii) A lot was paid (by them) for those pictures.

Huddleston (1995:85) observes that quantifiers as cardinal numerals are “two”, “three”, etc. and some embedded noun phrases expressing quantification. For example, “a dozen”, “two dozens” and “a few eggs”.

Gleason (1965:411) observes that there can be two slots before the numeral. For instance, “all”, “both” and “half” can precede “the” “this”, “that” and “his”. Constructions such as “all the men”, “both these books”, “half that quantity”, are common in sentence structures.

Robert and Valin (2001:8) remark that in English, quantifiers which express quantity-related concepts, include: “every”, “each”, “all”, “many”, and “few” as well as the numerals “one”, “two”, “three”, etc. For example, “every boy”, “many books”, “the seven sisters”.

Quirk and Greenbaum (2000:382) observe that headwords could be quantified attributively, i.e. by placing quantifiers before them. For example: “all” men, “many” boys, few books etc.

Radford (1997:158) identifies some quantified expressions as follows:

(a) They are both helping her.

(b) We can all work harder.

(c) You will each receive a present.

The words, "both", "all" and "each" are separated from their subjects, "they", "we" and "you" which they quantify. When quantifiers appear in such constructions, they are referred to as floating quantifiers because they do not directly modify the headwords. This is because the auxiliary verbs "can" and "will" occur between the quantifiers and their subjects in the above examples.

Quirk et al (1985:308) also identify what they refer to as "quantitative nouns" which have zero plurals when they are premodified by another quantitative word. For example:

> Three dozen glasses, two hundred people, many thousand times, several million inhabitants.

However, they also observe that the plural form is normally used with all four nouns when an "of phrase" follows with or without a preceding indefinite quantitative word. For instance:

(many) dozens of glasses.
(many) hundreds of people.
(several) thousands of spectators.
(a few) millions of inhabitants.

Other possible combinations according to them are:

Tens of thousands of people.
Hundreds of millions of stars.
Hundreds (and hundreds (and hundreds) of times (ibid, p.308).

Thus, we can have zero plural as well as plurals depending on what follow the quantifiers. When quantifiers premodify other quantifiers, they have zero plurals, e.g. "three dozen glasses". But when quantifiers are followed by an "of" phrase, they have plural forms e.g. "many dozens of glasses".

Lewis in Keenan (1975:3) classifies adverbs of quantification into six groups as follows:

(1) Always, invariably, universally, without exception.

(2) Sometimes, occasionally (once).

(3) Never

(4) Usually, mostly, generally, almost, with few exceptions (ordinarily, normally).

(5) Often, frequently, commonly

(6) Seldom, infrequently, rarely, almost, never

These are adverbs which also function as quantifiers, because they determine the amount of time, for instance, how often or seldom something happens. Some of the adverbs like "normally", "generally" and "never" could function as adverbs of manner for instance: "He normally greets his parents every morning".

2.6 Intensifiers

These are words which intensify the meaning of the word they modify. In other words, they are degree adverbs or degree expressions which intensify the meaning of the word they modify. For instance, "indeed", "very" and "utterly" as in:

That's very nice indeed.
We are utterly powerless.

Hartman and Stork (1972:114) define an intensifier as an adverbial of degree which intensifies the meaning of a word. For example, "extremely" as in "extremely lucky".

The adverb "extremely" modifies the adjective "lucky" which is the headword. "Extremely" is a degree adverb which intensifies the degree of luck expressed by the premodifier "extremely" in the above example.

Leech and Svartvik (2002:161), add that in addition to degree adverbs, certain adverbs like "really", "definitely", "truly" and "literally" also function as intensifiers. They provide the following examples which show how intensifiers express the degree of joy, impression, memory and happiness as perceived by the subjects of the sentences:

We really have enjoyed ourselves.
He definitely impressed us.
It was truly a memorable occasion.
She literally collapsed with laughter.

Quirk and Greenbaum (2000:214) classify intensifiers into three semantic classes, viz: emphasizers, amplifiers and downtoners. They observe that intensifiers are not limited to indicating an increase in intensity; they indicate a point on the intensity scale which may be high or low.

Emphasizers have a general heightening effect. Some examples of common emphasizers include: "actually", "certainly", "clearly", "indeed:, "obviously", "plainly", "really", "for certain:", "for sure", "of course". Others are: "frankly", "honestly", "literally", "simply", "fairly" and "just". Below are some examples of the use of emphasizers in sentence structures.

I honestly don't know what he wants.

He actually sat next to her (ibid, p.216).

Amplifiers according to Quirk and Greenbaum (ibid) can function as:

(a) Maximizers, for instance:

I entirely agree with you.
He quite forgot about her birthday (ibid p.216).

The adverbs, "entirely" and "quite" have a heightening effect on the force of the verbs "agree" and "forgot" respectively.

(b) Boosters: Boosters too have a heightening effect on the force of the verb that they co-occur with in sentence structures as can be realized in the following sentences:

They like her very much
I so wanted to see her (ibid, p.217)

"Very much" and "so" as used in the above examples suggest heightening effects of force on the verbs, "like" and "wanted" respectively.

Intensifiers also have lowering effect. Such types of intensifiers are referred to as downtoners. They generally have a lowering effect on the force of the verbs they co-occur with in sentences. There are four types which include:

(i) compromisers: e.g. "a kind of", "sort of"

(ii) diminishers: e.g. “partly:, “slightly”

(iii) minimizers: e.g. “a bit”, “barely”

(iv) Approximators: e.g. “almost”, “nearly” (ibid, p.217).

Thus, it could be inferred from the above examples that adverbs which function as compromisers, diminishers, minimizers or approximators suggest a kind of incomplete nature of the things or phenomena that are expressed by the verbs, for instance:

(a) He did a kind of difficult work (approximator)

(b) The work is partly done. (diminisher)

(c) The work is almost finished. (approximator)

(d) The work is a bit difficult. (minimizer)

Quirk and Greenbaum further cite some examples of maximizers which include: “absolutely”, “altogether”, “completely”, “entirely”, “fully”, “thoroughly”, “utterly”, “in all respects” and “most” while boosters include “badly”, “deeply”, “heartily”, “much”, “so”, “violently”, “well”, “a great deal”, “a good deal”, “a lot”, “by far”, “how” and “more” (ibid p.217).

Olu-Tomori (2004:62) identifies some patterns of how intensifiers modify adjectives as follows:

(i) intensifier + headword: “very hot”, “rather hot”

(ii) intensifier + headword + intensifier: “very hot indeed”

(iii) Headword + intensifier; “good enough”

Adverbial group patterns are similar to adjectival group patterns modified by intensifiers as illustrated below:

(i) intensifier + headword: “very quickly”

(ii) intensifier + headword + intensifier: "very slowly indeed"

(iii) headword + intensifier: "smoothly enough" (ibid, p.62).

Olu-Tomori's patterns of the co-occurrence of intensifiers with adjective and adverbial groups reveal that modifiers do not just occur in sentence structures randomly but follow their sequential order of occurrences. The patterns have also provided slots for the possible occurrence of premodifiers and postmodifiers with the headword. The similarities of adverbial group patterns with adjectives have also been clearly explicated in the above patterns.

Aremo (2004:312) agrees with Quirk and Greenbaum above when he declares that intensifiers commonly intensify or heighten the meaning of the headword. For example:

It is very large.
The name became very popular.
He seems too good.

Aremo further observes that some intensifiers lower or weaken the meaning of the headword as illustrated in the following sentences:

It is { rather / Somewhat } small.

Boadi, Grieve and Nwankwo (1968:96) cite two examples of how intensifiers modify adjectives using the following sentences:

(i) That man is very tall.

(ii) The boy seems quite clever.

In the two sentences above, the words "very" and "quite" are intensifiers which function as modifiers of the adjectives "tall" and "clever" respectively.

Quirk et al (1985:429) identify three subclasses of intensity adjectives and illustrate as follows:

(a) Emphasizers: They have a general heightening effect and are generally attributive only, e.g.

a true scholar.
a clear failure.

(b) Amplifiers: They scale upwards from an assumed norm, and are central adjectives if they are inherent and denote a high or extreme degree, e.g. a "complete" victory. The victory was "complete" "great" destruction. The destruction was "great"

(c) Downtoners: They have a lowering effect, usually They have a lowering effect on the headwords for instance:

"slight" in "a slight effort.
"feeble" in "a feeble joke.
"slight" in a slight effort", "feeble" in a feeble joke.

Adjectives may have a heightening effect or lowering effect on the nouns they modify. Some intensifying adjectives function as emphasizers and they generally occur attributively. For example, "complete victory" which suggests a total victory. Downtoners, demonstrate a lowering effect of force on the nouns they modify, e.g. "a slight" effort implies less effort.

Many of the intensifying adjectives can be related to intensifying adverbs. For example:

He is a true scholar. He is truly a scholar.
It was a clear failure. It was clearly a failure (ibid, p.430).

Martin and Rose (2003:38) also observe that one distinctive attitude of intensifiers is that they are gradable. This means, that we can identify how they amplify

attitudes. They illustrate how Helena intensifies how special her second love was and how quiet he became as well as how long her unsuccessful marriage lasted as follows:

> "very" special
> "very" quiet
> an "extremely" short marriage to someone else.

In the above illustrations "very" and "extremely" are used to amplify the force of Helena's attitude towards her second love and her unsuccessful short-lived marriage with her husband. The intensifiers "very" and "extremely" are examples of emotive language because they amplify Helena's feelings and the shock she received as a result of her short-lived married life.

Intensifiers also make it possible for us to compare things to say how strongly we feel, about someone or something by comparison to something else. Helena further describes how white people had the best of everything and still wanted more as follows:

> If I had to watch how white people became dissatisfied with the "best" and still wanted "better" and got it. Ibid (p.38).

From the above extract, the "best" is implicitly compared with the "worst" and "best" is also compared with "better" which is what the white people wanted. These comparisons are possible because the worth of things is gradable.

2.7 Noun Phrase Structure

Leech and Greenbaum (2002:330) remark that a noun phrase is so called because the word which is its head (i.e. main part) is typically a noun. For instance, "a German passenger liner" where "a" which is a determiner modifies "German", "German" modifies "passenger liner". The headword in the noun phrase exemplified above is "liner"

Leech and Greenbaum above opine that the presence of a noun in a noun phrase is very necessary because it is the keyword that heads the noun phrase. The headword can be modified by a determiner or another noun. However, they remain silent about adjectives and adverbs which also premodify or postmodify headwords in sentence structures. Similarly, Aremo (2004:13) observes that a sequence of words consisting of a noun and its modifier, such as "the door" is a noun phrase.

In the noun phrase, the modified noun is regarded as the "head" or central word. Thus, in the above noun phrase, "door" is the "headword" while "the" is the modifier.

According to Hardie (1999:220), a noun phrase is a word or group of words that can function as subject, object or complement. A noun phrase always contains a noun or pronoun. For example:

Mary left late (subject).
A strikingly beautiful girl (object).
She was the most successful applicant (complement).

Adejare (1992:66) observes that parallelism occurs within the nominal group structure. He illustrates using the following structure:

m	m	m	m	h
functional,	spiritual,	creative or	ritualistic	voidancy

Implicit from the above structure are the two sets of parallel structures. The four epithets (adjectives) i.e. "functional", "spiritual" form the first part of the parallelism, while "creative" and ritualistic constitute the second part. These series of modifiers are said to be parallel because each of the adjectives modifies the headword "voidancy" independently. Thus, we can say, "functional" voidancy, "spiritual" voidancy, creative voidancy or ritualistic voidancy.

Huddleston (1995:85) sums up the structure of the noun phrase (NP) when he states that:

> An NP will consist of a noun as head, alone or accompanied by one or more dependents. Some dependents precede the head, others follow: we will distinguish them as pre-head and post-head dependents. The pre-head dependents are of two main types, determiners and modifiers, and for the post-head dependents, we recognize complements, modifiers and peripheral dependents.

For example:

(i) "those fast cars" (determiner, modifier head).

(ii) "the belief in God" (determiner head complement).

(iii) "Higgins, whom they all feared" (head peripheral dependent).

Napoli (1996:314) describes the functions of the noun phrase (NP) where he illustrates with the NP, "the little boy" which functions as the subject in the sentence:

The little boy eats <u>fried potatoes.</u>

From the above illustration, "fried potatoes" is the noun phrase with "fried" functioning as the modifier which premodifies the headword "potatoes".

Osisanwo (1999:39) observes that in the nominal group, the mandatory element is called headword, represented by "h". While other words in the group can be dropped, the element forming the headword cannot be dropped. Osisanwo illustrates using the sentence:

<u>Ibrahim</u> donated the cup.

Thus, in the above sentence, the only word which cannot be substituted is "Ibrahim" which is the headword. However, it is possible to modify the subject "Ibrahim" to have: "Alhaji Ibrahim" or "Ibrahim the wealthy man", or "Alhaji Ibrahim the millionaire".

Quirk et al (1985:62) say that noun phrases consist of a head, which is typically a noun, and elements which (either obligatorily or optionally) determine the head and (optionally) modify the head. For example:

I remember
- Peter (headword).
- Alice's wedding. (determiner + headword).
- that girl with the red hair (postmodifier).
- the best trip that I ever had (complement).

The noun phrase has the role of characterizing attribute. Only identification attributes normally allow reversal of subject and complement without affecting the semantic relations if the copula is BE. For instance:

"Kevin is my brother - My brother is Kevin.
"Maurice is my assistant. My assistant is Maurice (ibid, p.742).

Scott et al (1968:37) state that where there are more than one modifiers (M) or qualifier (Q), the structure is therefore better expressed as:

Mn H Qn

In the above structure, "n", may have any value from zero to an indefinite, small number. The above structure is used to illustrate complex modification in which many modifiers and qualifiers are used to premodify and postmodify the headword.

Scott et al further distinguish between simple and complex modification structures using the following illustrations:

(i0 Slowly/Mary/drowned. (simple modification)

(ii) Very slowly indeed/poor old Mary/was being drowned.

(complex modification) ibid (p.37).

In sentence (i) above, the adverb "slowly" precedes the headword "Mary". And since it is the only modifier used in that sentence, it is said to be a simple modification. Sentence (ii) is a complex modification. This is because of the occurrences of the other modifiers i.e. "very", "indeed", "poor" and "old" which premodify the headword "Mary" in the text.

2.8 Adjectives

An adjective is a word used in modifying or qualifying a noun or pronoun. In other words, it is a describing word which tells more or gives more information about the noun or pronoun it describes. For example:

"a kind doctor"

In the above adjectival phrase, reference is not just being made to a doctor but a kind one. "kind" therefore, is an adjective describing the type of doctor being referred to. In other words, "kind" is also a complement.

Mifflin (1984:17) sees an adjective as a word that modifies a noun or a pronoun. The word "modifies", he explains, means "to change" or "to give more information about". Thus, an adjective modifies a noun, by describing it or limiting it. An adjective according to Mifflin answers one of these questions: which?, what kind? Or how many? For example:

> Those children are becoming restless. Which children? [Those children].
> What kind of children? [Excited children].
> Three adults sat in lawn chairs.
> How many adults? [three adults].

Leech and Greenbaum (2005:231) identify four features or characteristics of adjectives and illustrate as follow:

(a) Most adjectives can have two uses: attributive and predicative. An attributive adjective occurs before the noun it modifies. For example:

This is a difficult problem.

A predicative adjective on the other hand occurs as a complement of a linking verb, e.g. “is”, “be”, “seem”, “appear”, “feel”, etc: “This problem is difficult”.

(b) Most adjectives can be modified by degree adverbs like “very”, “quite”, “rather”, etc: “I’m on quite good terms with him”.

(c) Most adjectives can have comparative and superlative forms, e.g.

We have bigger problem than inflation.

Our biggest problem now is high unemployment.

(d) Many adjectives are derived from nouns and can be recognized by their endings e.g. “ours”, (“fame” – “famous”) “ic” (“base” – “basic”), “y” (“sleep” - “sleepy”, “ful” (“beauty” – “beautiful”).

From the above illustrations, the features or characteristics of adjectives are quite distinct from other word classes. Their ability to function as attributive, predicative or complement also suggest the numerous positions in which adjectives occur in sentence structures.

Similarly, Palmer (1984:59) agrees with Leech and Greenbaum above, when he says that another major class of the parts of speech is the adjective, with two main functions, attributive and predicative as illustrated by:

“The little boy” and “the boy is little” respectively.

Palmer further identifies other features that may be associated with adjectives and used as criteria for establishing this class. First, they may be preceded by words like "very". For instance:

The book is very interesting.

Adjectives according to Palmer have comparative and superlative forms:

Nice, nicer, nicest

Beautiful, more beautiful, most beautiful (ibid, p. 63).

Atkinson and Roca (1980:149) remark that the linguist is concerned with the relations which the words of a sequence have to each other. They provide the following example:

Mary writes very interesting letters.

Thus, in the above sentence "very" cannot co-occur with "writes" or "letters" to give the erroneous string or combination very writes or very letters interesting but "very" can only co-occur with "interesting" to have very interesting letters. In addition, the syntactic correlate of this semantic relationship is that the absence of the adjective "interesting" leaves the adverb "very" unrelated to the headword "letters" in the above construction.

Backlund (1975:255) observes that some adjectives are typically used to qualify certain nouns. For instance, the co-occurrence of some adjectives and nouns in headed construction. The following instances illustrate this:

"strong tea"
"powerful car"

In the examples above, the adjective "strong" modifies the noun "tea", while the adjective "powerful" modifies the headword "car" respectively. McCarthy

(1995:12) describes the co-occurrence of such adjectives and the nouns they modify as "a marriage contract between words". Firth in Taiwo (2005:229) declares that you shall know a word by the company it keeps". Taiwo adds that there are mutual expectancies and predictability between lexical items which learners of a language need to be aware of. For example, certain adjectives are typically used to qualify nouns as the following portray:

> hardened criminal.
> lukewarm attitude"

Backlund further asserts that "ing" adjectives based on intransitive verbs have a strong monopolization tendency. They tend to form lexical units with their heads. For instance, "crashing bore", "crying shame", "raving lunatic". "Crashing", "crying" and "raving" are restricted to one specific sense of "bore", "shame" and "lunatic".

Bolinger (1972) in Backlund (1975:255) states that "well" in "well conceived plan" and "the case is well argued", functions as adjective. Thus, "well-conceived" modifies the head "plan" attributively, while "well-argued" modifies "case" predicatively.

Corder and Ruszkiewicz (1985:173) declare that adjectives and adverbs enable a writer to specify and to make distinctions e.g. (not "shelf" but "lowest" shelf) (not just happy but "extremely" happy). These modifiers may add descriptive details, limit or make more definite the meaning of a key word or qualify statements. For example:

> a room of pleasant memories (adds descriptive detail)
> he laughed loudly (adds descriptive detail)
> the first book (limits)
> he left immediately (makes more definite)
> perhaps you've had enough (qualifies) (ibid, p. 173).

Close (1975:29) observes that some adjectives like “afraid”, “asleep” and “awake” are only used predicatively e.g. (John is afraid) while others, for instance, “chief” and “principal” only occur attributively as in “chief examiner”, “principal actor”.

Egwuagu (2001:160) identifies some words which operate with postmodifier adjectives, for example, “attorney general”, “princess” royal, “director” “general”, “court marshal”, “heir apparent” and “postmaster general”.

The underlined words above function as modifiers. They premodify the words nearest to them. Their patterns are irreversible, as the following anomalous structures show: general attorney or general director, which are not acceptable in English. This is because they do not follow the conventional adjective + noun pattern but the reverse i.e. noun + adjective.

Quirk and Greenbaum (2000:125) declare that semantic sets have been proposed for the usual order of adjectives and for their co-occurrence. They provide the following examples:

(a) intensifying adjectives, e.g. “a real hero”, “a perfect idiot”.

(b) postdetrminers and limiter adjectives e.g. “the fourth student”, “the only occasion”

(c) general adjectives are susceptible to subjective measure, e.g “careful”, “naughty”, “lovely”.

(d) general adjectives susceptible to objective measure including those denoting size or shape, e.g. “wealthy”, “large”, “square”.

(e) adjectives denoting age, e.g. “young”, “old”, “new”.

(f) adjectives denoting colour, e.g. “red”, “black”.

(g) denominal adjectives denoting material e.g. “a woolen scarf”, “a metallic substance” and denoting resemblance to a material e.g. “a metal voice”, “silken hair”, “cat-like stealth”.

(h) denominal adjectives denoting provenance or style e.g. “a British ship”, “a Parisian dress”.

Syntactic considerations are not sufficient enough to determine the order of adjectives and their co-occurrences with the words they modify in sentence structures. The linguist must also resort to the semantic meaning of words with which modifiers co-occur in sentence structures. Bierwisch, in Lyons (1970:169) argues that lexical elements should be defined explicitly in terms of semantic components. These components are theoretical elements postulated in order to describe the semantic relations between the lexical elements of a given language. That explains why the examples of the types of adjectives identified above are quite unique to themselves.

Bolinger (1968:291) identifies the relative positions of adjectives in the noun phrase structure. He opines that the positions where adjectives occur in sentence structures could render the sentence either correct or erroneous as the following illustration portrays:

“the old book”, “my good friend” rather than

Old the book and good my friend are both syntactically and semantically unacceptable because the adjective “old” cannot co-occur with the determinative “the”. Similarly, “good” cannot co-occur with the possessive pronoun “my” as used in the above constructions.

Other semantic sub-classification of adjectives according to Quirk and Greenbaum (ibid p.124) are:

(a) **Stative/dynamic**

Adjectives are characteristically stative, but many can be seen as dynamic. For example, a stative adjective such as "tall" cannot be used with the progressive aspect or with the imperative. For example:

"He is <u>being</u> tall" or "<u>be</u> tall" are erroneous constructions. In contrast, "careful" can be used as a dynamic adjective. "He's being careful" or "Be careful".

(b) **Gradable/Non-gradable**

Stative adjectives cannot be used with the progressive aspect as argued above. However, certain adjectives such as "careful", could be used. Gradable adjective on the other hand can be modified by adverbs to convey the degree of intensity of the adjectives that function as heads in sentences. Gradable adjectives too permit the language user to compare three or more things. For instance:

John is the <u>tallest</u> boy in our class.

The above comparison is only possible because we used the gradable adjective "tallest" since we cannot use <u>tall</u> nor <u>taller</u>.

"Perfect" and "round" are examples of non-gradable adjectives; since we can neither say <u>more round</u>, most round nor can we say <u>more perfect, most perfect.</u>

Most adjectives are gradable, that is to say, they can be modified by adverbs which convey the degree of intensity of the adjectives. Gradability includes:

"very" young, "so" plain, "extremely" useful.
Tall, taller tallest
Beautiful, more beautiful, most beautiful.

(c) **Inherent/Non-inherent**

Most adjectives are inherent e.g. “big” house, “old” man. These are adjectives that are restricted to attributive position.

Barr (1972:341) remarks that every adjective has three forms; they are: the positive, the comparative and the superlative. Comparative and superlative are used to show comparison. The comparative is used to compare two persons or things, while the superlative is used to compare three or more. The comparative is regularly formed by adding “-er” and the superlative by adding “-est”. Barr illustrates as follow:

Positive: (one thing to itself) fast

Comparative: (one thing being compared to another) faster
Superlative: (one thing being compared to two others or more) fastest.

Barr further states that some adjectives form the comparative by adding “more” and the superlative by adding “most”. For instance”

Positive: “interesting”
Comparative: “More interesting”
Superlative: “Most interesting” ibid (p.341).

Close (1975:152-5) observes that, we can make three types of comparison with gradable adjectives. For example:

(a) to a higher degree:
This watch is { cheaper / More expensive } than that one.

(b) The same degree:
This watch is as { cheap / Expensive } as that one.

(c) The lower degree
The watch is { not { so / as } clear as / Less expensive than. } that one.

Gradable adjectives allow the user to compare two or more items to a higher, same or lower degrees as revealed in the above examples. This however depends on the nature or how one considers the expensiveness or cheapness of the goods being compared. The use of these gradable adjectives is not limited to trade transactions alone but can be extended to forms of comparisons, for instance, beauty, ugliness, height, weight, etc.

Morley (1985:39) identifies what he refers to as "adjectival word complex". These are two adjectives joined by a conjunction in sentence structures. For instance:

(i) Mark has a very hit and miss approach.

(ii) He is a good though erratic student.

In example (i) above, the adjectives "hit" and "miss" are joined by the conjunction "and". Both adjectives are used to modify the headword "approach". Because of the cohesive device used in the construction of the sentences, they are referred to as "adjectival word complex". Similarly, "good" and "erratic" are linked by the conjunction "though" in example (ii) they both modify "student" as the headword in the structure. Thus, it is common to have two adjectives joined by a conjunction, for instance: "neat and clean business", "interesting but risky job" etc.

Langendoen (1969:40) observes that semantically, there exists a grammatical rule of agreement of gender between nouns and adjectives. Feminine forms of nouns are modified by the feminine forms of adjectives. For instance:

The professor is pregnant.

In the illustration above, it is obvious that the headword "professor" is clearly understood as a female. Thus, for obvious reasons, the adjective "pregnant" refers to females only as used in the above context.

Aremo (2004:209) states that most adjectives can be used both predicatively and attributively. He illustrates using the following examples:

(a) The lady is { tall. / Pretty. / beautiful. / ugly. }

(b) The { tall / pretty / beautiful / ugly } lady is here.

Thus, when an adjective is used as a premodifier within a noun phrase, it is said to be attributively used (or to have an attributive function) as demonstrated in (b) above. However, this is in contrast with (a) above because all the adjectives in that group postmodify the headword "lady" predicatively in the constructions.

According to Leech and Svartvik (2002:237), the typical function of adjectives is to modify the head of a noun phrase. For example: "the rich people", "a supernatural phenomenon". However, some adjectives can themselves be heads of noun phrases, e.g. "the rich", "the supernatural", "the young" and "the old".

The above examples demonstrate premodification in the re-amplified noun phrases: "the rich" premodifies "people" while, "a supernatural" premodifies "phenomenon". It is also important to note here that some adjectives themselves function as headwords when they are preceded by determiners, for instance: "the rich",

"the young" and "the old". Though "rich", "young" and "old" are adjectives, their being preceded by the determinative "the" has made them function as headwords in the above examples.

Huddleston (1995:111) remarks that nouns can also be used as modifiers. Adjectivalization is common with nouns or larger noun headed expressions. For instance, "a boy actor", "student grants", "the Reagan administration", "the New Zealand government" and "a government inquiry".

Huddleston further observes that the possessive pronouns i.e. "mine", "ours", "yours", "his", "hers", "its", "theirs" (pronouns) while "my", "our", "your", "his", "her", "its" their (determiners) may function as modifiers. He remarks that determinatives appear only in determiner function, as in "my novel". This position can also be filled by a possessive pronoun "Kim's novel", (ibid p.111).

The criterion for determining how a noun could modify another noun is to consider its proximity to the noun it premodifies. There should be no other word between both nouns, for instance, it is considered erroneous to have "the Reagan and administration" or "administration the Reagan". The present and past participles are widely used as modifiers of texts as exemplified above.

According to Christophersen and Sandved (1969:236), verb forms ending in "ing" and "ed" (present and past participles) may function as adjectives (modifiers). They provide the following as examples respectively:

No <u>living</u> man.

An <u>involved</u> problem.

Thus, in the examples above, “living” and “involved” modify the headword “man” and “problem” respectively.

According to Quirk et al (1985:248), literary or poetic registers has come to stay in language use and function. Some of them function as modifiers in the English grammar. For instance, when we consider the question:

Are you church or chapel?

“Church” or “chapel” in the above example refers to a member of the church of England or non-conformist respectively. Thus, the nouns “church” and “chapel” have been reclassified as adjectives.

Quirk et al (1985:248) further say that some authors employ literary devices such as fixed expressions. They cite an example with the adjectival phrase:

The stars visible.

In the illustration above, “visible” is an adjective which postmodifies “stars” that functions as the headword. This contrasts with “the visible stars” in which “visible” premodifies the ”stars”. The two examples thus, portray a clear semantic contrast between adjectives that premodify headwords and those that postmodify them. “The stars visible” refers to the stars that are/were visible at the time of speaking only, while “the visible stars” suggests that the stars are/were visible all the time; and that this is a permanent characteristic of the stars.

Adejare (1992:10) identifies metaphor as a component of modification. He exemplifies with a sentence pulled from Soyinka’s The Interpreters:

Bandele fitted himself wall-gecko into a corner.

In the illustration above, the metaphor "wall-gecko" is a style of modification in which a noun modifies another noun that follows it immediately. Thus, "wall" in the example above modifies the noun "gecko". Adejare further cites more examples of metaphors as follows:

(i) He was good looking.

(ii) He was deceptively the symbol of purity (ibid p.10).

The two sentences above are interpretive comments defining the character metaphor as an apostate, an individual who combines positive and negative attributes. Thus, "good looking" in example (1) above and "the symbol of purity" in (ii) are metaphors which function as modifiers of the subjects (He) of the two sentences.

2.9 Adverbs

Eyisi (2004:210) defines an adverb as a word that adds more information about, place, time, circumstances, manner, cause and degree to a verb, an adjective, a phrase or another adverb. For instance, "kindly" as in the expression "speak kindly", "just" as in "just in time", "too" or "quickly" as in the expression, "too quickly".

Quirk et al (1972:267) observe that an adverb may function as a modifier of an adjective or another adverb. They illustrate as follow:

(a) They are very happy.

(b) He is stupid enough to do it.

(c) It was a remarkably good show.

(d) She drives too quickly (ibid, p. 270).

In the above examples, the adverb "very" premodifies "happy" which is an adjective. Similarly in (b) "stupid" is postmodified by the adverb enough. In (c)

'remarkably" premodifies "good" while "too" in (d) premodifies "quickly" which is also an adverb.

Mifflin (1984:26) observes that sometimes an adverb modifies another adverb. He asserts that such adverbs usually come before the adverbs that they modify as the following illustrations portray:

(i) She skates "quite skillfully".

(ii) She performed "rather well" during the practice.

In sentence (i) above, "quite" and "skillfully" are both adverbs. "Quite" tells to what degree or extent she skated skillfully, while "skillfully" in this construction functions as the headword. Sentence (ii) similarly has two adverbs "rather" and "well". "Rather" tells us to what extent she performed well. The adverb "well" in the second example is the headword which has been modified by "rather" in the above construction.

Huddleston (1995:120) says that adverbs or the phrases they head, occur in a rather wide range of functions. For example: Modifier in verb phrase structure:

She spoke <u>clearly.</u>

Thus, "clearly" in the illustration above functions as an adverb which postmodifies the verb "spoke". The adverb "clearly" is also a complement stating how clearly she spoke.

Palmer (1984:63) opines that adverbs have comparative and superlative forms or degrees of comparison. He cites the following example:

Quickly, more quickly, most quickly.

Thus, we can use the comparative form "more quickly" to compare how two boys write, for instance:

John writes more quickly than Peter.

We use the superlative form "most quickly" to compare three or more people or things as the following example shows:

Andrew writes most quickly in our class.

Quirk and Greenbaum (2000:245) clarify the semantic distinction between "clearly" and "fortunately" used as adverbs. They provide the following examples of sentences with their semantic implications or meanings:

(1) Clearly, he is behaving well.

It is clear that he is behaving well.

(2) Fortunately, John returned the book yesterday.

In sentences (i) and (ii) above "clearly: and "fortunately" function as adverbs. They premodify the entire sentences. This is because the adverb "clearly" in (i) says something about the sentence as a whole. Similarly, "fortunately" in (ii) informs the reader/hearer that the book was returned yesterday.

Wredu (1998:63) identifies another type of adverb which he refers to as "sentence adverb". According to him, a "sentence adverb" makes comment about the sentence as a whole. In other words, we can say that they premodify the whole sentence. He illustrates using the following examples:

Ignorantly, Peter walked on the broken bottles.
Surprisingly, Amma came last in her class.

In sentence (1) above, the adverb "ignorantly" says something about the entire sentence. It comments about Peter's ignorant behaviour. The semantic interpretation of

the sentence is that Peter was indeed ignorant of the broken bottles when he walked on them. Sentence (ii) also has similar semantic interpretation. The adverb "surprisingly" premodifies the whole sentence. Semantically, it is the speaker of the sentence who was surprised but not Amma. Thus, it can be argued that the speaker was surprised about Amma's failure but not that Amma was surprised of her failure.

Chukwuma and Otagburuagu (1997:123) argue that although the adverbial clause modifies the verb, the adjective and the adverb, it modifies the verb more often than it does the others. They illustrate using two instances:

(1) I will surely come if you will teach me the game of chess. (adverbial clause modifying the verbs "will come".

(2) She studies harder than you do. (adverbial clause modifying the adverb "harder")

The co-occurrence of the modal verb "will" with the main verb "come" can be used before other main or lexical verbs e.g." will go", "will receive", "will sing", etc.

Hartmann and Stork (1972:6) define adverbial as:

A name given by some grammarians to a structure which functions as an adverb, but which does not have the usual formal features, i.e. does not end in "ly". An adverbial may indicate place as in: "He stayed at home". Manner as in "she worked hard" time as in "John is leaving next week". Frequency as in "such things "seldom" occur, or degree as in "The lecture was very good".

Hartmann and Stork above exemplified the four types of adverbs viz; place, manner, time and degree. They observe that such adverbs do not have the formal characteristics of adverbs, i.e. they do not end in "–ly-" suffix. This shows out that

adverbs are of various types and that they can be identified either by their –ly features or by their functions in sentences to show location, frequency, manner or the intensity of quality or quantity as are explicated in the above examples.

Leech and Svartvik (2005:245) remark that adverbs have two typical functions: as adverbial in sentences and as modifier of adjectives, adverbs and other phrases. They provide the following illustrations:

(i) Adverb as adverbial:

The conference was carefully planed.

(ii) Adverb as modifier of adjectives:

Louise is an extremely talented young woman.

(iii) Adverb as modifier of other adverbs:

One has to read this document very closely between the lines.

(iv) Adverb as modifier of prepositions:

We live just outside of Chicago.

In example (i) above, "carefully" which is an adverb modifies the verb "planned", "extremely" in (ii) modifies the adjective "talented" and "young" modifies the headword "woman". In (iii), "very" which is an intensifying adverb modifies another adverb "closely", while in (iv), "just" modifies the prepositional phrase "outside of Chicago".

Corder and Ruszkiewicz (1985:172) opine that adverbs are modifiers that relate to a verb, and adjective, another adverb or the whole sentence. They go on to cite the following as examples:

She smiled carefully (modifies the verb "smiled").
The engine is barely warm (modifies the adjective warm).
The engine idled very roughly (modifies the adverb "roughly".
Happily the mechanic found the problem (modifies the entire sentence).
They further observe that linking verbs are followed and modified by adverbs.

For example:

i. The weeds grow rapidly.

ii. The child looks sadly.

iii. The dog smells carefully (ibid, p. 174).

In sentence (i) above, the linking verb "grow" is followed by the adverb, "rapidly" which postmodifies it, while "boys" in sentence (ii) which functions as a linking verb is postmodified by the adverb "sadly". And in sentence (iii) "smells" is the linking verb which is modified by the adverb "carefully".

Olu-Tomori (2004:62) identifies five syntactic adverbial group patterns. He provides the following examples:

(1) Intensifier + headword: "very quickly" "somewhat quickly" and "rather slowly"

(2) Intensifier + headword + intensifier: "very slowly indeed".

(3) Headword + intensifier: "smoothly enough"

(4) Headword embedded in "more" --- than: more slowly than Mary:

(5) Headword embedded in the correlatives "as" --- "as"; "as slowly as Mary".

The five adverbial groups listed above are those that distinctly have a headword. They are referred to as "endocentric constructions". The underlined adverbs "slowly" and "smoothly" in the above structures function as headwords.

Osisanwo (1999:48) identifies preposition – headed adverbial group with the symbol “p”. The final element structure, according to him, is termed “completive” in analysis with the symbol “c”. He cites the following examples:

P	C
On	the spot
In	the house
Under	the table
Round	the clock

In the above instances the structures i.e. “the spot”, “the house” “the table” and “the clock” are referred to as “nominal group.”

Osisanwo further observes that in some cases, the completive position may be occupied by an adverb instead of a nominal group. He exemplifies as follows:

P	C
Before	then
From	now
Until	recently
Until	then

The words “then”, “now” and “recently” in the above illustrations function as adverbs

Forlini et al (1990:42) state that when an adverb modifies a verb, it may come before or after the verb, or it may interrupt a verb phrase.

(1) Now I will go (initial position).

(2) Your letter arrived today (final position).

(3) We have just finished eating (interrupts a verb phrase).

Aliyu (2001:144) in Ubahakwe and Sogbesan (ed.) asserts that between 3-4 positions had been identified for the English adverbs and adverbials. He quotes Gleason (1965); Christophersen and Sandved, (1969; Boadi et al (1968), Herndon

(1976); Quirk et al (1972) and Olagoke (1979) to support the assertion. Aliyu points out the positions of the English adverbs and adverbials as follows:

(1) The pig eats noisily (final position).

(2) The colour gradually faded out (medial position).

(3) Surprisingly, Bintu passed the examination (initial position).

(4) Jacob has virtually lost his tennis shoes.

(adverb comes immediately after the auxiliary and before the main verb).

Grillner (2007 online) argues that adverbs should be placed as close as possible to words or phrases that they modify. This is because if an adverb is separated from the word or phrase that it modifies, the interpretation of the adverb may become ambiguous. Grillner suggests that a quantity adverb should always be placed immediately before the word it modifies. For instance:

Some "water"; some "salt".

In the above phrase, "some" is a quantity adverb which premodifies "water" and "salt" respectively.

Bolinger (1968:291) identifies certain words which co-occur with adverbs. According to him, "well bred" and "fast disappearing" are grammatically acceptable while well white and fast new are not. Similarly, "very new" and "very quickly" are correct while very undertaken and to speak very are unacceptable in English usage.

From the above explanations, it is therefore necessary to select appropriate words that co-occur with adverbs in sentence structures in order to avoid anomalous or erroneous sentences in both spoken and written English.

2.10 Theoretical Framework

An eclectic framework of Quirk et al's (1985:62) synthetic theory framework of modification and Halliday and Hasan's (1976:40) semantic model as well as Bloofield's (1933) immediate constituent (IC analysis) have been adopted and modified for the analysis of the data. The study of language can be classified into two major categories i.e. traditional grammar and modern grammar approach. It is essential to have an insight into some schools of thought that emerged over the years and the theories that characterize them. This would acquaint us with the various forms of linguistic analyses that they apply in the study of language.

2.11 Traditional Grammar

Traditional grammar owes much of its characteristics to Latin and Greek languages. These languages were considered prestige languages. Teachers were therefore, equipped with only a knowledge of the two classical languages. The concepts borrowed from Latin and Greek greatly influenced the English language structures as taught in the classroom. Early writers therefore, described the structure of English through the structural forms of Latin grammar.

Traditional grammar is prescriptive in nature and characteristics. It prescribes how language should be spoken and written. According to Lamidi (2006:6), traditional grammar has identified some grammatical and the traditional concept of noun, verb, pronoun, adjective, adverb, subject, predicate, object, case and mood, which apply in all languages and are still in use in modern discourse. Thus, the structural words like "adjective" and "adverb" which function as modifiers are still important in the study of modern grammar, hence they are relevant in this study.

Osisanwo (1995:5) adds that apart from laying the foundation of modern grammar, some of the formulations in modern grammar were inherited from traditional grammar. However, in spite of all these achievements, it has had a lot of criticisms from modern grammarians, some of which are:

> Reliance on Latin, notional definition of terms and concepts, prescriptive approach, reliance on logic and that little attention was paid to spoken language (ibid p.2-4).

Thus, because of the numerous weakness of traditional grammar, there was an urgent need to rectify these problems so the structural grammar came into focus.

2.11.1 Structural Grammar

There were two major groups in the development of structural grammar. The first group began in Europe with Ferdinand de Saussure's publication of Langue and Parole. Langue is conceived as a language system which serves as the expression of elements in that language. Parole on the other hand is language behaviour. It specifies the manner and use to which language is put (Lamidi, 2000:8).

The second group of structuralists developed in America. The exponent of the American school of structural linguistic is Leonard Bloomfield (1933). He argues that grammar should be studied as a true science, i.e. from a scientific and objective perspective in order to describe language structurally. The structuralists designed for each language structural forms of identifying words and their classes but did not involve the study of meaning. In addition, this school believes that there must be rules on which one would be able to judge sentences as correct or incorrect. This quest for rules led them to the concept of constituent structures.

2.11.2 Constituent Structure Grammar

This group stresses that words are not arbitrarily strewn together in a sentence but are grouped together from larger units like word groups or phrases, clauses and sentences. This group argues that it is not possible to define acceptable structures or constituents in a language, because any word can lie adjacent to another in a sentence. They opine that the only option is to group the words into constituents. This brings into focus the idea of immediate constituent analysis. modifiers do not just co-occur with headwords but are arranged in their sequential order in sentence structures. The identification of modifiers and their classifications into their various categories are relevant to this work.

2.11.3 Immediate Constituent Analysis

The immediate constituent theory was developed by Bloomfield (1933). This school of thought identified the subject and the predicate. The structures under subject and those under predicate are the immediate constituents. The words under predicate can also be broken into two other immediate constituents. This continues until each word is identified with its category or class status. This theory can be useful in linguistic analysis especially of the noun phrase. The breaking of word group into their immediate constituent reveals the relationships between a modifier and the headword. It is this aspect of Bloomfield's theory that is adopted in this study for data analysis. Its weakness however lies in the fact that it takes a long time and space to analyze long sentences. With this problem inherent in immediate constituent analysis, the systemic grammar was resorted to for linguistic analysis.

2.11.4 Systemic Grammar

Systemic functional linguistics as a theory of language focuses on the notion of language function. It dates back to Firth in the 30s to the 50s and later developed by Halliday in 1961. Frank (2001:21).

The early form of systemic theory was known as scale-and-category grammar (Halliday, 1961). Scale-and-category grammar according to Morley (1985:V), provides a framework for the analysis and the description of any stretch of written or spoken language that has actually occurred. It is designed to analyze structures as they appear rather than to generate them.

The systemic functional grammar was developed as a reaction to structuralists grammar and early transformational grammar who believed that meaning had no place in grammar. Lamidi (2006:16).

Halliday identifies scale of rank, delicacy and exponence used in language study. According to Lamidi (ibid p.15), the scale of rank accounts for the hierarchical ordering of the units recognized in the description of a particular language. For example, the units of language have the following hierarchy in an ascending order: morpheme, word, group, clause and sentence. In this study, attention is paid to phrases and clauses which function as modifiers. Thus, adjectival, adverbial, prepositional phrases as well as subordinate clauses are considered for analysis. The scale of delicacy deals with the relationship that obtains between grammar and lexis. It sets up only the least number of elements for purposes of structural analysis. At the level of delicacy, the nominal group will have M. (modifier), H. (head) and Q (qualifier). The scale of exponence refers to elements that are used to realize a category. For instance, the

exponence of (H) in nominal group is a nominal or noun. That of (Q) may be a prepositional word group or a subordinate clause. These scales are relevant in this study.

Eggins (2000:23) points out that systemic linguists seek to develop both a theory about language as a social process and an analytical methodology which permits the detailed and systemic description of a language pattern. Systemic grammar is concerned primarily with the choices that are made available to speakers of a language by their grammatical systems. These choices are assumed to be meaningful and relate speakers' intentions to the concrete forms of a language.

Wikipedia (2007 online) states that:

> Meanings are typically divided into three broad areas called metafunctions: the ideational, grammar for representing the world, the interpersonal, grammar for enacting social relationships (asking, asserting, ordering), and the textual grammar for binding linguistic elements together into broader texts (via pronominalization, grammatical topicalization, thematization, expressing the news worthiness of information etc).

In this study, we are concerned with textual grammar which deals with grammar for binding linguistic elements together. Thus, the relationship between a headword and modifiers is a binding one because of their co-occurrences in sentence structures.

In its enhanced form, systemic theory began to account for the nature of the linguistic system available to the native speaker of a language and for the selection of options which a person makes when using the language. The meaning of options are then realized as component elements of the language structure.

During the latter half of the 1960s, Halliday's work became increasingly influenced by ideas on the functional nature of language as held by Malinoswski and Halliday (1967:81). At the time of this reorientation, the theory became known as systemic functional grammar or systemic grammar for short. Morley (1985:V). Fairclough, in Jaworski and Coupland (1999:205) observe that systemic functional linguistics has a view of text which is a potential powerful basis, not only for what is in texts, but also for the analysis of what is absent or omitted from text.

Halliday and Fawcett (1987:8) observe a steady increase in the number of systemic linguists that are committed to making models of language that are fully explicit and not just providing descriptive tool whose value might not be verified informally through its usefulness in the analysis of text.

Halliday and Fawcett above are concerned with the semantic aspect of an explicit description of texts that brings out its value or usefulness when texts are analyzed.

According to Odumosu (2001:16), the structure of systemic grammar deals with models that can be grouped under common features. This is because they involve patterns of likeness and repetition. Thus, the systemic grammar is very much concerned with groups like nominal group, adjectival group, adverbs and adverbial group structures which are relevant to this study.

Osisanwo (1999:14) identifies four theoretical categories used in systemic grammar for the description of the grammatical pattern of any language. They include "unit", "structure", "class" and "system" while Morley (1985:7) also identifies same, but adding four other scales, viz; "rank", "exponence", "delicacy" and "depth".

"Unit" according to Morley, accounts for stretches of language of varying lengths and composition which themselves carry or operate in grammatical patterns. He went ahead to list five grammatical patterns or elements which are proposed for the description of the English sentence at the early stage. They include: "unit", "group", "word", "morpheme" and "sentence" which was later replaced by another grammatical term "clause complex" (ibid, p.7).

Osisanwo's (1999:14-16) explications of the four theoretical categories are relevant to our study as the following illustrations portray:

"Unit"

"The young men helped the old lady yesterday".

The statement above is a stretch of utterance within which we can identify some other shorter stretches which cling together such as:

The young men
The old lady

Thus, we cannot say for instance, young the, old the lady or lady old the. This is because stretches have acceptable grammatical patterns that must be followed in utterances. "Unit" therefore is the category set up to account for stretches that carry grammatical pattern.

"Structure"

Two versions of the sentence given below illustrate this element:

(1) The young men helped the old lady yesterday.

(2) The old lady was helped by the young men yesterday.

It can be noticed that the two sentences above are saying the same thing though they differ in their patterning. This is because the information in sentence (1) is

expressed in the active voice while the information in sentence (2) is expressed in the passive voice. “Structure” therefore, accounts for this difference of patterning. It is the category set up to account for the pattern that the unit carries.

“Class”

Let us again illustrate by using our sample utterance pattern above.

The	young	men
The	old	lady

From the patterned arrangement above, we can see that the words within the same column, though from different stretches, belong to the same group. This confirms that individual words used in utterances have natural groupings. “Class” therefore, is responsible for the groupings of members of a given unit as exemplified above. In this study, modifiers are classed as adjectives, adverbs, intensifiers, qualifiers, etc.

“Systems”

We can finally use our utterance once again to illustrate how system operates in utterances:

(1) The young men “helped” the old “lady”.

We can compare the next sentence with this one:

(2) The young man “helps” the old “ladies”

It can be realized from both sentences (1) and (2) above that we have used words from the same roots, while in the case of the underlined words “men” and “man”, we have chosen different morphological forms, i.e.

Man	-	singular
Men	-	plural
Helps	-	present tense
Helped	-	past tense

Lady - singular
Ladies - plural

Thus, we can assert that the modifications in the underlined words of the second utterance have actually given that utterance a different meaning from the original one. This is because in sentence (1), the active voice is being used while sentence (2) is said to be operating in the passive voice. Our choices of "lady", "ladies", "helps" and "helped" as well as their applications in the two sentences above were possible because of the system category.

Systemic grammar is also not free from criticism some of which include: its inability to account for creativity in language and that it emphasizes the sociological aspect of language. However, despite these weaknesses, systemic grammar has contributed to linguistic analysis of text.

The elements of subject of a sentence could be modified by placing a modifier or some modifiers before or after the headword. Ubahakwe (2001:18) illustrates this by using a diagram as another pattern of analysis as seen below:

S/No.	**Modifier**	**Headword**	**Qualifier**
1	The	Men	next room
2	Old	Houses	nearby
3	Very	Rampant	Indeed
4	Quite	beautifully	enough

Fig. 6: Modification Structure of Subject of a Sentence

The process of modification largely depends on the placement of a modifier or group of modifiers before or after the headword. This means that modifiers could premodify or postmodify headwords in the construction of sentence structures. Modifiers that postmodify headwords are also referred to as qualifiers.

Modifiers and qualifiers are thus identified by position in their relation to the headword. These three terms can be applied most readily to the analysis of nominal adjectival and adverbial groups. Morley (1999:12) demonstrates this using the following examples:

Nominal

M	m	h	
Three	blind	mice	
M	m	h	q
His	most amazing	feet	of endurance

Adjectival:

M	h	q
Very	warm	indeed
M	h	
Quite	amazing	

Adverbial:

M	h	q
Very	quickly	indeed
H	q	
Happily	enough	

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976:39-40), the logical structure of the nominal group is one of modification. It consists of the head with optional modifier. The modifying elements include some which precede the head and some which follow it. Thus, modification preceding the head is referred to as premodifier and to those following the head as postmodifier.

Halliday and Hasan cite an example using the following NP:

The two high stone walls along the roadside

Thus, in the above NP, the head is “walls”. The premodifier is formed by “the two high stone” and the postmodifier is “along the roadside. Halliday and Hasan

further state that the elements of the above structure are deictic, numerative, epithet, classifier and thing. The head is typically expressed by a noun, common noun, proper noun or pronoun (ibid, p.40).

They provide the following NP diagram to illustrate the points.

	the	**Two**	**high**	**stone**	**walls**	**along the roadside**
Structure: logical	Premodifier				Head	Postmodifier
Experiential	Deictic	Numerative	Epithet	Classifier	Thing	Qualifier
Classes	Determiner	Numeral	Adjective	Noun	Noun	Prepositional group

Fig. 7: Modification in Noun Phrase (NP) Structure

Quirk et al (1985:65) remark that modification is a largely optional function performed, for instance, by adjectives in the noun phrase. Premodifiers precede the head and postmodifiers follow it. They further provide the structure of the noun phrase which contains determinative followed by premodification, head and postmodification in a diagram as seen below (ibid, p.62).

Determinative	**Premodification**	**Head**	**Postmodification**	
				Complementation
		him Peter		
Alice's	Fine warm	Wedding		
That		girl		
all these		days		
A	Better	story		
The	Best	trip	with the red hair in the car last year	than that
A	Good	trip	that I once had	that I ever had

Fig. 8: Modification in Noun Phrase (NP) Structure

From the above diagram, Quirk et al have identified the structure of another type of analysis of modification in which the determiner comes first followed by premodification of the headword. The headword is followed by postmodification and complementation which occurs at the end. The addition of complementation in the above diagram is to create room for the analysis of complements which often comes at the end of sentence structures.

Halliday and Hasan's (1976:40) semantic theory and Quirk et al's (1985:62) syntactic theory frameworks of linguistic modification and Bloomfield's (1933) immediate constituent analysis are adapted and modified in this study. Thus, an eclectic theoretical framework of analysis is therefore proposed for our work. This is because Halliday and Hasan's as well as Quirk et al's frameworks of analysis have provided slots for the basic components of modification necessary for linguistic analysis of texts. They include: determinative, numerative, classifier qualifier and complement. Bloomfield's immediate constituent analysis provides or allows us sufficient grounds to discuss each of our data which have been identified from the texts under study. This, we believe will further explicate the patterning or co-occurrence of modifiers with the headwords in sentence structures.

This chapter has revealed numerous types of modifiers as perceived by various linguists in their perspectives. It has also reviewed many theories from which we adopted Quirk et al's (1985:62) syntactic theory framework of modification and Halliday and Hasan's (1976:40) semantic model as well as Bloomfield's (1983) immediate constituent (IC analysis); which we have modified for analysis of the data in chapter.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

In the preceding chapters, the present study was located in terms of its relevance to linguistic analysis of modification; bearing in mind the syntactic and semantic functions of modifiers. It has also been established that the systemic theory or model of analysis is the most appropriate model for the study. Specifically, the syntactic model structure of Quirk et al's (1985:62 and Halliday and Hasan's (1976:40) semantic structure model as well as Bloomfield's immediate constituent analysis have been adopted for the analysis. This chapter explicates and justifies the processes that are used to collect the data for the research.

3.1 Elicitation of Materials

Zaynab Alkali's novel, The Stillborn and George Orwell's Animal Farm were secured for our study. A copy of Webster's Third International Dictionary was also obtained to provide the identifications, meanings and functions of modifiers that are used in this study. They include: adjectives, adverbs, prepositional phrases, adjectival, adverbial clauses. Other components of modification that are essential for identification in this work are intensifiers, quantifiers, idioms and qualifiers.

Some sentences (texts) that contain some of the identified modifiers above were selected from the two texts using stratified random sampling method which constitute the data in this study.

The researcher has designed a table as seen on page 102 which contains the following information: serial number, text, source, premodification, type of modifier,

headword, postmodification and type of modifier. The titles of the texts bear the following abbreviations for economy of space in the table. The Stillborn: (TSB) and Animal Farm: (AFM).

3.2 Sampling Procedures

The researcher read the two texts one after the other, identifying all relevant sentences or clauses which contain noun phrases, adjectives and adjectival group, adverbs and adverbial group. Other modifiers identified include: idioms, intensifiers, quantifiers and qualifiers which are contained in the structures of the sentences under analysis. These modifiers were then isolated and grouped under their appropriate columns in the table.

The columns in the table on page 102 are designed to show how modifiers premodify or postmodify headwords. They also have columns to describe the type of modifiers whether as adjectives, adverbs, qualifiers, phrases or clauses. Each of the books was analyzed separately.

The relationship between the headword and the modifier(s) was subsequently determined paying attention to the modifiers that premodify, or postmodify the headwords. The types and functions of the modifiers were identified by slotting each in its appropriate column thus, describing its function in the sentence. This would be followed with discussions of the data, highlighting the relationships that exist between the modifiers and headwords in the texts under analysis. The discussions would also allow us sufficient room to compare modifications in the two texts before we can justifiably comment or draw the conclusion for this study. A typology of selecting

twenty (20) simple, compound and complex sentences each was resorted to in order to have varieties of sentence structures for analysis.

3.3 Analytical Procedure

A lot of linguistic elements function as modifiers. They may function either as adjectives, adverbs, quantifiers, intensifiers or qualifiers in most of the sentences. It may therefore, not be possible to effectively analyze all the sentences contained in the two texts selected for analysis.

Adejare (1992:4) argues that the notion projection theory must be applied during the process of any analysis in order to avoid the need to analyse every linguistic structure. The notion projection theory is a concept that holds that in a text, the linguistic structure conveying the message projected at different levels would be evenly distributed throughout the text. This theory is useful because an average text runs into few hundred pages. The application of the notion projection theory would be useful in this study because of the numerous pages of the texts considered for analysis.

The Stillborn has 105 pages while Animal Farm has 120 pages which give a total of 225 pages. Though the lengths of the texts are not equal, the notion projection theory permits in this study to choose sixty (60) sentences of different types from each text for analysis. Thus, a total of one hundred and twenty (120) sentences in all, therefore, constitute the data considered for analysis in this work. Choosing equal number of sentences from each text would enable us to compare the two texts without being biased towards/against any of them. The comparisons are between Alkali's The Stillborn and Orwell's Animal Farm,

Sax (1979:80) argues that where populations are infinitively large, relatively inaccessible or expensive to obtain, researchers select samples from the population with which to work. A sample is a limited number of elements selected from a population to be representative of that population.

Nwana (1981:62) also argues that where the population is large, only a small proportion of it is to constitute the sample (e.g. taking a 5% sample from a population of 10,000) will give quite accurate results.

Wale (2005:56) on the other hand, warns against analyzing a large number of data, stating that such a step is fraught with dangers of repetition and redundancies which researchers must always avoid.

Each sentence was identified and analyzed by slotting the modifier(s), and the headwords into the various columns in the modified eclectic theoretical syntactic framework of Quirk et al's (1985:62), Halliday and Hasan's (1976:40), the semantic model and Bloomfield's (1933) immediate constituent analysis model.

The following sentences are elicited from each of the texts under analysis. They were analyzed as samples of analysis in the table below:

(i) Sule and Li seldom quarreled (TSB p.5).

(ii) All animals are equal (AFM p.17).

3.4 Sample Analysis

s/n	Text	Source	Premodification	Type of modifier	Headword	Postmodification	Type of modifier
1	Sule and Li seldom quarreled.	TSB p.5	Seldom	Adverb	quarreled	-	-
2	All animals are equal.	AFM p.17	All	Quantifier	animals	Equal	adjective

Table 1: Sample Analysis of Texts

Text (1): Sule and Li seldom quarrelled. (TSB p.5).

From the above text, the underlined word “seldom” functions as an adverb. It premodifies the verb “quarrelled “ which functions as the headword in that structure.

Text (2): All animals are equal. (AFM. P.17).

The underlined words “all” and “equal” in the above sentence function as modifiers. The first underlined word “all” is a quantifier. It premodifies “animal” which functions as the subject in that sentence. The second one “equal” functions as an adjective which postmodifies the subject “animal”.

The research was not a hitch-free exercise. It was in fact challenging. Two problems were encountered during the course of the research. The first one was the designing of the modified table for the analysis of the data on page 102. The second problem was the dilemma of whether to include the appendices at the end of the work or exclude it entirely. This debate lingered on in the minds of both the researcher and the supervisors for months before it was finally resolved.

CHAPTER FOUR

Data Analysis and Discussion

4.0 Introduction

The goal of this chapter is to apply the eclectic theoretical framework model to be culled from Quirk *et al's* (1985:65) syntactic framework, Halliday and Hasan's (1976:40) semantic model and Bloomfield's (1933) immediate constituent (IC) analysis model. The analysis in this chapter is aimed at examining the co-occurrence of modifiers with their headwords in the structures of the texts (sentences) that are under analysis. The modifiers and their headwords were slotted under their different headings in their appropriate columns in the process of analysis. The headword according to Quirk *et al.* (1985:65) in addition to noun or pronoun in nominal structure could also be verb in verb phrase, adjective in adjectival phrase and adverb in adverbial phrase. For the purpose of this study therefore, they are slotted under the headwords in the table on page 106.

The analysis of the texts in the table on page 106, however, is only the starting point of the analysis. More analysis and illustrations are provided in the discussion segment in this chapter. The discussion is required to shed more light on the analyzed structures in the table by identifying the modifier, its type, function, the headword and determine whether the headword is premodified or postmodified. Each text analyzed in the table is accompanied by a general explanation for more clarifications. This general explanation is aimed at showing both the syntactic and semantic implications of the texts under analysis.

4.1.1 Analysis

In order to get the broad overview of each writer's pattern of modification in their texts, we used the textual analysis approach used in the study of language function. In doing so, we analyzed the two texts separately starting with Zaynab Alkali's The Stillborn abbreviated (TSB.)

4.1.2 Analysis of Modification in Zaynab Alkali's <u>The Stillborn (TSB)</u>

4.1.3 Analysis of Modification in Simple Sentences

No	TEXT	SOURCE	PRE MODIFICATION	TYPE OF MODIFIER	HEAD WORD	POSTMODIFICATION	TYPE OF MODIFIER
1	None of them seemed to have noticed the reckless speed at which they were going.	TSB P 1	None of reckless	Quantifier Adjective	them speed	at which they were going	Qualifier
2	The smaller side of the village was less crowded.	TSB P2	Smaller Less	Adjective Adverb	side crowded	of the village crowded	Prepositional phrase Adjective
3	Restless and dissatisfied at home, the two got the worst treatment.	TSB P3	Restless and dissatisfied at home Restless Dissatisfied Worst	Qualifier Adjective Adjective Adjective	two treatment	at home	Prepositional phrase
4	Even Baba's; fragile constitution had been blamed on her upbringing	TSB P8	Even Baba's Fragile her	Adverb Genitive Adjective Possessive adjective	constitution	on her upbringing	Qualifier
5	She ran the comb painfully through her thick kinky hair.	TSB P14	Her thick kinky	Possessive adjective Adjective Adjective	ran hair	painfully	Adverb
6	Li smiled openly, revealing a beautiful gap in her upper teeth.	TSB P15	Beautiful her upper	Adjective Possessive adjective Adjective	smiled gap teeth	openly revealing a beautiful gap in her upper teeth	Adverb Qualifier Prepositional phrase
7	"Well, I really want to watch the dance to the newly composed song".	TSB P14	Well really newly composed	Adverb Adverb Adverb Adjective	want composed song	to the newly composed song	Qualifier
8	Awa carried a big clay jar of water.	TSB P37	Big clay	Adjective Adjective	Jar	of water	Prepositional phrase
9	They listened with rapt attention to the city wisdom.	TSB P45	Rapt city	Adjective Adjective	attention wisdom	with rapt attention to the city wisdom	Qualifier Prepositional phrase
10	The younger of the two sisters is running loose.	TSB P52	Younger two	Adjective Quantifier	sisters	of the two sisters loose	Qualifier Adjective

No	TEXT	SOURCE	PRE MODIFICATION	TYPE OF MODIFIER	HEAD WORD	POSTMODIFICATION	TYPE OF MODIFIER
11	Habu's younger brother, Umoru was to take her to the city.	TSB P67	Habu's Younger Her	Genitive Adjective Possessive adjective	brother	to the city Umaru	Prepositional phrase Qualifier
12	So soon? the woman smiled incredulously.	TSB P78	So soon? So Soon	Qualifier Adverb Adverb	woman	incredulously	Adverb
13	A young woman of twenty-nine walked round her dead father's compound deep in thought.	TSB P82	Young her dead father's deep	Adjective Possessive adjective Adjective Genitive Adjective	woman	of twenty-nine deep in thought in thought	Qualifier Qualifier Prepositional phrase
14	You know very well of what he thinks of cultural dance.	TSB P15	very well cultural	Intensifier Adverb Adjective	well dance	of what he thinks of cultural dance	Qualifier
15	Awa simply looked at her sister dumbfounded.	TSB P91	simply her	Adverb Possessive adjective	looked sister	at her sister dumbfounded	Prepositional phrase Adjective
16	The village is full of wild rumours.	TSB P94	wild	Adjective	village rumours	full of wild rumours	Adjective Qualifier
17	But that is not your real home, big brother.	TSB 100	your real big	Possessive adjective Adjective Adjective	home brother	 big brother	 Qualifier
18	Her mind went back to the previous night.	TSB 102	her previous	Possessive adjective Adjective	mind went night	back to the previous night	Adverb Qualifier
19	Who, indeed can stop the waging tongue of my enemies in the dancing arena?	TSB 54	who indeed who indeed wagging my dancing	Qualifier Adverb Intensifier Adjective Possessive adjective Adjective	tongue enemies arena	of my enemies in the dancing arena	Qualifier Prepositional phrase

Table 1: Analysis of Modification in Simple Sentences

No	TEXT	SOURCE	PRE MODIFICATION	TYPE OF MODIFIER	HEAD WORD	POSTMODIFICATION	TYPE OF MODIFIER
20	"May the good God guide us all" replied Li.	TSB 105	Good	Adjective	God	all replied Li	quantifier qualifier

4.1.4: Analysis of Modification in Compound Sentences

No	TEXT	SOURCE	PRE MODIFICATION	TYPE OF MODIFIER	HEAD WORD	POSTMODIFICATION	TYPE OF MODIFIER
21	The houses here were built of stones and roofed with asbestos.	TSB P2			houses	here of stones with asbestos	Adverb prepositional phrase prepositional phrase
22	Their faces were long and short and nobody spoke to me.	TSB P10	Their	Possessive Adjective	faces	long short to me	adjective adjective prepositional phrase
23	Shrewd and dominating, she had driven three other wives from the household and had ruled father and son with an iron hand.	TSB P8	shrewd and dominating shrewd dominating three other iron	qualifier adjective adjective quantifier adjective adjective	she wives household hand	from the household with an iron hand iron hand	prepositional phrase prepositional phrase idiom
24	Beds were scarce and his case wasn't too serious.	TSB P12	his too	Possessive adjective Intensifier	Beds Case Serious	Scarce Serious	Adjective Adjective
25	Li ventured and almost jumped with pain from a high jab on her thigh.	TSB P17	almost high her	Adverb Adjective Possessive adjective	jumped jab thigh	with pain from a high jab on her thigh	prepositional phrase prepositional phrase prepositional phrase
26	She knew the dance steps and tried to try them in the dancing arena.	TSB P20	dance dancing	Adjective Adjective	steps arena	in the dancing arena	prepositional phrase
27	His son never went out due to his fragile constitution but he had a strong nose and he could smell a rat a mile away.	TSB P26	his never his fragile strong	Possessive adjective Adverb Possessive adjective Adjective Adjective	son constitution nose rat mile	out due to his fragile constitution smell a rat a mile away away	Adverb Qualifier Idiom Qualifier Adverb
28.	Excitedly, Faku announced Garba's intention to marry her immediately and settle in the city.	TSB p.56	Excitedly Garba's	Qualifier Genitive	intention marry city	to marry her immediately immediately in the city	Qualifier Adverb Prepositional phrase.

No	TEXT	SOURCE	PRE MODIFICATION	TYPE OF MODIFIER	HEAD WORD	POSTMODIFICATION	TYPE OF MODIFIER
29	"Collect all the dirty dishes and a few dirty clothes" Li continued.	TSB P15	all dirty a few dirty	Quantifier Adjective Quantifier Adjective	dishes clothes	Li continued	Qualifier
30	One of these days she would be a different woman, with painted nails and a silky shining hair.	TSB P55	one of these days one of these different painted silky shining	Qualifier Quantifier Adjective Adjectives Adjective Adjective Adjective	days woman nails hair		
31	The child kicked violently and turned on her side.	TSB P69	her	Possessive adjective	kicked side	violently on her side	Adverb Prepositional phrase
32	She was glad to see someone from home but his unexpected arrival filled her with foreboding.	TSB P75	his unexpected	Possessive adjective Adjective	she arrival	glad to see someone from home with foreboding	Adjective Qualifier Prepositional phrase Prepositional phrase
33	She tilled with all her strength, but the land was dry and remained unyielding.	TSB P80	all her	Quantifier Possessive adjective	strength land	with all her strength dry unyielding	Qualifier Adjective Adjective
34	The landlady nodded in agreement, murmuring favourable comments but Li took it all silently.	TSB P89	favourable	Adjective	comments agreement in	in agreement murmuring favourable comments all silently	Prepositional phrase Qualifier Quantifier Adverb
35	The friendship went too far and she found herself with a child	TSB 91	too	Intensifier	For	far with a child	Adverb Prepositional phrase
36	The memories of his early years rushed over him in waves, but the memories had now lost their sting.	TSB P97	his early now their	Possessive adjective Adjective Adverb Possessive adjective	years him waves lost sting	of his early years over him in waves	Qualifier Prepositional phrase Prepositional phrase

No	TEXT	SOURCE	PRE MODIFICATION	TYPE OF MODIFIER	HEAD WORD	POSTMODIFICATION	TYPE OF MODIFIER
37	I remember her saying, and I can still see the glow on her face as she said it.	TSB P99	still her	Adverb Possessive adjective	see face	 on her face as she said it	 Prepositional phrase Qualifier
38	She turned and watched her sister move her enormous size effortlessly.	TSB P102	her her enormous	Possessive adjective Possessive adjective Adjective	sister move size	 effortlessly	 Adverb
39	A young girl of about twenty stood there, tall and graceful, her skin ebony black.	TSB P103	young about	Adjective Adverb	girl skin black	there of about twenty tall twenty graceful ebony black	Adverb Qualifier Adjective Quantifier Adjective Adjective Adjective
40	Li felt a firm grip on her shoulder and woke up with a start.	TSB P104	firm her	Adjective Possessive adjective	grip shoulder woke	firm on her shoulder up with a start	Adjective Prepositional phrase Adverb Qualifier

4.1.5: Analysis of Modification in Complex Sentences

No	TEXT	SOURCE	PRE MODIFICATION	TYPE OF MODIFIER	HEAD WORD	POSTMODIFICATION	TYPE OF MODIFIER
41.	It consisted of farmland and a few scattered mud huts which appeared quiet and deserted.	TSB P2	a few scattered mud	Quantifier Adjective Adjective	It huts	of farmland which appeared quiet and deserted quiet deserted	Prepositional phrase Adjective clause Adjective Adjective
42.	It was divided into three parts and his hut to your left would be Kaka's portion which consisted of two huts.	P8	 three his your Kaka's two	Quantifier Possessive adjective Possessive adjective Genitive Quantifier	parts hut left portion huts	into three parts which consisted of two huts of two huts	Prepositional phrase Adjectival clause Prepositional phrase
43	People whose relatives had gone to the prayer meeting that morning and others who had daughters married to men from that village, were frantic with worry.	TSB P11	 prayer that	 Adjective Adjective	people meeting/morning others village worry	whose relatives had gone to the prayer meeting that morning that morning who had daughters married to men from that village were frantic with worry frantic	Adjectival clause Qualifier Adjectival clause Qualifier Adjective
44.	He was so confident and sure of himself that Li was spellbound.	TSB P17	so sure	Adverb Adjective	confident Li	confident of himself that Li was spellbound spellbound	Adjective Prepositional phrase Adjectival clause Adjective

No	TEXT	SOURCE	PRE MODIFICATION	TYPE OF MODIFIER	HEAD WORD	POSTMODIFICATION	TYPE OF MODIFIER
45	He could not close his eyes to the constant beatings that took place at the slightest pretext in the name of discipline.	TSB P25	His Constant slightest	Possessive adjective Adjective Adjective	eyes beatings pretext name discipline	to the constant beatings that took place at the slightest pretext in the name of discipline	Qualifier Adjectival clause Prepositional phrase Prepositional phrase
46	The village was already alive because it was Tuesday morning, the village market day.	TSB P28	already Tuesday village market	Adverb Adjective Adjective Adjective	village alive morning day	alive because it was Tuesday morning the village market day	Adjective Adverbial clause Qualifier
47	No one knew the truth except a few elders who kept sealed lips.	TSB P37	No one a few sealed	Quantifier Quantifier Adjective	truth elders lips	who kept sealed lips sealed lips	Adjectival Clause Idiom
48.	Although Faku was much heavier than the other two, she walked with surprising agility.	TSB p.38	Although Faku was much heavier than the other two much heavier other surprising	Adverbial clause Adverb Adjective Adjective Adjective	Faku two agility	with surprising agility	Qualifier
49	Although the joke had been a costly one, it was also funny.	TSB P40	Although the joke had been a costly one costly also	Adverbial clause Adverb Adverb	one it	 funny	 Adjective
50	I have a friend who keeps four women in four different areas of the city.	TSB P45	four four different	Quantifier Quantifier Adjective	friend women areas city	who keeps four women in four different areas different of the city	Adjectival clause Prepositional phrase Adjective Prepositional phrase

No	TEXT	SOURCE	PRE MODIFICATION	TYPE OF MODIFIER	HEAD WORD	POSTMODIFICATION	TYPE OF MODIFIER
51	She expressed great pity for the two sisters whom she believed would never be privileged to see the city lights.	TSB P56	great two never city	Adjective Quantifier Adverb Adjective	pity sisters lights	for the two sisters whom she believed would never be privileged privileged to see the city lights	Qualifier Adjectival clause Adjective Qualifier
52	When she opened them again it was broad day light and Habu had left for work.	TSB P 70	When she opened them again broad day	Adverbial clause Adjective Adjective	opened light work	again for work	Adverb Prepositional phrase
53	I didn't know until now that I married a coward from an unworthy clan.	TSB P74	until unworthy	Adverb Adjective	now clan	now that I married a coward from an unworthy clan	Adverb Adjectival clause Prepositional phrase
54	She felt cheated and humiliated and could not contain the bitter tears that stung her eyes.	TSB P75	bitter her	Adjective Possessive adjective	She tears eyes	cheated humiliated that stung her eyes	Adjective Adjective Adjectival clause
55	From where she stood, she could see the ancient one crouched among the dead ashes of the fire hearth, his pregnant goat bleating at his side.	TSB P82	From where she stood ancient dead fire his pregnant	Adverbial clause Adjective Adjective Adjective Possessive adjective Adjective	one ashes hearth goat side	among the dead ashes of the fire heart at his side	Qualifier Prepositional phrase. Prepositional phrase

No	TEXT	SOURCE	PRE MODIFICATION	TYPE OF MODIFIER	HEAD WORD	POSTMODIFICATION	TYPE OF MODIFIER
56	And then when her child was exactly two years old and weaned, Alhaji Bature started to woo her openly in spite of Kaka's furious protests and Mama's undisguised fears	TSB P83	And then when her child was exactly two years old and weaned, then when her exactly two in spite of Kaka's furious Mama's undisguised	 Adverbial clause Adverb Adverb Possessive adjective Adverb Quantifier Idiom Genitive Adjective Genitive Adjective	child years woo protests fears	old weaned openly	Adjective Adjective Adverb
57	All were killed except Habu who escaped but with badly crushed legs.	TSB P92	All badly crushed	Quantifier Adverb Adjective	Habu legs	who escaped but with badly crushed legs with badly crushed legs	Adjectival clause Qualifier
58	Apparently the first wife made medicine to make her barren and was busy making another one to drive her insane, so she ran away.	TSB P93	Apparently first another	Adverb Quantifier adjective	wife one	to make her barren barren busy to drive her insane insane so she ran away away	Qualifier Adjective Adjective Qualifier Adjective Adverbial clause Adverb
59	The previous day, Li had been overwhelmed, with happiness when Faku had walked up and blindfolded her as they used to do when they were small.	TSB P102	the previous day Previous	Qualifier Adjective	day Li	with happiness when Faku had walked up and blindfolded her up as they used to do when they were small small	Prepositional phrase Adverbial clause Adverb Qualifier Adverbial clause Adjective

No	TEXT	SOURCE	PRE MODIFICATION	TYPE OF MODIFIER	HEAD WORD	POSTMODIFICATION	TYPE OF MODIFIER
60	It is just that I realized too late that her arms were longer than mine.	TSB P104	too her	intensifier possessive adjective	is late arms	just late that her arms were longer longer mine	Adverb Adverb Adjectival clause adjective Possessive adjective.

Quite a lot of components or elements of modification were identified in our study. Zaynab Alkali has used them extensively to modify her text The Stillborn. The table below provides the types of modifiers, their number, frequency of occurrences and percentages.

4.1.6 Summary of Modifiers Identified in The Stillborn

S/N	PREMODIFIDERS	FREQ	POSTMODIFIERS	FREQ	TOTAL	PERCENTAGE
1	Positive adjectives	38	Positive adjectives	25	63	19.5
2	(-er) Adjectives	5	(-ier) Adjectives	1	6	1.85
3	(-est) adjectives	2	(-est) adjectives	0	2	0.61
4	(-ed) adjectives	10	(-ed) adjectives	6	16	4.95
5	(-ing) adjectives	5	(-ing) adjectives	1	6	1.85
6	Noun adjectives	9	Noun adjectives	0	9	2.78
7	Demonstrative adjectives	2	Demonstrative adjectives	0	2	0.61
8	Possessive adjectives	29	Possessive adjectives	1	30	9.28
9	Genitives	6	Genitives	0	6	1.85
10	Adjectival clause	0	Adjectival clause	13	13	4.02
11	Adverbs	26	Adverbs	20	46	14.24
12	Adverbial clause	5	Adverbial clause	3	8	2.47
13	Prepositional phrase	0	Prepositional phrase	45	45	13.93
14	Intensifiers	5	Intensifiers	0	5	1.54
15	Quantifiers	21	Quantifiers	2	23	7.12
16	Qualifiers	7	Qualifiers	34	41	12.7
17	Idioms	1	Idioms	1	2	0.61
	Total	**171**		**152**	**323**	**100%**
		52.94%		**47.05%**	**100%**	

4.1.7 Adjectives

Adjectives are the most extensively used elements of modification in Zaynab Alkali's The Stillborn. They constitute 135 or 41.79% (i.e. all the adjective types that have been identified in the above table) of the total number of elements that were identified in the text. The positive adjectives, for instance, constitute 63 or 19.53% of the total number of modifiers that were identified in the text. Alkali is a great observer

of details who gives life-size description to her characters or features. She considers important or outstanding. This, she achieves by using quite a great deal of adjectives as revealed in the following sentence:

(1) A young girl of about twenty stood there tall and graceful her skin ebony black (P.103).

The structure above is loaded with adjectives which readily evoke a mental picture of the girl that is being described. Thus, it can be seen from the text above that the girl is not only "young" "tall" and "graceful" but that her skin was also "ebony" black. The adjective "young" premodifies the "girl" while "tall" and "graceful" postmodify the same "girl". The possessive adjective "her" premodifies the second headword "skin" which has also been postmodified by "ebony" and finally "ebony" in turn premodifies the colour "black"

Several instances of the use of multiples of adjectives abound in The Stillborn as the following example shows:

(2) She ran the comb painfully through her "thick" kinky hair (p.14)

In this extract, the possessive adjective "her" and the positive adjectives "thick" and "kinky" all premodify the headword "hair". Thus, it is plausible to say that the more adjectives are used in the structure of sentences, the clearer the identification or description of the person or thing becomes in the mind of the listener or reader. The above description has made clear the type of hair possessed by the woman.

Another example of Alkali's style of piling up of adjectives in one sentence runs thus:

(3) One of these days, she would be a different woman with painted nails and silky shining hair (p.54).

From the above example, “these” functions as a demonstrative adjective which denotes nearness or proximity of the headword “days” which it premodifies. The adjective “different” premodifies “woman”. The past participle form of adjective “painted” premodifies “nails”, “silky” and “shining” which is an (-ing) present participle form of adjective in the final analysis premodifies “hair”. This frequent practice of piling up of adjectives in texts suggests Alkali’s style or preference of the use of adjectives to identify or modify her characters or items she is describing in her text.

Alkali also uses single adjective to modify her characters. For example:

(4) “May the good God guide us all”, replied Li (p.105).

The above illustration shows that “good” premodifies the headword “God”. It describes God to be good which Li now prays will guide them all.

(5) Why then do we continue in this miserable condition? (p.14).

The above extract depicts that Alkali even uses adjectives to modify interrogative sentences. The word “miserable” functions as an adjective. It premodifies the headword “condition” in the extract above.

The comparative (-er) form of adjectives were not widely used. They constitute only 6 or 1.85% of the total number of modifiers that were identified in the study. They are used to compare two items in a series, for example:

(6) The smaller side of the village was less crowded (p.2).

In the above illustration, the comparative adjective “smaller” is used to premodify the headword “side”. The use of the comparative form “smaller” makes it possible to compare the smaller side of the village with the supposed bigger side. This is so, because neither the positive form “small” nor the superlative form “smallest” could be used to compare the two sides of the village. The other (-ed) form of adjective ‘crowded” is used to postmodify ‘side” in the above construction.

(7) The younger of the two sisters is running loose. (p.52).

The above illustration is another instance of how Alkali uses the comparative form of adjective to modify her text. Thus, the adjective “younger” distinguishes which of the two sisters is running loose. For more clarification, if we ask, which of the two sisters is running loose? The answer is certainly the “younger sister” and not the “old one”. The adjective “loose” as used in the above context postmodifies the verb “running”. It describes how the younger sister is behaving.

The frequent use of the past participle (-ed) form of adjectives is visible to a great extent. They constitute 16 or 4.95% in this study one of such examples includes:

(8) She felt cheated and humiliated and could not contain the bitter tears that stung her eyes. (p.75).

Contextually, the words “cheated” and “humiliated” function as adjectives. They both postmodify the subject “she” in the above text. This illustration tallies with what Morley (1985:39) refers to as “adjectival word complex” which many speakers or writers use for emphasis. The third adjective in the text “bitter” premodifies the second headword “tears” while the structure “that stung her eyes” functions as an adjectival

clause which modifies “bitter tears of the woman” that is being referred to in the text. Similarly, the possessive adjective “her” premodifies the woman’s “eyes”.

Another example of the use of (-ed) form of adjectives is demonstrated in the following structure:

(9) Li woke up, disturbed but soon fell asleep again. (p.80).

From the above structure, the underlined word “disturbed” functions as an adjective. It tells us more about how Li felt when she woke up from sleep.. Several instances of the use of (-ed) past participle form of adjectives are used extensively throughout Alkali’s text as are reflected in some of the sentences in the analyzed tables above.

The use of the superlative (-est) form of adjectives are also reflected on some of the pages of the text. They constitute only 2 or 0.61% in this study. The following text is an example of one:

(10) I was the eldest wife and the only barren one (p72).

The superlative (-est) form of adjective “eldest” premodifies the headword “wife” in the text. It is used to identify the woman who was speaking in the first clause. The use of the superlative form of the adjective “eldest” suggests that the wives in that home are more than two. Superlative adjectives are used to compare people or things that are more than two in number. The other adjective “barren” used in the second clause premodifies the pronoun “one” which is the antecedent of the pronoun “I” that functions as subject of the sentence.

The (-ing) present participle form of adjectives have also been employed by Alkali in her modification processes. They constitute 6 or 1.85% in this study. One of the examples runs thus:

(11) She called Li and together they lifted her to a sitting position. (p.102).

From the above example, the underlined word "sitting" does the work of an adjective. It premodifies the headword "position" describing the position to which the man was lifted.

Two other (-ing) present participles could also be identified in the following structure:

(12) Who, indeed can stop the wagging tongues of my enemies in the dancing arena? (p.54).

We could identify two other examples of the use of (-ing) form of adjectives in the above text. The first adjective "wagging" premodifies the headword "tongues", while the second one 'dancing" premodifies "arena" where her enemies were dancing.

Nouns which function as adjectives are not popular components of modification in this text. Only 9 or 2.78% were identified in the work As is the typical characteristics of adjectives, the first noun that precedes the second noun in a sentence structure always functions as an adjective. The following text exemplifies this:

(13) It consisted of farmland and a few scattered mud huts which appeared quiet and deserted. (p52).

From the text above, "mud" which is a noun functions as an adjective since it points out the type of huts that appeared quiet and deserted. The adjectives "quiet" and "deserted" postmodify the mud huts that are being described in the text.

(14) She expressed great pity for the two sisters whom she believed would never be privileged to see the city lights (p.82).

From the above extract, the adjective "great" premodifies "pity" while "privileged" postmodifies the "two sisters" in the main clause. The noun "city" in the subordinate clause "whom she believed would never be privileged to see the city lights" premodifies "lights" which immediately follows it.

(15) Demonstrative adjectives are not widely used in the text. They constitute only 2 or 0.61% in this study. The following text provides an example of one:

One of these days she would be a different woman, with painted nails and a silky shining hair. (p.55)

Thus, from the above sentence, the underlined word, "these" functions as a demonstrative adjective. It premodifies "days" which functions as the headword in that structure.

According to Hornby (1975:121), possessive pronouns are also adjectives. In this study also, they are considered as adjectives. Possessive adjectives are fairly used by Alkali in her text. They constitute 30 or 9.28%. The following text is an example:

(16) Her mind went back to the previous day (p.102)

From the above illustration the underlined word "her" functions as an adjective. It premodifies "mind" which functions as the headword in that structure.

The genitive (-s) is also another component of modification that is not widely used in the text under review. They constitute only 6 or 1.85% in this study. They are used to express possession or ownership of a property or one's opinion or behaviour. An example of such instances is:

(17) It is not a woman's womb but the man's seed. (p.51).

In this contexts the two Genitives "woman's" and "man's" function as adjectives. They denote what the woman and the man possess in terms of fertility. The first Genitive "woman's" premodifies "womb" while the second one also premodifies "seed".

(18) They heard Mama's unmistakable footsteps and stopped talking (p.7).

The use of the Genitive "Mama's" also suggests possession which were quite understood or associated to Mama. The other adjective "unmistakable" distinguishes the sound of her footsteps as she walks from someone else's footsteps. Hence her steps were "unmistakable" from other members of their home. Thus, the adjective "unmistakable" completes the final premodification of the headword "footsteps" in the above illustration.

4.1.8 Adverbs

Another very important component of modification is the adverb. An adverb as we are already aware modifies verbs, adjectives and another adverb in sentence structures. Alkali has also employed adverbs to a great extent to breathe more life into her text. They constitute 46 or 14.24% of the total number of modifiers identified in this work. Below is one of the instances:

(19) She was slightly embarrassed by the presence of the Headmaster. (p.39).

The text above presents clearly an example of how the underlined word "slightly" which functions as an adverb premodifies the verb "embarrassed". It is an adverb of manner which informs us the manner in which the woman was embarrassed.

Adverbs as revealed above could modify adjectives. An example of how this is done is shown in the following text:

(20) That was good enough for the crowd. (p.54)

Implicit from the above illustration is the co-occurrence of the adjective "good" with the adverb "enough". In this structure, the adverb 'enough" postmodifies the adjective "good" since the latter comes immediately after it. The adverb "enough" more positively qualifies "good" than just "good" standing alone on its own. Thus, we can infer from the phrase "good enough" that it carries more strength than just the mere use of the adjective "good" for the crowd."

An adverb could also be used to modify another adverb. For instance:

(21) So soon, the woman smiled incredulously. (p.78).

From the above text, the adverbial phrase "so soon" provides an example of how an adverb modifies another adverb. The adverb "so" as it is used in the adverbial phrase premodifies "soon" which is also another adverb. The second adverb "incredulously" postmodifies the verb "smiled" in this structure. It depicts how the woman smiled.

Adverbs could be used to modify the entire sentence. In this wise, the position where the adverb is placed determines such type of modification. The following text portrays this:

(22) Excitedly, Faku announced Garba's intention to marry her immediately and settle in the city. (p.56).

The adverb "excitedly" which occurs at the initial position in the above text suggests that it premodifies the whole sentence. This illustration tallies with what

Wredu (1998:63) refers to as 'sentence adverb". He maintains that a sentence adverb makes comment about the sentence as a whole. The other adverb "immediately used in the above text postmodifies the verb "marry". It points out the urgency that is involved for the marriage to take place without further delay.

(23) You know very well of what he thinks of cultural dance. (p.15).

The sentence above is another illustration of how an adverb modifies another one. The adverb "very" as used in the above context premodifies the other adverb "well" since it precedes it. The adverb "very" intensifies how well he thinks of cultural dance..

Below is also another example of how an adverb is used to premodify an adjective:

(24) Although he was obviously older than any of them, he had a deceptive figure, stocky and athletic. (p.44).

From the above instance, the underlined word "obviously" functions as an adverb. It premodifies the comparative adjective "older" since the former precedes the latter in that structure.

Adverbs could also occur in mid position in sentence structures. Alkali is not unmindful of such occurrences in the modification of her text. The following construction vividly depicts this type of structure:

(25) Li and Sule smiled mischievously at each other. (p.24).

The adverb "mischievously" occurs in the mid-position of the sentence. It postmodifies the verb "smiled" in the above illustration.

4.1.9 Prepositional Phrases

Prepositional phrases are also other great components of modification which Alkali makes use of in her text. A prepositional phrase according to Aremo (2004:42) is basically an item consisting of:

a preposition and a noun (e.g. from India)

a preposition and noun phrase (e.g. with a trap)

a preposition and a pronoun (e.g. against us).

As is clear from the above illustrations, prepositional phrases are important elements of modification. This is because they identify places, nouns and pronouns which function as headwords in noun phrase structures. Several instances of prepositional phrases are visible in Alkali's The Stillborn. They constitute 45 or 13.93% of the total number of modifiers identified in this study. The following text is one of the examples:

(26) Someone will probably sing in praise of me in the dancing arena. (p.16).

As are distinct from the above structure, the underlined structure functions as prepositional phrases. They clarify information in the text. Thus, "in praise of me" identifies the person in whose praise someone will probably sing. Similarly, "in the dancing arena" points out the place where someone will sing the song. The words "praise" "me" and "arena" function as headwords while "in" and "of" function as modifiers in the above prepositional phrase structures.

Alkali, very often uses multiples of prepositional phrases in a single sentence as are evident in the following text:

(27) People whose relatives had gone to the prayer meeting that morning and others who had their daughters married to men from that village were frantic with worry. (p.11).

Four prepositional phrases could be identified from the above text. The first one is "to the prayer meeting" which points out where the relatives had gone to. The second is "to men". This informs us to whom the daughters were married. The third is "from that village" which provides us with an information about where the men who married their daughters came from. The final prepositional phrase "with worry" is a completive which qualifies the adjective "frantic".

More instances of the use of prepositional phrases are seen across the pages of our study text as the following example shows:

(28) He could not close his eyes to the constant beating that took place at the slightest pretext in the name of discipline. (p.25).

Thus, from the above text, the prepositional phrase "to the constant beating" supplies additional information about the main clause i.e. "He could not close his eyes". This phrase gives the reason why he could not close his eyes. That is because of the constant beating in their home. The other prepositional phrase "at the slightest pretext" postmodifies the phrasal verb "took place" while "in the name" qualifies the headword "pretext" and finally "of discipline" identifies the purpose of the punishment administered on the children.

Traces of prepositional phrase radiate on many pages of our study text. Here is another instance of such traces:

(29) Li ventured and almost jumped with pain from a sharp jab on her thigh. (p.17).

From the above instance, the underlined structures constitute prepositional phrases. The first one “with pain” postmodifies the verb “jumped” while “from a sharp jab” hints us the cause of the pain. The third prepositional phrase “on her thigh” identifies the place where the injury from the sharp jab occurred.

4.1.10 Intensifiers

Intensifiers are words especially adverbs that strengthen the meaning of other words. In other words, they modify them. Only 5 or 1.54% constitute the total number of intensifiers that were identified in this study. One of the examples of such usage is prevalent in the following text:

(30) Beds were scarce and his case wasn’t too serious. (p.12).

The above illustration exemplifies the co-occurrence of the intensifier “too” with the adjective “serious” which functions as the headword. Contextually, therefore, “too” describes the degree of the seriousness of his case which wasn’t very serious to bother about it.

An intensifier could also be used to modify an interrogative sentence as the following text portrays:

(31) Who, indeed can stop the wagging tongue of my enemies in the dancing arena? (p.54).

From the rhetorical question above, the intensifier “indeed” depicts the intensity or seriousness of the question which was very pathetic. Her pathetic situation stems from the fact that her enemies often gossip or speak openly about her husband’s impotence in the dancing arena.

An intensifier could also be used to show the extent to which an action or behaviour has gone or reached. The following illustration serves as an evidence:

(32) The friendship went too far and she found herself with a child. (p.91).

The intensifier "too" used in the above context premodifies the adverb "far". Semantically, it suggests that the friendship had gone beyond the platonic level, which had now resulted in finding herself nursing a child. The use of the phrase "too far" therefore definitely has far reaching effect in a modification process than just the adverb "far" standing alone in that sentence structure.

4.1.11 Quantifiers

Quantifiers also function as modifiers. They provide an approximate amount of quantity or quality of something (e.g. water or sand) that is being described in text. However, Quirk et al (1985:261) refer to the cardinal numeral "three" as a quantifier.23 or 7.12% were realized in The Stillborn. The following text is an example:

(33) I have a friend who keeps four women in four different areas of the city. (p.45).

From the above extract, the underlined words are quantifiers. The first underlined word "four" premodifies "women", while the other one "four" modifies the "different areas" where his friend keeps his women. Figures as seen above also function as quantifiers which state the exact number of count nouns as demonstrated by the use of figure "four" in the above illustration.

(34) "Collect all the dirty dishes and a few dirty clothes", Li continued. (p.15).

The underlined words in the above text function as quantifiers. They premodify the headwords in the two noun phrases i.e. "the dirty dishes" and "dirty clothes". The quantifier "all" premodifies "dishes" while "a few" premodifies "clothes". Both the

two quantifiers “all” and “a few” neither suggest an exact number of the “dishes” nor the “clothes” that are being referred to in the above text.

A quantifier could also be used to modify a whole sentence. The following text is a lucid example:

(35) None of them seemed to have noticed the reckless speed at which they were going. (p.1).

The occurrence of the quantifier “None of” at the initial position premodifies the entire structure. This is because it precedes all the words in the above text.

Quantifiers may also occur at the final position in sentence structures. When they do occur, they are said to postmodify the whole sentence. The following sentence provies such an illustration:

(36) “May the good God guide us all” replied Li. (p.105).

The quantifier “all” occurring at the final position postmodifies the entire sentence. Semantically, it means that there is no exception to those who need God’s guidance but all.

4.1.12 Qualifiers

Qualifiers are other useful components of modification. This is because of the additional information that they provide for more identification or clarifications of texts. 41 or 12.7% of the total number of modifiers were identified in this study. The following sentence is an instance of the use of such qualifiers.

(37) A young woman of twenty-nine walked round her dead father’s compound deep in thought. (p.82).

The underlined structure ‘deep in thought” in the above text functions as a qualifier. And since it occurs at the end of the sentence, it postmodifies it. Thus, the qualifier “deep in thought” as used in the above text provides additional information about the young woman’s sad emotion who had been bereaved over her father’s death.

Another similar example of the case of qualifier runs thus:

(38) But that is not your real home, big brother. (p.100).

The above text also provides an instance of postmodification by the use of the qualifier “big brother” occurring at the final position. The qualifier reveals the affectionate feeling of the speaker towards the listener.

Qualifiers could also occur in the middle of a text as the following example portrays:

(39) The landlady nodded in agreement, murmuring favourable comments but Li took it all in silence. (p.89).

Thus, the underlined structure “murmuring favourable comments” occurs at the middle of the text. It functions as a qualifier because it modifies the landlady who nodded in agreement.

A qualifier could also occur at the initial position of a text. The following sentence portrays this:

(40) The previous day, Li had been overwhelmed with happiness when Faku had walked up and blindfolded her as they used to do when they were small. (p.102).

From the above example, the underlined structure “The previous day” functions as a qualifier. And since it occurs at the initial position, it premodifies the entire

structure. From the above illustrations, therefore, we can plausibly say that qualifiers could occur at initial, middle and final positions of texts.

4.1.13 Idioms

Idiomatic expressions or phrases are also used as modifiers in texts since they also constitute the noun phrase. In other words, they contain modifiers and headwords in their structures. Alkali uses only a few idioms to modify her text. Only 2 or 0..61% constitute the total number of modifiers in The Stillborn. Below is an illustration of one of the idioms:

(41) Shrewd and dominating, she had driven three other wives from the household and had ruled father and son with an iron hand. (p.8).

The underlined structure in the above text functions as an idiomatic phrase. It describes the harsh treatment which was meted out on both father and son by the shrewd and dominating woman. And because the idiomatic expression occurs at the final position of the text, it postmodifies it. “Iron”, which is a noun functions as an adjective. It premodifies the headword “hand” in that structure.

The second idiomatic phrase could be identified in the following sentence:

(42) His son never went out due to his fragile constitution, but he had a strong nose and he could smell a rat a mile away. (p.26).

The underlined structure, “smell a rat” in the text above is an idiom. In the ordinary sense of smell, it is not feasible to smell a rat because rats do not smell, besides, it is impossible also to smell a rat from a far distance of a mile away from where one is standing or sitting. However, the idiomatic phrase ‘smell a rat” which means to suspect something wrong about a situation or somebody is used to describe

Baba's "strong nose" in the above text. Thus, descriptions or modifications of phenomena, people's behaviour or ideas are typical characteristics of idiomatic expressions.

4.1.14 Adjectival Clauses

Adjectival clauses which function as adjectives in sentence structures are also employed in The Stillborn. They constitute 13 or 4.02% of the total number of modifiers identified in this study.

The following text is an instance of such clauses:

(43) It was divided into three parts and his hut to your left would be Kaka's portion which consisted of two huts. (p8).

From the above illustration, the underlined structure "which consisted of two huts" functions as adjectival clause. It identifies Kaka's portion of their compound in the main clause. And because the adjectival clause occurs at the end of the text, it is said to postmodify it.

Another example of an adjectival clause could be found in the following structure:

(44) All were killed except Habu who escaped but with badly crushed legs. (p.92).

The underlined structure "who escaped but with badly crushed legs" functions as an adjectival clause. This is so, because it postmodifies the headword "Habu" in the main clause. The adjectival clause provides us with

more information about Habu who though had escaped had his legs badly crushed due to the accident.

4.1.15 Adverbial Clauses

These types of clauses function as adverbs. They are also important elements of modification in texts. Alkali has employed just a few number of adverbial clauses to modify her text. They constitute 8 or 2.47% of the total number of modifiers identified in our study. The following extract functions as an instance of such adverbial clauses.

(45) Although Faku was much heavier than the other two, she walked with surprising agility. (p.38).

From the above text, the underlined structure functions as an adverbial clause. And since it occurs at the initial position of the sentence, it premodifies the main clause i.e. “she walked with surprising agility”. The adverbial clause gives more information about Faku who was much heavier than the other two. This comparison prepares the reader’s mind to expect what she would do despite the fact that she was much heavier than the other two.

An adverbial clause could also occur at the final position of a text. Below is an instance of such structure:

(46) The village was already alive because it was Tuesday, the village market day. (p.28).

The underlined structure in the second clause “because it was Tuesday, the village market day” is an adverbial clause. And by virtue of its occurrence at the end of

the text, it postmodifies the main clause, “the village was already alive”. The adverbial clause in the above text gives the reason why the village was alive, because it was Tuesday, their village market day.

4.2.0 Analysis of modification in Simple Sentences

	(2) GEORGE ORWELL'S ANIMAL FARM (AFM)						
No	**TEXT**	**SOURCE**	**PRE MODIFICATION**	**TYPE OF MODIFIER**	**HEAD WORD**	**POSTMODIFICATION**	**TYPE OF MODIFIER**
1	Why then do we continue in this miserable condition?	AFM P4	Why then why then this miserable	Qualifier Adverb Adverb Adjective Adjective	Condition	in this miserable conditions	Qualifier
2	Hearken to my joyful tidings.	AFM p7	my joyful	Possessive adjective Adjective	Tidings		
3	The stupidest questions of all were asked by Mollie, the white mare	AFM P 11	stupidest white	Adjective Adjective	questions mare	by Mollie of all the white mare	Prepositional phrase Qualifier Qualifier
4	I shall follow in a few minutes.	AFM p 17	 a few	 Quantifier	minutes	in a few minutes	Prepositional phrase
5	The importance of keeping the pigs in good health was all too obvious.	AFM p21	 good too all obvious	 Adjective Intensifier Quantifier Adjective	importanc e health	in good health	Qualifier
6	It had spread with astonishing speed.	AFM p.26	 Astonishing	 Adjective	speed	with astonishing speed	Qualifier
7	None of the animals ever mentioned Mollie again.	AFM P32	None of ever	Quantifier Adverb	animals mentioned	again	Adverb
8	He intended to take the whole burden upon his own shoulders.	AFM p.44	whole his own	Quantifier Possessive adjective Possessive adjective	burden shoulders	upon his own shoulders	Prepositional phrase
9	Every Monday Mr. Whymper visited the farm as had been arranged.	AFM p.45	Every Monday every	Qualifier Quantifier	Monday	 as had been arranged	 Qualifier

No	TEXT	SOURCE	PRE MODIFICATION	TYPE OF MODIFIER	HEAD WORD	POSTMODIFICATION	TYPE OF MODIFIER
10	A terrible sight had met their eyes.	AFM p.48	terrible their	Adjective Possessive adjective	sight eyes		
11	Almost immediately the footprints of a pig were discovered in the grass at a little distance from the knoll.	AFM p.49	Almost immediately almost immediately little	Qualifier Quantifier Adverb Adjective	footprints pig grass distance skull	of a pig in the grass at a little distance from the knoll	Prepositional phrase Prepositional phrase Prepositional phrase Prepositional phrase
12	Suddenly, early in the spring an alarming thing was discovered.	AFM P53	Suddenly early in the spring suddenly early alarming	 Qualifier Adverb Adverb Adjective	spring thing	in the spring	Prepositional phrase
13	It was a clear spring evening	AFM P59	clear spring	Adjective Adjective	evening		
14	Two days later the animals were called together for a special meeting in the barn.	AFM p.67	Two days later two special	 Qualifier Quantifier Adjective	days called meeting barn	later together for a special meeting in the barn	Adverb Adverb Qualifier Prepositional phrase
15	All these rumours had probably originated with snowball and his agents.	AFM P68	All these rumours all these probably his	 Qualifier Quantifier Adjective Adverb Possessive adjective	rumours originated agents snowball	with snowball	Prepositional phrase
16	The pallets under the skin of Boxer's leg smarted painfully.	AFM P72	 boxer's	 Genitive	pallets skin leg	painfully under the skin of boxer's leg	Adverb Prepositional phrase Prepositional phrase
17	A too rigid equality in rations, Squealer explained would have been contrary to the spirit of Animalism.	AFM P 77	A too rigid equality in rations Squealer explained too rigid	 Qualifier Intensifier Adjective	equality spirit	contrary in rations to the spirit of animalism of animalism	Adjective Prepositional phrase Prepositional phrase Qualifier

No	TEXT	SOURCE	PRE MODIFICATION	TYPE OF MODIFIER	HEAD WORD	POSTMODIFICATION	TYPE OF MODIFIER
18	Here Squealer's demeanour suddenly changed.	AFM P85	Here Squealer's suddenly	Adverb Genitive Adverb	demeanour changed		
19	The pigs appeared completely at ease in their chairs.	AFM P93`			pigs appeared chairs	completely at ease in their chairs	Adverb Idiom Prepositional phrase
20	There were shoutings, bangings, on the table, suspicious glances, furious denials.	AFM P97	suspicious eyes furious	Adjective Adjective Adjective	table glances denials	on the table sharp	Prepositional phrase Adjective

4.2.1 Analysis of Modification in Compound Sentences

No	TEXT	SOURCE	PRE MODIFICATION	TYPE OF MODIFIER	HEAD WORD	POSTMODIFICATION	TYPE OF MODIFIER
21	Benjamin was the oldest animal on the farm and the worst tempered.	AFM P2	oldest worst	Adjective Adverb	animal tempered	on the farm	Prepositional phrase
22	Let us face it: our lives are miserable, laborious and short	TSB P3	our	Possessive adjective	lives	miserable labourious short	Adjective Adjective adjective
23	Snowball was a more vivacious pig than Napoleon, quicker in speech and more inventive but was not considered to have the same depth of character	AFM P10	more vivacious quicker more same	Adverb Adjective Adjective Adverb Adjective	Vivacious Pig Speech inventive depth	in speech more inventive inventive of character	Qualifier Qualifier Adjective Prepositional phrase
24	After a little thought, the pigs sent for buckets and milked the cows fairly successfully, their trotters being well adapted to this task.	AFM P17	After a little thought after little fairly their well this	Qualifier Adverb Adjective Adverb Possessive adjective Adverb Adjective	thought successfully trotters task adapted	for buckets successfully to this task	Prepositional phrase Adverb Prepositional phrase
25	The dogs learned to read fairly well but were not interested in reading anything except the seven commandments.	AFM P 22	fairly interested seven	Adverb Adjective Quantifier	read well anything commandments	to read fairly well well except the seven commandments	Prepositional phrase Adverb Adverb Qualifier

No	TEXT	SOURCE	PRE MODIFICATION	TYPE OF MODIFIER	HEAD WORD	POSTMODIFICATION	TYPE OF MODIFIER
26.	He gave his orders quickly, and in a couple of minutes every animal was at his post.	AFM P26	his a couple of minutes every his	Possessive adjective Quantifier Quantifier Possessive adjective	gave minutes post	quickly at his post	Adverb Prepositional phrase
27	The pallets scored bloody streaks along Snowball's back and a sheep dropped dead.	AFM P28	bloody Snowball's	Adjective Genitive	streaks back dropped	along Snowball's back dead	Prepositional phrase Adverb
28	Her coat was newly clipped and she wore a scarlet ribbon round her forelock.	AFM P32	Her newly scarlet her	Possessive adjective Adverb Adjective Possessive adjective	coat dipped ribbon forelock	round her forelock	Adverb Prepositional phrase
29	At this there was a terrible baying sound outside, and nine enormous dogs, wearing brass-studded collars came bounding into the barn.	AFM P36	At this terrible baying nine enormous brass studded	Qualifier Adjective Adjective Quantifier Adjective Adjective Adjective	sound dogs collars barn	outside wearing brass studded collar into the barn	Adverb Qualifier Prepositional phrase
30	Finally, Napoleon raised his trotter for silence and announced that he had already made all the arrangements.	AFM P44	Finally his already all	Adverb Possessive adjective Adverb Quantifier	trotter silence made arrangements	for silence	Qualifier

No	TEXT	SOURCE	PRE MODIFICATION	TYPE OF MODIFIER	HEAD WORD	POSTMODIFICATION	TYPE OF MODIFIER
31	Napoleon snuffed deeply at them and pronounced them to be snowball's.	AFM P49	-	-	snuffed them	deeply at them to be Snowball's Snowball's	Adverb Prepositional phrase Qualifier Genitive
32	The potatoes had become soft and discoloured and only a few were edible.	AFM P51	only a few	Adverb Quantifier	potatoes	soft discoloured edible	Adjective Adjective Adjective
33	The pig's ears were bleeding, the dogs had tasted blood, and for a few moments they appeared to go quite mad.	AFM P57	Pig's a few quite	Genitive Quantifier Intensifier	ears moments	for a few moments to go quite mad mad	Preposition al phrase Qualifier Adjective
34	It had become usual to give Napoleon the credit for every successful achievement and every stroke of good fortune.	AFM p.63	successful every stroke good	Adjective Quantifier Adjective	It become credit Achievement fortune	usual for every successful achievement and every stroke of good fortune	Adjective Qualifier Qualifier
35	But Squealer counseled them to avoid rash actions and trust in comrade Napoleon's strategy.	AFM P66	Napoleon's	Genitive	actions strategy	to avoid rash actions rash	Qualifier Adjective
36	Napoleon called the animals together and in a terrible voice pronounced the dead sentence upon Frederick.	AFM P69	terrible dead	Adjective Adjective	animals voice sentence	together in a terrible voice upon Frederick	Adverb Qualifier Prepositional phrase

No	TEXT	SOURCE	PRE MODIFICATION	TYPE OF MODIFIER	HEAD WORD	POSTMODIFICATION	TYPE OF MODIFIER
37	A cow, three sheep and two geese were killed, and nearly everyone was wounded.	AFM P71	three two nearly	Quantifier Quantifier Adverb	sheep geese everyone		
38	The farm had had a fairly successful year, but was still short of money.	AFM P 78	fairly still	Adverb Adverb	successful year short money	successful short of money	Adverb Adverb Prepositional phrase
39	Sometimes the long hours on insufficient food were hard to bear, but Boxer never faltered.	AFM P 81	Sometimes the long hours on insufficient food sometimes long insufficient never	 Qualifier Adverb Adjective Adjective adverb	 hours food faltered	hard to bear on insufficient food	Adjective Prepositional phrase Qualifier
40	She was two years past the retiring age, but in fact no animal had ever actually retired.	AFM P89	two retiring in fact no animal ever actually	Quantifier Adjective Idiom Quantifier Adverb Adverb	years age retired		

4.2.2 Analysis of Modification in Complex Sentences

No	TEXT	SOURCE	PRE MODIFICATION	TYPE OF MODIFIER	HEAD WORD	POSTMODIFICATION	TYPE OF MODIFIER
41	Clover was a stout motherly mare approaching middle life, who had never quite got her figure back after her fourth foal.	AFM P2	stout motherly middle never her her fourth	Adjective Adjective Adjective Adverb Possessive adjective Possessive adjective quantifier	Mare life figure foal	 approaching middle life who had never got her figure back back after her fourth foal	 Qualifier Adjectival clause Adverb Qualifier
42	While Major was speaking four large rats had crept out of their holes and were sitting on their hindquarters listening to him.	AFM P6	While Major was speaking Four large their their	Adverbial clause Quantifier Adjective Possessive adjective Possessive adjective	rats holes hindquarters	out of their holes on their hindquarters listening to him to him	Prepositional phrase Prepositional phrase Qualifier Prepositional phrase
43	They were just coming down the stairs when Mollie was discovered to be missing.	AFM P15	just	Adverb	coming stairs	down the stairs when Mollie was discovered to be missing	 Prepositional phrase Adverbial clause
44	I will work harder which he had adopted as his personal motto.	AFM P19	his personal	Possessive adjective Adjective	work	harder which he had adopted as his personal motto. as his personal motto	Adjective Adjectival clause Qualifier

No	TEXT	SOURCE	PRE MODIFICATION	TYPE OF MODIFIER	HEAD WORD	POSTMODIFICATION	TYPE OF MODIFIER
45	It was lucky that the owners of the two farms which adjoined Animal Farm were on permanently bad terms.	AFM P25	two permanently bad	Quantifier Adverb Adjective	It Farms bad terms	lucky that the owners of the two farms of the two farms which adjoined Animal Farm	Adjective Adjectival clause Qualifier Adjectival clause
46	They were all carrying sticks except Jones, who was marching well ahead with a gun in his hands.	AFM P27	well his	Adverb Possessive adjective	They marching gun hands	all except Jones who was marching well ahead with a gun in his hand	Quantifier Qualifier Adjectival clause Qualifier
47.	These two disagreed at every point where disagreement was possible.	AFM P32	these two every point	Qualifier quantifier	two disagreement	at every point where disagreement was possible possible	Qualifier Adverbial clause Adjective
48	No one believes more firmly than Comrade Napoleon that all animals are equal.	AFM P38	No one more all	Quantifier Adverb Quantifier	firmly animals	that all animals are equal equal	Adjectival clause Adjective
49	He had seemed to oppose the windmill firmly as a maneuver to get rid of Snowball, who was a dangerous character and bad influence.	AFM P40	simply dangerous bad	Adverb Adjective Adjective	character snowball influence	simply as a maneuver to get rid of Snowball who was a dangerous character and bad influence.	Qualifier Idiom Adjectival clause

No	TEXT	SOURCE	PRE MODIFICATION	TYPE OF MODIFIER	HEAD WORD	POSTMODIFICATION	TYPE OF MODIFIER
50	We will teach this miserable traitor that he cannot undo our work so easily.	AFM P49	this miserable our so	Adjective Adjective Possessive adjective adverb	traitor work easily	that he cannot undo our work so easily easily	Adjectival clause Adverb
51	Whenever anything went wrong, it became usual to attribute it to Snowball.	AFM P53	Whenever anything went wrong whenever wrong	Adverbial clause Adverb Adjective	it it Snowball	usual to attribute it to Snowball to Snowball	Adjective Qualifier Prepositional phrase
52	Since Jones had left the farm until today, no animal had killed another animal.	AFM P58	Since Jones had left the farm until today until since no animal another	Adverbial clause Adverb Adverb Quantifier Adjective	left animal today	today	Adverb
53	All the same, there were days when they felt that they would sooner have had less figures and more food.	AFM P63	All the same all same sooner less more	Qualifier Quantifier Adjective Adverb Adjective Adjective	bad figures food	when they felt that they would sooner have had less figures and more food	Adverbial Clause
54	When it was all gone, another special meeting was held in the barn for the animals to inspect Frederick's bank-notes.	AFM P68	When it was all gone when all another special Frederick's	Adverbial clause Adverb Quantifier Quantifier Adjective Genitive	meeting barn bank-notes	special for the animals to inspect Frederick's bank-notes	Adjective Qualifier
55	Boxer and Clover pulled the wagon which served as a hearse and Napoleon himself walked at the head of the procession.	AFM P73	-	-	wagon napoleon	which served as a hearse himself at the head of the procession	Adjectival clause Qualifier Prepositional phrase Qualifier

No	TEXT	SOURCE	PRE MODIFICATION	TYPE OF MODIFIER	HEAD WORD	POSTMODIFICATION	TYPE OF MODIFIER
56	The animals sniffed the air hungrily and wandered whether a warm mash was being prepared for their supper.	AFM 78	warm their	Adjective Possessive adjective	sniffed mash supper	hungrily whether a warm mash was being prepared for their supper for their supper	Adverb Adverbial clause Qualifier
57	There was only one candidate Napoleon who was elected unanimously.	AFM P80	only one	Quantifier	candidate	Napoleon who was elected unanimously unanimously	Qualifier Adjective clause Adverb
58	However, Benjamin and Clover could only be with Boxer after working hours and it was in the middle of the day when the van came to take him away.	AFM P83	However only working	Adverb Adverb Adjective	be hours middle day him	with Boxer after working hours in the middle of the day when the van came to take him away away	Prepositional phrase Qualifier Prepositional phrase Qualifier Adverbial clause Adverb
59.	After that it did not seem strange when next day the pigs who were supervising the farm all carried whips in their trotters.	AFM Pp92	After that after next all their	Qualifier Adverb Adjective Quantifier Possessive adjective	day trotters	strange when next day who were supervising the farm in their trotters	Adjective Qualifier Adjectival clause Prepositional phrase
60	But they had not gone twenty yards when they stopped short.	AFM P 97	twenty	Quantifier	yards stopped	when they stopped short short	Adverbial clause Adjective Adverb

4.2.3 Summary of Modifiers in George Orwell's Animal Farm

	Premodifiers	Frequency	Postmodifiers	Frequency	Total	Percentage
1	Positive adjectives	37	Positive adjectives	13	50	16.83
2	(-er) Adjectives	1	(-er) Adjectives	0	1	0.33
3	(-est) Adjectives.	2	(-est) Adjectives	0	2	0.67
4	(-ed) Adjectives	3	(-ed) Adjectives.	1	4	1.34
5	(-ing) Adjectives	4	(-ing) Adjectives	0	4	1.34
6	Noun Adjectives	2	Noun Adjectives	0	2	0.67
7	Demonstrative Adjectives	4	Demonstrative Adjectives.	0	4	1.34
8	Possessive Adjectives.	21	Possessive adjs.	0	21	7.07
9	Genitives	6	Gen etives	0	6	2.02
10	Adjectival clauses	0	Adj. clauses	11	11	3.7
11	Adverbs	42	Adverbs	22	64	21.54
12	Adverbial Clauses	4	Adv. Clauses	6	10	3.36
13	Prepositional Phrases	0	Prep. Phrases	36	36	12.12
14	Intensifiers	2	Intensifiers	0	2	0.67
15	Quantifiers	30	Quantifiers	0	30	10.1
16	Qualifiers	13	Qualifiers	34	47	15.82
17	Idioms	1	Idioms	2	3	1.1
	Total	172		125	297	100%
		57.91%		42.09%	100%	

4.2.4 Analysis of Modification in George Orwell's Animal Farm

4.2.5 Adjectives

Adjectives are the most extensively used modifiers in Orwell's Animal Farm. They constitute 94 or 31.64%% i.e. all the adjective types for instance: positive, comparative (-er) for, superlative (-iest), (-ed) past participle and (-ing) present participle.. Others are nouns used as adjectives, demonstrative

adjectives, possessive adjectives and Genitives as are reflected in the above table.

The positive form of adjectives are extensively used by Orwell to modify his text. 50 or 16.83% constitute the number of positive adjectives in his text. The following text provides one of such illustrations:

(1) Our lives are miserable, laborious and short. (p.3).

The above illustration shows Orwell's style of description by piling up of adjectives in a text to modify the headword. The underlined words in the above illustration function as adjectives. The first possessive adjective "our" premodifies the headword "lives" while "miserable", "laborious" and "short" postmodify it.

A similar example of Orwell's style of piling up of adjectives in a text runs thus:

(2) There were shoutings, bangings on the table, suspicious glances, furious denials. (p.97).

From the above text, the underscored words function as adjectives. The adjectives "suspicious" premodify "glances" in the first noun phrase. The last adjective in the series "furious" premodifies "denials" in the second noun phrase.

The comparative (-er) adjective form is not widely used by Orwell in his text. It is the least component of modification that he uses as a modifier. Thus, only 1 or 0.33% were identified in this study. Below is an example of one:

(3) I will work harder, which he had adopted as his personal motto. (p.19).

The comparative adjective "harder" in the above text postmodifies the verb "work". To understand the above comparison the more, we may add "than before" so that we have "I will work harder than before". The second possessive adjective "his" premodifies another adjective "personal" which finally premodifies "motto" functioning as the headword in the last clause.

The superlative (-est) form of adjective is not also used widely in our study text. Only 2 or 0.67% were sighted in Orwell's text. The following is an example:

(4) The stupidest questions of all were asked by Mollie, the white mare. (p.11).

The superlative adjective "stupidest" is used to compare the questions asked by the animals on Animal Farm. This suggests that the questions asked must have been more than two, hence the use of the superlative adjective "stupidest" in the above structure. The other adjective "white" premodifies the second headword "mare".

Orwell's modification skill is also demonstrated when he uses two superlative adjectives in a compound sentence as portrayed in the following illustration:

(5) Benjamin was the oldest animal on the farm and the worst tempered. (p.2).

Thus, from the above illustration, the description of Benjamin's age and behaviour are being compared with the other animals on the farm. This comparison is made possible only by the use of the two superlative adjectives "oldest" and "worst" since we cannot say for instance:

Benjamin was the older animal on the farm and the worse tempered.

The past participle (-ed) form of adjective was not also widely used. Only 4 or 1.34% were identified in his text as samples for our analysis. The following text provides such sample:

(6) the potatoes had become soft and discoloured and only a few were edible. (p.51)

The above text has identified three adjectives which have been underlined, i.e. "soft", "discoloured" and "edible". All these adjectives postmodify "potatoes" which functions as the headword. The past participle "discoloured" as used in the above structure functions as an adjective.

Another example of the past participle could also be realized in the following structure:

(7) The pallets scored bloody streaks along Snowball's back and a sheep dropped dead. (p28).

From the above structure, the underlined words function as adjectives. The first one "bloody" premodifies "streaks" while the Genitive "Snowball's" premodifies "back". The last adjective in the text is "dead" which postmodifies the third headword "sheep".

Similarly, the (-ing) present participle was not also extensively used. Only 4 or 1.34% were identified in our study text. Here is an instance of one:

(8) Suddenly, early in the spring an alarming thing was discovered. (p.53).

The text above identifies an instance of the use of the present participle "alarming" as an adjective. It means that a fearful thing was discovered. Thus, it premodifies "thing" which is the headword in this structure.

Nouns as we have earlier mentioned in the foregoing paragraphs could function as adjectives when they immediately precede another noun. 2 or 0.67% constitute the number of nouns that were realized in the text under analysis. The following structure exemplifies the co-occurrence of a noun with another.

(9) It was a clear spring evening (p.59).

In the text exemplified above, the underlined words function as adjectives. The adjective "clear" and "spring" which is a noun both premodify "evening" which is another noun in that structure.

The demonstrative adjectives have also not been employed widely in Orwell's text under review. Only 4 or 1.34% were realized as samples for analysis. For example:

(10) Why then do we continue in this miserable conditions? (p.4).

The above interrogative sentence contains two adjectives. The demonstrative adjective "this" and the second adjective "miserable" both premodify the headword "condition".

The following text also exemplifies another instance of the use of demonstrative adjective:

(11) All these rumours had probably originated with Snowball and his agents. (p68).

The demonstrative adjective "these" as used in the above structure premodifies "rumours which functions as headword. It identifies the rumours the speaker was referring to in the above extract.

Possessive adjectives were fairly used in Orwell's text. They constitute 21 or 7.07% of the total number of modifiers identified as samples in this work. The following structure exemplifies as follows:

(12) He intended to take the whole burden upon his own shoulder. (p.44).

From the above instance, the underlined words "his" and "own" are possessive adjectives. Thus, both "his" and "own" premodify "shoulder" in that structure. The other possessive adjective "own" is used for emphasis to say that the whole burden would rest upon his own shoulders. In other words, it identifies more specifically whose shoulder the whole burden would hang upon.

(13) Harken to my joyful tidings. (p.7).

The underlined words in the above text are adjectives. The first adjective "my" is a possessive adjective used to premodify "joyful" which is also an adjective. The headword "tidings" has been premodified by the preceding adjective "joyful".

The Genitives which also denote possession are not extensively used by Orwell in his text. There were only 6 or 2.02% that were sighted in this study as the following illustration portrays:

(14) But squealer counseled them to avoid rash actions and trust in Comrade Napoleon's strategy. (p.66).

The underlined words in the above sentence function as adjectives. The adjective "rash" prremodifies "action" while the Genitive Napoleon's depicts whose strategy they would trust in.

4.2.6 Adjectival Clauses

Another essential component of modification is the adjectival clause which functions as an adjective. Adjectival clauses are also referred to as subordinate relative clauses. They are used to modify the main clauses in sentence structures. Only 11 or 3.7% constitute the total number of adjectival clauses that were identified as samples for this study. The following structure is an example:

(15) There was only one candidate, Napoleon who was elected unanimously. (p.80).

The underlined structure "who was elected unanimously" functions as an adjectival clause. It postmodifies the headword "Napoleon" whose candidature was not contested by any other animal on the farm.

Another example of an adjectival clause runs thus:

(16) We will teach this traitor that he cannot undo our work so easily. (p.49).

In the text above, the underscored subordinate clause "that he cannot undo our work so easily" functions as an adjectival clause. It postmodifies "traitor" which is the headword in the main clause.

4.2.7 Adverbs

Another major component of modification in texts is the adverb. Adverbs are used to a great deal in Orwell's Animal Farm. They constitute 64 or 21.54% of the total number of modifiers that were identified in the text. The following structure portrays this:

(17) The pallets under the skin of Boxer's leg smarted painfully. (p.72).

From the above instance, the underlined word "painfully" is an adverb. It postmodifies the verb "smarted" in that sentence. It is an adverb of manner which hints the reader of the pain that Boxer was feeling in his leg.

An adverb could also be used to modify an entire text. For example:

(18) Finally, Napoleon raised his trotter for silence and announced that he had already made all the arrangements. (p.44).

The underlined words "finally" and "already" in the above text are adverbs. The first adverb "finally" premodifies the whole text, because it occurs at the initial position of the sentence. The second adverb "already" on the other hand premodifies the verb "made" which immediately follows it.

An adverb could be employed to modify an adjective. The following structure vividly portrays this.

(19): It was lucky that the owners of the two farms were on permanently bad terms. (p.25).

Implicit from the above structure is the adverb "permanently". It premodifies the adjective "bad" in that text since it precedes it.

An adverb could also occur at the initial position as well as the final position of a sentence. Orwell exemplifies this using the following text:

(20) However, Benjamin and Clover could only be with Boxer after working hours and it was in the middle of the day when the van came to take him away. (p.83).

From the above illustration, the underlined words "However" and "away" are adverbs. The adverb "however" which occurs at the initial position, premodifies the entire sentence. The second adverb "away" occurs at the final position of the text. In this case, it does not postmodify the whole sentence but only the verb "take" in the prepositional phrase i.e. "to take him away".

An adverb could also be used to modify another adverb. The following sentence shows an example of such structure:

(21) After a little thought, the pigs sent for buckets and milked the cows fairly successfully, their trotters being well adapted to this task. (p.17).

The words that have been underlined in the above illustration function as adverbs. The first adverb "fairly" premodifies the second adverb "successfully" while the last adverb "well" premodifies the verb "adapted".

4.2.8 Adverbial Clauses

Adverbial clauses are also important elements of modification in texts. Only 10 or 3.36% were randomly selected as sample texts for our analysis. The following illustration brings into focus an instance of such structure.

(22) But they had not gone twenty yards when they stopped short. (p.97).

The underlined structure "when they stopped short" is an adverbial clause. It identifies the distance where they had not reached when they stopped short. i.e. "twenty yards". Adverbial clauses are also referred to as subordinate clauses in linguistic analysis of texts.

The following structure also contains an instance of an adverbial clause:

(23) The animals sniffed the air hungrily and wandered whether a warm mash was being prepared for their supper. (p78).

Thus, from the above example, the underlined structure "whether a warm mash was being prepared for their supper" functions as an adverbial clause. It postmodifies the main clause. The subordinate clause in the text however depends on the main clause for it to make sense since it cannot stand alone on its own for complete meaning.

An adverbial clause could also occur at the initial position of a text. The following extract sheds more light on this type of structure:

(24) Whenever anything went wrong, it became usual to attribute it to Snowball. (p53).

The underscored structure “whenever anything went wrong” in the above sentence is an adverbial clause. It premodifies the main clause i.e. “it became usual to attribute it to Snowball” which immediately follows it.

4.2.9 Prepositional Phrases

The second extensively used modifier identified in Orwell’s text is the prepositional phrase. They constitute 36 or 12.12% of the total number of modifiers that were identified in this work. The following extract contains some multiples of prepositional phrases:

(25) Almost immediately, the footprints <u>of a pig</u> were discovered <u>in the grass at a little distance</u> <u>from the knoll</u>. (p.49).

Thus, from the above extract, the underlined structures are prepositional phrases. The first structure “of a pig” identifies the owner of the “footprints” which functions as the first headword. The second structure “in the grass” points out the place where the footprints were discovered. The third structure “at a little distance” informs us of the distance while the last structure ‘from the knoll”, tells us about the distance from where the footprints were discovered to the position where the knoll was.

Other instances of the use of prepositional phrases have been illustrated in the following sentence:

(26) Boxer and Clover pulled the wagon which served as a hearse and Napoleon himself walked <u>at the head of the procession</u>. (p.73).

From the above illustration, the underscored structure “at the head” and “of the procession” are prepositional phrases. The first structure “at the head” postmodifies the verb “walked”. The second structure “of the procession” finally completes the modification in that text. It is also an instance of postmodificaiton.

The prepositional phrase could also occur at the initial position as well as the final position of a text. Orwell demonstrates this in the following structure:

(27) At this, there was a terrible baying sound outside and nine enormous dogs wearing brass-studded collars came bounding into the barn. (p.36).

From the above example, “At this” which occurs at the initial position of text premodifies the entire structure. The other prepositional phrase “into the barn” which occurs at the final position of the sentence postmodifies the verb “bounding” i.e. the enthusiastic way the dogs ran into the barn at Napoleon’s command.

4.2.10 Intensifiers

Only a few intensifiers were identified in our study text. They constitute 2 or 0.67% of the total number of modifiers that constitute our sample population. Here follows an instance of such structure:

(28) The Pig’s ears were bleeding, the dogs had tasted blood, and for a few moments they appeared to go quite mad. (p.57).

The underscored word “quite” in the above instance functions as an intensifier. It premodifies the adjective “mad”, stressing the extent of the wildness the dogs had reached.

Another instance of the use of an intensifier could be elicited from the following sentence:

(29) The importance of keeping the pigs in good health was all too obvious. (p.21).

From the above instance, the underlined word “too” functions as an intensifier. It premodifies the adjective “obvious” i.e. the reason for the need to keep the pigs in good health has already been known.

4.2.11 Quantifiers

These types of components of modification were fairly used by Orwell in his text. 30 or 10.1% were visible in the text. The following sentence portrays this:

(30) I shall follow you in a few minutes. (p.17).

In the above text, the underlined structure is a quantifier. It premodifies the headword “minutes”. The use of the quantifier “a few” breathes life into the sentence since we cannot say for instance, “I shall follow you in minute” without inserting “a few” in the structure of the sentence.

A quantifier could be used to premodify a whole sentence. For example:

(31) None of the animals ever mentioned Mollie again. (p.32).

The underlined structure “none of” in the above example is a quantifier. Its occurrence at the initial position of the text premodifies the entire sentence.

A similar example of a quantifier occurring at the initial position of a text could also be elicited from the following illustration:

(32) All these rumours had probably originated with Snowball and his agents. (p.68).

From the above text, "all" functions as a quantifier. And since it precedes all the words in the text, it is said to premodify the entire structure.

Two or more quantifiers could also be used as modifiers in a text as are provided in the following sentence:

(33) He gave his orders quickly and in a couple of minutes every animal was at his post. (p.26).

From the above illustration, the structure "a couple of minutes" and "every" both function as quantifiers. The first structure "a couple of minutes" postmodifies the adverb "quickly" in that text. Thus, from the above context, it is imperative to juxtapose the quickness that is required in adhering to Napoleon's orders with the immediate response the animals responded. The second quantifier "every" premodifies the headword animal in that text.

4.2.12 Qualifiers

A fair number of qualifiers were also elicited from Orwell's text. They constitute 47 or 15.82% of the total number of modifiers that were identified in this study. The following sentence exemplifies how a qualifier is used to add more information in the text for more comprehension or clarification:

(34) At this, there was a terrible baying sound and nine enormous dogs wearing brass-studded collars came bounding into the barn. (p.36).

In the above sentence, the underscored structure "wearing brass-studded colars" functions as a qualifier. It provides us with more information about what the dogs were wearing.

Qualifiers could also occur at both the initial and final positions of a text. For instance:

(35) Every Monday, Mr. Whymper visited the farm as had been arranged. (p.45).

Thus from the above example, the underlined structure 'every Monday" which occurs at the initial position functions as a qualifier. It informs us of the day when Mr. Wymper visited the farm. Similarly, the second qualifier "as had been arranged" provides additional information that, that arrangement had already been made prior to Mr. Whymper's visits.

Other examples of qualifiers could also be found from the following structure:

(36) The stupidest questions of all were asked by Mollie, the white mare.(p.11).

The structures that have been underlined in the above text function as qualifiers. The prepositional structure "of all" postmodifies "questions" while "by Mollie" points out the person that asked those stupid questions. The last qualifier in the text is "the white mare" which distinguishes Mollie from the other mares on the farm.

4.2.13 Idioms

The idioms that were identified from Orwell's Animal Farm were quite few. Only 3 or 1.1% were identified in this study. The following text provides an illustration of an idiomatic phrase:

(37) He had seemed to oppose the Windmill as a maneuver to get rid of Snowball who was a dangerous character and bad influence. (p.40).

From the above text, the underlined structure “to get rid of Snowball” functions as an idiomatic phrase. It means to get free of Snowball or to chase him away from the farm. This idiomatic phrase provides us with additional information which acquaints us with the reason behind his maneuvering.

The following sentence also contains an idiomatic phrase:

(38) The pigs appeared completely at ease in their chairs. (p.93).

Within the structure above could be found an idiomatic phrase. The structure “at ease” which has been underlined functions as an idiomatic phrase. Semantically, it means that the pigs were relaxed and confident in themselves. This idiom was used to describe the appearance of the pigs sitting in their chairs.

4.2.14 Discussion

The discussion dwells on the data which have been analyzed in the above tables. The tabulated data in the tables present the general analyses of the various texts in which different types of modifiers were identified according to their functions in each sentence structure. For instance, adjectives, adverbs, quantifiers, qualifiers etc function as modifiers. The discussion would shed more light on the frequency of the occurrences of each modifier in Alkali’s The Stillborn and Orwell’s Animal Farm. However, this discussion is directed towards comparing the various types of modifiers identified in Alkali’s text with those in Orwell’s.

The general objective of this study is to examine whether premodifiers were more extensively used than postmodifiers in both of the texts under analysis. The results, however, show that both Alkali and Orwell have used more premodifiers than postmodifiers. Orwell however, uses more premodifiers in his text than Alkali in hers..

This is evident from the following figures. Alkali had used 171 or 52.94% instances of premodifiers while Orwell had 172 or 57.91% instances. However, it could be observed from the two figures that Orwell has only slightly used more premodifiers than Alkali because the difference between them is quite little.

Both Alkali and Orwell have used postmodifiers extensively to modify their texts. Alkali has used 152 or 47.05 postmodifiers while Orwell has used only 125 or 42.09% postmodifiers. Thus, we could infer from the above figures that Alkali has used more postmodifiers, than Orwell in their texts under analysis.

Similarly, 323 or 52.09% modifiers were identified in Alkali's The Stillborn while 297 or 47.9% modifiers were elicited from Orwell's Animal Farm. From the above statistics therefore, it could be categorically said that Alkali has used more modifiers to modify her text than Orwell has used them in his.

Adjectives are more extensively used by both Alkali and Orwell in their texts probably because of their numerous types. 144 or 43.34% adjectives were identified in Alkali's The Stillborn while only 94 or 31.64% adjectives were found in Orwell's Animal Farm. This therefore shows that Alkali has employed more adjectives in her work than Orwell did in his.

Both Alkali and Orwell have used positive adjectives to modify their texts. While Alkali has 63 or 19.5% in her text, Orwell has 50 or 16.83%. This also points out that Alkali has used more positive adjectives than Orwell.

The comparative (-er) form of adjectives were not popularly used by both Alkali and Orwell. Only 1 or 0.33% was found in Orwell's text while 6 or 1.85% were

found in Alkali's text. It could therefore be said that Alkali has used more comparative adjectives than Orwell has used in his text.

The superlative (-est) form of adjectives were equally used by both authors. Alkali has used only 2 or 0.61% and Orwell has also used 2 or 0.67%. This form of adjectives was among the least types of adjectives used by both authors.

The past participle (-ed) form of adjectives constitute 16 or 4.95% in Alkali's text, while Orwell has only 4 or 1.34%. Thus, it could be deduced from the above statistics that Alkali has by far, made more use of the past participle form of adjectives than Orwell in his text.

The (-ing) present participle form of adjectives were not extensively used by both authors. Alkali has used only 6 or 1.85% while Orwell has used only 4 or 1.34%. We could therefore, state here that the present participle (ing) form of adjectives were not popularly used by both Alkali and Orwell in their texts under analysis.

The nouns as earlier observed could be used as adjectives to modify other nouns which immediately follow them in sentence structures. Alkali has used 9 or 2.78% in her text while Orwell has used only 2 or 0.67%. Thus, Alkali is said to have used more nouns as adjectives in her text than Orwell has used in his text.

Possessive adjectives have been fairly used by both authors. However, Orwell has used this form of adjectives more than Alkali has used in her text. This of course is evident in the number of the frequency of occurrences in their texts. 30 or 9.28% were identified in Orwell's text while only 2 or 7.07% were found in Alkali's text.

The Genitives which are also possessive form of adjectives were equally used by both authors. Alkali used it 6 or 1.85% while Orwell has also used it 6 or 2.02%

From the above figures, it could be inferred from them that the Genitives were not frequently used by both authors in their texts..

Another important component of modification in text is also the adjectival clause which also functions as an adjective. 13 or 4.02% constitute the number of adjectival clauses that were identified in The Stillborn while only 11 or 3.7% were found in Animal Farm. Thus, we could deduce from these figures above that Alkali has used more adjectival clauses in her text than Orwell has employed in his work.

The adverb is also a very essential component of modification in texts. Both authors have used adverbs to a great deal to modify their texts. 46 or 14.24% constitute the total number of adverbs that were identified in Alkali's text, while 64 or 21.54% were visible in Orwell's text. From the above statistics therefore, it is obvious that Orwell has employed more adverbs in his work than Alkali has employed in hers.

Adverbial clause which function like adverbs in sentence structures were also employed in both Alkali's and Orwell's works. However, only 8 or 2.47% adverbs were identified in The Stillborn while 10 or 3.36% were visible in Animal Farm. The figures above therefore, suggest that Orwell has used more adverbial clauses in his modification process than Alkali has done in hers.

Prepositional phrases are also very important component of modification in text. Both authors have to a great extent, used them to modify their texts. Alkali has used 45 or 13.93% while Orwell has used 36 or 12.12%. The above figures suggest that Alkali has employed more prepositional phrases in her text than Orwell in his.

Intensifiers are not extensively used by both Alkali and Orwell in their works. However, the number of intensifiers that were identified in Alkali's text have exceeded that of Orwell in his text. Alkali has 5 or 1.54% while Orwell has only 2 or 0.67%. Quantifiers were fairly employed by both authors in their texts. 23 or 7.12% constitute the number of quantifiers that were identified in Alkali's work while 30 or 10.1% were found in Orwell's. Thus, it could be inferred from the above statistics that Orwell has used more quantifiers in his work than Alkali has used in hers.

Another fairly used modifier that was employed by both authors is the qualifier. 41 or 12.7% were realized in The Stillborn while 47 or 15.8% were identified in Animal Farm. The above figures therefore, do suggest that Orwell has employed more qualifiers in his work than Alkali did in her text.

Idiomatic phrases which are also elements of modification in texts were not widely used by both Alkali and Orwell in their texts. Alkali has used only 2 or 0.61% while Orwell has used 3 or 1.1%. These figures therefore, depict that Orwell has more slightly employed idiomatic phrases in his text than Alkali has done in her work.

In the final analysis, it could be said that Alkali has used more modifiers in her text than Orwell has done in his. However, the most essential thing is that both authors have used various types of modifiers to either premodify or postmodify their texts. Thus, modifiers are very essential in literary works as well as in language and communication.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

5.0 Introduction

This chapter contains the summary of the research and the conclusions drawn from the analysis. It is therefore divided into two broad sections; section one focuses on the summary while the other section contains the conclusion.

5.1 Summary

This research upholds that modifiers are very crucial in modification of texts. In other words, modifiers are central and supreme in texts as well as in communication. The components of modification which this study examined include: adjectives, adverbs, adjectival and adverbial clauses. Others are prepositional phrases, idioms, quantifiers, intensifiers and qualifiers. The importance of these modifiers in texts can never be over-emphasized. This is because of their numerous roles that they perform in communication. Thus, descriptions, comparisons, emphases, appreciations, sadness and joy would have remained elusive to express without the effective use of appropriate modifiers.

Context is an important recourse in determining the functions of modifiers in sentence structures. This is because a particular modifier could function either as an adjective or an adverb in a text. The analyses in the tables above revealed modifiers and their functions. The co-occurrences of the headwords and the modifiers in sentence structures are further elucidated by the descriptions that follow after each of the tables.

This research therefore, set out to examine how and to what extent Alkali and Orwell use modifiers such as adjectives, adverbs, intensifiers, quantifiers etc to modify

their texts under analyses. This research has also attempted to provide answers to the following questions which serve as guides in this study:

(i) How does Zaynab Alkali's style or form of modification in The Stillborn compare to or differ from George Orwell's Animal Farm?

(ii) To what extent are the components of modification, for instance, adjectives and adverbs used to modify characters, events, scenes and objects in Alkali's and Orwell's works?

(iii) To what extent do both authors use quantifiers, intensifiers and qualifiers as elements of modification?

(iv) How and to what extent do Alkali and Orwell employ the use of prepositional phrases, inflected adjectives i.e. the Genitive (-s), the comparatives and superlatives (-er and –est) as well as the past and present participle of verb forms (-ed and –ing) to distinguish two or more characters from each other or from others?

(v) To what extent are literary devices such as fixed or poetic expressions, and idioms used to modify the texts under analysis?

(vi) How and to what extent does the gender of a writer have effect on modification of the texts that he/she creates?

(vii) To what extent do Alkali and Orwell use relative and adverbial clauses as styles or forms of modification?

The research has been divided into five parts, all of which focus on the theme of the research, all of which are intricately linked together to make up the whole work.

In chapter one, apart from setting out the research questions above, we have also attempted to spell out the motivating factors, statement of the problem, justification, aim and objectives, scope, delimitations and limitations of the study.

Chapter two focuses on the critical review of literature that are closely related to modifiers and their co-occurrences with headwords in noun phrase structures. Other aspects that were focused on include: adjectives, adverbs, prepositional phrases, quantifiers, intensifiers and qualifiers. Others are traditional grammar, structural grammar, constituent structure grammar, systemic grammar and immediate constituent (IC Analysis). After examining these theories, we discarded some irrelevant aspects and retained only the relevant ones from which we developed an eclectic theoretical framework model for our data gathering. Thus, an eclectic framework model of Halliday and Hasan's (1976:40) semantic theory and Quirk et al's (1985:62) syntactic theory of linguistic modification and Bloomfield's (1933) immediate constituent (IC) analysis have been adopted and modified for our data gathering and analysis.

Chapter three on the other hand presented the methodology adopted for data gathering. The primary sources in this study are Zaynab Alkali's The Stillborn and George Orwell's Animal Farm. The secondary sources were the Webster's Third International Dictionary and other English grammar texts which have been acknowledged. In this chapter also, an attempt was made to present the sampling and analytical procedures. The chapter finally presented a sample analysis of modification based on the application of the modified eclectic framework model. The two analyzed texts are samples pulled out from the set texts.

Chapter four contains the analysis of data which have been tabulated in the tables above. Columns have been created in the tables to show how modifiers could either premodify or postmodify the headwords in texts when they are slotted in their appropriate columns. The descriptions of each of the identified texts for analysis were carried out for more clarifications. The frequency of the occurrences of modifiers in Alkali's text were compared with those in Orwell's from which it was found out that Alkali had used more components of modification than Orwell.

Finally, chapter five examined the summary of the research in which the findings were stated. Other aspects which the chapter examined are the research findings, conclusion, recommendations, and implications for the study and suggestions for further research.

5.2 Research Findings

Based on the analyzed data in chapter four above, the following findings were arrived at, that:

(i) Both Alkali and Orwell have employed the same styles of both premodification and postmodification in their texts under analysis. However, Orwell has slightly used more premodifiers than Alkali.

(ii) Alkali has used more positive adjectives than Orwell while Orwell has used more adverbs in his text.

(iii) Orwell has used more quantifiers and qualifiers than Alkali while Alkali on the other hand has used more intensifiers than Orwell.

(iv) Alkali has used more prepositional phrases, possessive adjectives and nouns which function as adjectives, the comparative (-er) form of adjectives and the past participle (ed) form of adjectives than Orwell.

(v) The superlative (-est) form of adjectives and the Genitive (-s) were identically employed by both Alkali and Orwell in their texts under analysis.

(vi) Orwell has used idioms slightly more than Alkali used in her text.

(vii) Alkali has used more adjectival clauses than Orwell, while Orwell has used more adverbial clauses than Alkali in their texts under analysis.

(viii) The results of the findings above have shown that Alkali has used more modifiers than Orwell. The result further maintains that Alkali has used more intensifiers (which are emotive in nature) in her text than Orwell in his.

This therefore, tallies with the findings of Arndt, Harvey and Nuttall (2000:178) who state that "gender reveals the emotive power of language use". The above findings also go further to suggest that the gender of a writer has effect on modification of the text that he/she creates.

Similarly, Dittmar's (1976:237) observation conforms with Arndt, Harvey and Nuttall above that "the results of virtually all investigations show that women adapt to prevailing prestige forms of language more than men". These prestige forms of language are expressed using appropriate modifiers. No wonder then Alkali has used more modifiers in her text than Orwell in his.

Similarly, Olusegun and Adebayo (2008:27) reveal that it has been found that women tend to prefer the standard language that is of higher prestige to the local non-prestige varieties than men. These local non-prestige varieties may not necessarily require the use of qualifiers but are often spoken forcefully and bluntly.

The study also was interested in finding out whether Orwell who speaks English as his L_1 would make more use of modifiers than Alkali who uses it as her L_2. This study has confirmed that Alkali has used more modifiers in her text than Orwell in his. This therefore, implies that speakers who have acquired competence in the use of English would use more modifiers in their texts despite the fact that English is their L_2. This also explains why students who speak English as their L_2 could compete favourably well with students who speak English as their L_1 in English Language courses.

Alkali's feminist tendencies are centred on women liberation from the male-dominated society especially the problem of maltreatment, abandonment experienced in the marriage institution and discrimination against women. Others are negative attitudes demonstrated by men which hinders women's progress, empowerment and emancipation. The above negative attitudes make women struggle for their liberation and independence. This makes women to use more qualifiers and emotive language. These qualifiers and emotive language are modifiers of different types.

Orwell on the other hand satirizes communism, fascism and unemployment. His revolutionary struggle could not allow him to use more modifiers but blunt words. Olusegun and Adebayo (2008:27) distinguish between men and women speeches stating that:

> Men's speech (especially the native speakers) is forceful, blunt, authoritative, effective, sparing and masterful while women's speech is weak, hyperpolite, euphemistic, flowery, tentative and qualified. Men use more absolutes while women use qualifiers. Women also use more intensifiers.

The above findings are in line with both Alkali's and Orwell's ideologies stated in chapter one above.

5.3 Conclusion

This study has proceeded on the assumption that modifiers are indeed very crucial in both spoken and written texts. This of course is because of their important roles of identification, description, clarifications and modification in texts. The findings from our research have shown that quite great deals of modifiers were used by both authors in their texts under analysis. However, the results have shown that Alkali has employed more modifiers in her text than Orwell in his. This implies that women use more modifiers than men as observed by Arndt, Harvey and Nuttall above.

Similarly, UNESCO 1977 Report also confirms that women are "emotional, gentle and tactful while men are domineering, talkative and not emotional". From the above report it could be inferred that since women are "emotional", "gentle" and "tactful", they use more modifiers than men who are "domineering", "talkative" and "not emotional". This is because feelings or emotions can only be expressed using modifiers of different types.

A careful examination of the use of different types of modifiers by each author would go further to show how each author uses multiples of different types of

modifiers to modify the text that he/she creates. It will also point out the areas in which they are similar or different from each other.

The use of multiples of adjectives in a text was common to both authors as could be seen from the following texts:

> A young girl of about twenty stood there tall and graceful her skin ebony black (TSB. P.103).

The underlined words in the above text function as adjectives. They all modify the "girl" functioning as the subject in that sentence.

Similarly, Orwell on the other hand has also used multiples of adjectives as the following structure portrays:

> There were shoutings, bangings on the table, suspicious glances, furious denials. (AFM p.97).

The underlined words in the above extract also function as adjectives, premodifying the nouns that follow them.

Though both Alkali and Orwell have used positive adjectives extensively, Alkali has employed them more in her text than Orwell has done in his as could be deduced from the following figures. Alkali has used 63 or 19.5% while Orwell has used only 50 or 16.83%.

This study has also revealed that both Alkali and Orwell have used adverbs in their texts. The following text is one of the instances:

> After a little thought the Pigs sent for buckets and milked the Cows fairly successfully, their trotters being well adapted to this task (AFM P.17).

From the illustration above, the underlined words function as adverbs. They illustrate how Orwell uses multiples of adverbs to modify his text.

In the same vein, Alkali has also used quite a number of adverbs to modify her text as the following example depicts:

> So soon the woman smiled incredulously TSB p.78).

The underlined words from the above text function as adverbs. They also portray Alkali's application of adverbs to modify her text. Though both authors have used adverbs widely to modify their texts, Orwell has employed more adverbs in his text than what Alkali has done in hers. This is because Orwell has used 64 or 21.54% while Alkali has used only 46 or 14.24%.

This research has also confirmed a fair use of adjectival clauses by both authors. Alkali has used 12 or 4.51% while Orwell has used only 10 or 3.21%. From the above statistics, therefore, Alkali has used more adjectival clauses than Orwell.

Adverbial clauses were also prevalent in both texts. However, only 8 or 2.47% were visible in Alkali's text while 10 or 3.36% were seen in Orwell's work. This reveals that Orwell has employed more adverbial clauses in his work than Alkali in hers.

The findings have also pointed out the extensive use of prepositional phrases by both authors. The following extract exemplifies one of such instances:

> Almost immediately, the footprints of a pig were discovered in the grass at a little distance from the knoll. (AFM p.48).

From the above extract, the underlined structure is made up of prepositional phrases which Orwell uses to modify the above structure. The prepositional phrases say whose "footprints" were discovered, where they were discovered as well as their distance from where the "knoll".

In the same manner, the following text also illustrates Alkali's style of using prepositional phrases to modify her text:

> People whose relatives had gone to the prayer meeting and others who had their daughters married to men from that village were frantic with worry (TSB p.11).

Within this context, the underlined structures function as prepositional phrases. The first structure shows where the people's relatives had gone to. The second structure identifies where their in-laws came from and that they were worried. The extensive use of prepositional phrases provides this information to the reader. Prepositional phrases constitute 45 or 13.93% in The Stillborn while 36 or 12.12% were identified in Animal Farm. This also suggests that Alkali has used more prepositional phrases in her text than Orwell has done in his. Therefore, their difference is quite significant.

Quantifiers were other fairly used modifiers in both Alkali and Orwell's texts. 30 or 10.1% were identified in Orwell's text while only 23 or 7.12% were prevalent in Alkali's text. This therefore, indicates that Orwell has used more quantifiers in his text than Alkali in hers.

In the same manner, qualifiers were also fairly used by both authors. 47 or 15.82% were realized in Animal Farm while only 41 or 12.7% were found in The Stillborn. From the above figures we could depict that Orwell has used more qualifiers than Alkali. Below is an instance of how Orwell uses qualifiers to modify his character.

> The stupidest questions of all were asked by Mollie, the white Mare. (AFM p.11).

The structures that have been underlined in the extract function as qualifiers, because, "of all" qualifies the number of questions that were asked. The next structure

"by Mollie" identifies the questioner, while "the white Mare" also distinguishes Mollie from the other Mares on the farm.

Idiomatic phrases were not widely used in both texts. Only 2 or 0.61% were visible in The Stillborn while 3 or 1.1% were found in Animal Farm. This shows that Orwell has slightly used more idioms in his text than Alkali has done in hers.

The following structure illustrates how an idiomatic phrase is used to modify a text:

> Shrewd and dominating she had driven three other wives from the household and had ruled father and son with an iron hand. (TSB p.8).

Within this context, the underlined structure functions as an idiomatic phrase. It postmodifies the shrewd and dominating "woman" who functions as the subject of the sentence. It also tells us the extent of the type of harsh treatment she had treated both father and his son in the above extract.

In the same vein, Orwell also demonstrates the use of an idiomatic phrase in the following structure:

> He had seemed to oppose the windmill as a maneuver to get rid of Snowball who was a dangerous character and bad influence (AFM, p.40).

Implicit from the above extract is the structure that has been underlined i.e. "to get rid of Snowball". It is an idiomatic phrase used to qualify the subject "He" (Napoleon's opposition for building the windmill).

Similarly, the intensifiers have not been extensively used by both Alkali and Orwell in their texts. However, Alkali seems to have used more intensifiers than Orwell has done. Alkali has used 5 or 1.54% while Orwell has employed only 2 or 0.67%. This confirms that Alkali has used more intensifiers in her text than Orwell has done. The following text is an example of such usages:

> The friendship went too far and she found herself with a child (TSB p.91).

From the above instance, the underlined word "too" functions as an intensifier. It premodifies the adverb "far" in the above context. This is because, it hints us that the friendship has exceeded the ordinary type of friendship that often exists between male and female associates and that was the reason why she found herself with a child. The above text explains L1's emotive language use to describe the unapproved friendship that existed between her husband (Habu) and the strange woman from the South in the text.

Grandma also uses emotive language when she vents her anger on the men in her village. She uses negative forms of adjectives to lash at the men as could be seen in the following text:

> The village was filled with red monkeys, black monkeys, jungle pigs, wild cats, toothless dogs and lame cocks (TSB p.53)

From the above text, the adjectives "red", "black", "jungle", "wild", "toothless" and "lame" are examples of emotive language used to premodify the animals. The semantic connotations of these adjectives refer to the weaknesses which were inherent in the men she had married previously in her village. This is because the men could not perform or satisfy her womanhood desires.

5.4 Implications for the Study

The writer as well as the reader derives some appreciable benefits from the effective use of modifiers in texts. It also states that the pictures or descriptions of objects or characters are made accurate by the effective use of modifiers in texts. Modifiers breathe life into sentence structures. This also implies that texts that do not

have modifiers lack “salt” or “flavour” in them. In other words, they can neither catch nor sustain the interest of their readers.

In the same vein, successful speakers use modifiers for the purposes of description, identification, clarification and modification of their speech or discussion. It follows from the above illustrations that language teachers would also require quite a great deal of the knowledge of modifiers for them to be more effective in their teaching profession.

The language learner on the other hand, would also require the knowledge of modifiers in order to breathe life into the structure of his speech or written compositions. Modifiers are therefore very crucial for writers, readers, learners of languages as well as the general language users for effective communication in our society and the world at large.

Suggestions for Further Research

(i) Since this work concentrated mainly on the analysis of modification in written texts, further research can focus on spoken English, i.e. to analyze modification in oral speech or conversation.

(ii) Another area of interest is also to analyze modification in texts written by other male and female African writers to find out whether they do differ in their styles of approach.

(iii) Students’ essays can also be analyzed to find out how appropriately they use the various components of modification in the texts that they create.

(iv) A research can also be carried out to identify the effective use of either intensifiers or quantifiers in students’ written compositions.

The role of modifiers in texts is quite significant. Any meaningful research into various aspects of the components of modification will certainly be of vital importance to researchers, language teachers, learners, writers, readers and also to the field of linguistics.

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