A PRAGMATIC ANALYSIS

OF

ENGLISH AND ARABIC ADVERBIAL POSITIONS

AND

THEIR PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

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ABSTRACT
ALI KHUDHEYER ABBAS: A PRAGMATIC ANALYSIS OF ENGLISH AND ARABIC ADVERBIAL POSITIONS AND THEIR PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

This study is concerned, as its title suggests, with the syntactic order of adverbials in Standard English and Modern Standard Arabic. It is motivated by the fact that the area of adverbials is an extremely intractable area of English and Arabic grammars. Hence, it is a good candidate for an investigation. It is hypothesized that the particular problems which adverbials pose lie in the relative distributional freedom they enjoy in both languages. Semantic generalization will be related to the syntactic order of adverbials where necessary.

This study comprises nine chapters. Chapter one gives a brief survey of related work on adverbials. The scope of the study will delimit the relevant sections to be dealt with by drawing up lines for the major or minor points. The introduction presents a section of the rationale of the study and defines the data sources that constitute the corpus of the work. Chapter two is devoted to the factors influencing adverbial placement in English.

Chapter three presents different views held towards the adverbial category, focusing on the work of those who have dealt with this class extensively. It also presents the different classifications given by grammarians concerned with the problem of adverbials. The classification adopted in this study is presented here.

Chapter four is devoted to English adverbial positions with emphasis on the normal positions that each exponent of the three classes occupies. Other possible positions are investigated as well. Adverbials are classified on the grounds of function and position. Positions elicited from grammar books will be attested by citation from the material found in the newspapers which make up, in part, the corpus of the study. Still, it is questionable whether one can draw a clear-cut demarcation between the semantic/ syntactic orientation of adverbials since the crucial relationship remains indivisible between these two levels. Thus, this chapter manifests some semantic aspects, particularly those which are germane to the distributional properties of adverbials. In essence, chapter four can be considered an outgrowth of the foregoing chapters as it approaches the core of the problem. Chapter five involves a questionnaire comprising different types of structures which assist in the identification of English adverbial positions. This chapter can be considered as an attestation to what has been explored in the previous chapters. Thus far the study can be deemed as a practically-oriented one.

Chapter six is an attempt to set out accounts of adverbial positions in Arabic. The topic of 'Arabic adverbial positions' is a virgin subject and needs extensive research work. No real consensus among grammarians exists on such linguistic explorations. Therefore, no comprehensive and reliable studies are available in the published literature. So the main contribution of this study is the presentation of data which categorise Arabic adverbials as a separate word class. Approximately the same procedure of classification adopted in chapter four will be followed.

Chapter seven contains a questionnaire which can serve as a productive basis for testing Arabic adverbial positions investigated in the previous chapter. Chapter eight intends to give a contrastive study of the adverbial positions in the two languages under study on the basis of the data so far accumulated in this study.

The three sources of data can be compared to show whether there is any affinity and/or disparity among adverbial positions. With this variety of data, we are in a position to distinguish the positions which adverbials are liable to occupy.

Finally, the study ends with a pedagogy, which constitutes chapter nine, suggesting techniques for teaching such positions, after they have been refined and made easier to detect, to learners of both languages. It is hoped that the findings of the study will be utilised by language teachers and by textbook writers for materials preparation in this specific area of syntax.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

ARABIC TRANSLITERATION SYSTEM

ARABIC LETTER	TRANSCRIPTION	DESCRIPTION	EXAMPLE
1	?	glottal stop	[?ab] 'father'
2	b	voiced bilabial stop	[baab] 'door'
3	t	voiceless dental stop	[tamr] 'dates'
4	t̠	voiceless interdental fricative	[t̠awra] 'revolution'
5	j	voiced palato-alveolar affricative	[jundi] 'soldier'
6	h̠	voiceless pharyngeal fricative	[h̠abiib] 'lover'
7	x	voiceless uvular fricative	[xubuz] 'bread'
8	d	voiced dental stop	[daar] 'house'
9	d̠	voiced interdental	[d̠ahab] 'gold'
10	r	apical flap or trill	[ra?s] 'head'
11	z	voiced alveolar fricative	[zawraq] 'boat'
12	s	voiceless alveolar fricative	[suuq] 'market'
13	š	voiceless alveolar fricative	[sujaa^c] 'brave'
14	S	voiceless alveolar emphatic fricative	[Sabaah] 'morning'
15	D	voiced alveolar emphatic stop	[Daw?] 'light'
16	T	voiceless alveolar emphatic stop	[Taalib] 'student'
17	Z	voiced alveolar emphatic fricative	[Zuhr] 'noon'
18	^{c}	voiced pharyngeal fricative	[^{c}aali] 'high'
19	ġ	voiced uvular fricative	[gaali] 'expensive'
20	f	voiceless labio-dental fricative	[fiil] 'elephant'
21	q	voiceless uvular stop	[qaa?id] 'leader'
22	k	voiceless velar stop	[kat̠iir] 'much'
23	l	lateral apical	[laa^{c}ib] 'player'
24	m	bilabial nasal	[maa?] 'water'
25	n	dental nasal	[naar] 'fire'

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26	h	voiced glottal fricative	[haada] 'this'
27	w	labio-velar semi-vowel	[walad] 'boy'
28	y	palatal semi-vowel	[yad] 'hand'

ARABIC VOWELS

	VOWEL	DESCRIPTION	EXAMPLE
1	i	short high front unrounded vowel	[bint] 'daughter'
2	ii	long high front unrounded vowel	[diin] 'religion'
3	a	short low central unrounded vowel	[man] 'who'
4	aa	long low central unrounded vowel	[qitaal] 'fight'
5	u	short high back rounded vowel	[?uxt] 'sister'
6	uu	long high back rounded vowel	[huut] 'whale'

ARABIC DIPHTHONGS

| 1 | aw | | [nawm] 'sleep' |
| 2 | ay | | [layl] 'night' |

N.B. Geminate consonants will be represented by doubling the character, for example, [kassara] 'smashed'.

The following abbreviations have been used throughout the work.

Adj.	adjective
Adv.	adverbial
AMAs	auxiliary-modifying adverbials
CA	contrastive analysis
Dir	direction adverbial
DM	Daily Mail
DMr	Daily Mirror
F	final position (at the very end of the sentence)
G	Guardian
EA	error analysis
L1	first (native) language
L2	second (target) language
lo	locative
M	a neutral mid position
M1	a position of SUBMAs after the head
M2	a position of AMAs after the (first) auxiliary
M3	a position of VMAs (magnifier) before the verb where no auxiliary is present
man	manner
MSA	modern standard Arabic
MV	main verb
NP	noun phrase
OBJMAs	object-modifying adverbials
pp	prepositional phrase
prep	preposition
prt	particle
PS	phrase structure rules
purp	purpose
S	sentence
SMAs	sentence-modifying adverbials
SUBMAs	subject-modifying adverbials
TC	transportability convention
V	verb
VMAs	verb-modifying adverbials
VP	verb phrase
VPMAs	verb phrase-modifying adverbials
' '	free translation
(( ))	literal translation
[ ]	Arabic text

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 SCOPE OF THE STUDY

This study is concerned with the syntactic order of adverbials and their distribution in English and Arabic sentences, that is, with all possible positions that are open for different types of adverbial. Function and position are the determining criteria upon which adverbials are classified.

The aim of this study is not to present a full account of individual adverbials, i.e. not to present a frequency count of them, but to discuss at length the positions that adverbials readily occupy. It should be made clear that words like 'however', 'moreover', which are traditionally termed adverbials, remain outside the scope of this investigation. Such words are excluded since they are used in much the same way as 'conjunctions' rather than adverbials. They indicate a relationship between the sentence or clause they introduce and the preceding one.[1] There are also a number of adverbials which this study makes no attempt to handle. These adverbials mainly function as noun-modifiers (The party yesterday) or adjective-modifiers (sufficiently reliable). The reason for their exclusion is that their position is readily discernible and consequently no problem is predicted. The formation of adverbials is no concern of this study; however both single word and phrasal adverbials will be taken into account. Adverbial clauses are dealt with in passing since they generally constitute a minor problem for learners of the two languages under study.

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[1]They are treated differently in Sweet (1891:134-144) as 'half-conjunctions'; in Curme (1935:74-5) as 'conjunctive adverbs'; in Fries (1952:248-257) as sequence signals or introductory words; in Strang (1968:195-96) as adverbs having similar function to subordinators: disjunctive and in Quirk et al (1985:501-503 ; 631-647) as adverbials with grammatical function of conjuncts.

1.2 WHY ADVERBIAL

This grammatical structure offers somewhat more of a challenge to the initiative of a researcher. Almost all grammarians who concerned themselves with the problem of adverbial continually encountered difficulties with its heterogeneity. Their attempts to arrive at a refinement of this class have been resisted by its multifarious function, its semantic diversity, its unsettled nomenclature, its multiple occurrence in the same clause, its mercurial position. Syntactically, it can be applied to many sentence constituents. Semantically, it represents various meanings. Formally, it can be realized by different types of constructions. Positionally, it is rather free-floating.

More seriously, the problem in the description of this class is its placement. Native speakers of many languages avail themselves of the mobility this class offers and locate its members almost everywhere in the sentence. What matters, then, is to detect the most natural positions as well as other possible ones. Therefore, this study sets out a classification according to which adverbial positions will be refined and made easier to detect with the aim that this facilitates their teaching. Another fact which motivates this study is that linguists have rigorously investigated English adverbials but relatively little has been done for Arabic adverbials. It is clearly within the preview of this study to investigate theoretically and empirically the syntax and semantics, where necessary, of English and Arabic adverbials.

1.3 THE CHOICE BETWEEN ADVERB AND ADVERBIAL

It should be made clear from the very start that the term 'adverbial' will be used throughout this study to refer to all words that have the qualities of adverbials.

Adverbials range in form from words clearly marked as true adverbs (<u>tomorrow</u>, <u>here</u>; [?amsi] 'yesterday', [huna] 'here') to those that have other parts of speech. For

instance, such words as <u>Sunday</u>, <u>dirty</u> ; [^caadatan] 'usually', [qariiban] 'shortly' which are basically nominals and adjectivals respectively may also appear as adverbials; that is, they occupy an adverbial position and perform the adverbial function. Such forms which have the adverbial character are classified as 'adverbials' rather than 'adverbs'. In other words, 'adverbial' is used as a syntactic or a positional term. Hence, many phrases and clauses as well as single words have been subsumed under the designation of 'adverbial'. Since reference has been made to the morphology of adverbials, it is plausible, though it is not of the main concern of this study, to see how adverbials in general are formed. The majority of English adverbials can be formed by adding the derivational suffix <u>-ly</u> to the base adjective. This is not the only derivational suffix that forms adverbials; there are other derivational suffixes such as <u>-wise</u>, <u>-ward(s)</u>, and <u>-like</u> whereby new adverbials may be formed from nouns (<u>clockwise</u>, <u>homeward(s)</u>); or from prepositional adverbials (<u>onward(s)</u>). There is also the derivational prefix <u>a-</u> which forms adverbials from nouns (<u>apart</u>), verbs (<u>across</u>), and adjectives (<u>along</u>). In addition, many other words with no such affixes , labelled above as true adverbials, are included within the adverbial class.

1.4 SOURCE OF DATA

The main body of the material used in this study is derived from five newspapers, three of which are British and the other two Arabic. The absence of a third Arabic newspaper is compensated for citations from the Qur'an. The inclusion of the Qur'an, which represents the charm of Arabic, rests on two perspectives. First, people often quote it in their everyday speech though it was revealed 1380 years ago. It is highly admired for its style, which is considered the apex of beauty and eloquence. Second, since it is deemed the ultimate perfection of the language, it acts as the arbitrator to which

grammarians resort when a dispute over the language needs to be settled.

The citations from British newspapers range over a period of one week commencing from 1st to 8th March 1988. The citations from Arabic newspapers were produced over the period 2nd - 8th October 1989. The newspapers, all of them daily newspapers, from which most examples have been drawn are listed below, together with the abbreviations that denote them throughout this study:

English newspapers

G   The Guardian

DM   The Daily Mail

DMr   The Daily Mirror

Arabic newspapers

QU   Al-Quds Al-Arabi

Ar   Al-Arab

Citations from these newspapers are referred to by the symbol for the title first, followed by the date of publication. A semi-colon follows and then two characters separated by a slash, that indicate the page of the newspaper and the column on that page. For instance, DMr 2/3/88; 1/10 represents the Daily Mirror of second March 1988, page 1, column 10. As for citations from the Qur'an (Q: Luqmaan; 18) the letter Q denotes the Book, the word the name of 'sura' and the figure the number of the verse which exists in that 'sura'. The purpose of the examples from the above sources is intended to be illustrative and to substantiate the functional classification offered by this study. Therefore, no intention to make positional frequencies of individual adverbials is sought.

Other supplementary sources of data are two experiments conducted with native speakers of both languages under investigation. In addition, examples from grammar books and a

few miscellaneous ones recorded, heard or read during the time of this study, have also been included. Finally, a number of Arabic examples have been supplied from the researcher's introspection.

1.5 THE LANGUAGE USED

The English used throughout this study is standard formal written present-day English. Any forms that belong exclusively to other social or geographical levels have been excluded from consideration.

The Arabic used is the written variety of Arabic which is usually used in print, newspapers, magazines, books, newscasts, and is taught in schools to native and non-native speakers of Arabic. It is the variety used by educated people on formal occasions and in religious ceremonies. Any regional variety of Arabic has been ruled out.

Using a written form of language can be justified by a general perspective that written language constitutes a more permanent contribution to the quality of linguistics than spoken language. In support of this justification a simple distinction between spoken and written languages is desirable. Written language is generally considered as structurally elaborated, complex, formal, and abstract while spoken language is concrete, context-dependent and structurally simple.[2] For the purposes of this study a special emphasis is laid on grammatical intuitions as the primary data to be analysed. Such data are twofold, the first being examples from the newspapers (see the previous section), which are easily available and more accessible to obtain. The second is native speakers' judgements which can be obtained from the two questionnaires (chapters five and seven). It is far easier to administer a written questionnaire than to conduct a long survey based on oral forms of language. Therefore, the data

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[2]For more details about the differences between written and spoken forms of language see Douglas Biber (1988).

for analysis within the paradigm of this study deliberately include written rather than verbal elicitation.

1.6 VALUE OF STUDY

Language learners differ, in many cases, in their judgements of the acceptability of adverbial positions owing to the complex interplay of factors that influence the choice of these positions. 'Adverbial position' remains a disorderly area of grammar which in turn confuses learners of both languages. Therefore, this study sets the task for itself to investigate such a linguistic area. Of the methods of investigation employed, the first will be elicitation with many examples from the newspapers or grammar books providing evidence as to the acceptability of adverbial positions. The second will be an acceptability technique which utilises the native speakers' reactions towards sentences with different adverbial positions which are intended to be distributed in the two questionnaires. By doing so, adverbial positions, as has been mentioned, will be pragmatically investigated. Use of pragmatics can be made of via two routes. First, it takes into account the factors that govern the choice of the adverbial position in manifold interactions of many areas: semantics, phonology, syntax, psycholinguistics, stylistics, and sociolinguistics. That is, pragmatics overlaps and shades into such areas. Notions such as the intentions of the speaker, the effect of an utterance on the listener can be seen as overlap happens between pragmatics and semantics. Pragmatics and psycholinguistics deal with the psychological factors that have a major effect on the participants' performance. Stylistics and sociolinguistics imbricate with pragmatics in their investigation of the social relationships which exist between participants and of the way activity and subject matter can constrain the choice. Second, it approaches the experimental part of the study which has been mentioned above. No claim can be made that the outcome of the present research

will be incomparable but what might distinguish it from previous research work is the contrastive analysis originated and the various degrees of acceptability observed as a result of the questionnaire design.

It is hoped that the findings of this study may be utilised by teachers and text-book writers as well when dealing with adverbial positions in English and Arabic. The instructional syllabus can be organised, graded and sequenced for teaching such positions in a way that meets learners' social and professional needs.

1.7 RELATED LITERATURE

This category has been handled in multifarious studies each of which attempts to delve for its qualities and to define the manifold parts that various types play in actually occurring sentences. Some of these studies, particularly transformational generative grammars, describe the adverbial class as a catch-all term and even deprive it of the right of being a part of speech. Other studies, e.g. Cruttenden 1981, claim that the adverbial class remains the Cinderella of all grammatical classes and that much work still needs to be done. Most of these studies tackle the problem of this class from the standpoint of semantics or logic but few set themselves the task of accounting for its placement. The present section will focus on previous references to adverbial word order.[3] It starts with works which devote most of their space to the domain of adverbiality. Most grammar books contain a chapter or extensive sections on adverbials. Adverbial positions had not formerly been made the subject of an exhaustive investigation until Jacobson's first book (1964) where they are multitudinously exemplified. Jacobson's works are unquestionably impressive and offer the most valuable insights

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[3]In chapter three the focus will be on those works which devote a chapter or less to the general treatment of the adverbial.

ever contributed to English adverbial studies (Jacobson 1964, 1969, 1970, 1971, 1975, 1976, 1977, 1978a, 1978b, 1979, 1980, 1981).

Sidney Greenbaum can also be considered one of the pioneers. He presents many interesting and valuable scholarly contributions to adverbial usage. His first investigation (1969) pivots on the functions of the adjunct that are realized by adverbials. One of his foci of analysis is the correlation between the functions of adverbials and their varying positions. He also has set a number of criteria by which certain adverbial categories are distinguished from others. Some of these criteria employ position to define the acceptability of sentences of which adverbial is a part. Greenbaum's further works (1970, 1973, 1976a, 1976b, 1977a, 1977b, Greenbaum and Quirk 1970) mainly test native speakers' reaction to word placement.

Nilsen in his book "English Adverbials" concentrates on transformations like reductions, deletions, and expansions. The author introduces keen observations concerning different classes or subclasses of adverbial. Nilsen quite often manipulates transformational rules (T-rules) which are exclusively based on derivational relations of words of the same root: adverbial derivatives from nouns, verbs, and adjectives. For example, the sentence The moon shines brightly may be embedded in such sentences as The moon shines; This is bright to give That the moon shines is bright and thence This is bright that the moon shines and The moon shines brightly. Adverbials of different semantic groups are discussed almost in the same way as the manner adverbials of chapter 11. Nilsen has not merely investigated adverbials; he has also dealt with verb-adverbial constructions which include adverbs and prepositions attached to verbs.

Shuan-Fan Huang (1975) addresses the problem of semantic and syntactic analysis of adverbials. He defines an adverbial

semantically as "a sentence constituent which expresses a function of a function" (P9). To satisfy this definition one type of adverbial (attitudinal: <u>surprisingly</u>, John went to the party) is examined. That is, a formula like *Adv (S, to me)* where *S* represents a fact and *to me* expresses the role of the speaker with respect to the fact is meant to show that this type of adverbial captures the idea of the definition given (p49). Other types of adverbial have not been tried; a fact which casts doubt over the validity of this definition. The book which comprises four chapters with a conclusion has one chapter (four) taking up the problem of constraints on adverbial movement both inside a clause and outside a clause. A number of criteria, semantic as well as morphological, have been used for identification of adverbial positions, which have been specified as five in number (pp 70-72). What is worth noting here is that adverbials have not been treated consistently though they have been grouped under certain categories. Instead they have generally been individualised and allocated positions accordingly. For instance, Adverbials of degree have been broken down into items and accommodated in one or two positions with no reference to other places (position B between subject and verb) where they can be found (ibid). In brief the author has chosen examples to suit his argument eluding some other possibilities. One would expect that the chapter (four), as its title indicates, would show up kinds of constraints whether of semantics, syntax, realisation, or cooccurrence which work on adverbial movement, but only a few of these have been touched upon. Towards the end of the chapter the author concludes that adverbial movement appears to be subject to at least two different joint sorts of constraints: (1) major syntactic breaks in the derived structure and (2) *command* and *precede* relationships between the logical element *not* and adverbs.

R.D. Hawkins (1978) is principally concerned with the

semantic effect that adverbials produce on other constituents
of a sentence: i.e. the relation that adverbials bear to the
sentence structure as a whole or as isolated parts. Hawkins
came across instances that display association between
adverbial position and the sentence reading such a position
renders. Restrictions that emanate from a given position are
considered. In this respect, Hawkins points out that not all
adverbials appear with equal acceptability in all possible
positions in a sentence. Indeed different factors come into
force to contribute to the positional acceptability. Sentence
structure, as an example, brings about positional freedom or
positional restriction where certain positions are viewed as
marginal. For instance, the adverbial quickly in the following
versions of (1) can be moved about but it appears marginal in
initial positions if the verb of the sentence is changed into
the progressive, the perfect, or the future as in (2)

(1a) Quickly Sam tore the flag down.

(1b) Sam quickly tore the flag down.

(1c) Sam tore the flag down quickly.

(2a) ? Quickly Sam is/was tearing the flag down.

(2b) ? Quickly Sam has torn the flag down.

(2c) ? Quickly Sam will tear the flag down.

A. P. Christidis (1977) has written a thesis entitled
"Adverbials: a study in the theory and practice of
transformational generative grammar" in which the
investigation is not centrally focused on adverbials. Much of
his work is more concerned with other units than adverbials,
sometimes with a subclass of adverbials, sometimes with
isolated units, and sometimes with units like object and
particle. One of his broad arguments is the application of the
rule 'adverbial shift' to 'particles'. In the sentence The
secretary sent out a schedule to the stockholders, the
particle out is moved about, in which case acceptable
positions could be distinguished from unacceptable ones.

Jackendoff (1972) devotes a chapter to the questions of the syntactic representation and semantic interpretation of adverbials. He uses positional criteria by which adverbials are divided into three classes: speaker-oriented; subject-oriented; and manner adverbials.

Fraser (1965) tries to account for the distribution of certain types of adverbial. He ascribes the distribution of these types to their role in the strict subcategorisation of the verb. Thus, he adduces that manner and directional adverbials are dominated by MV whereas locatives, temporals and purpose adverbials are dominated by ADVβ. Both nodes (MV and ADV) are, as he thinks, immediately descended from the VP node. Below is the representative abstract tree
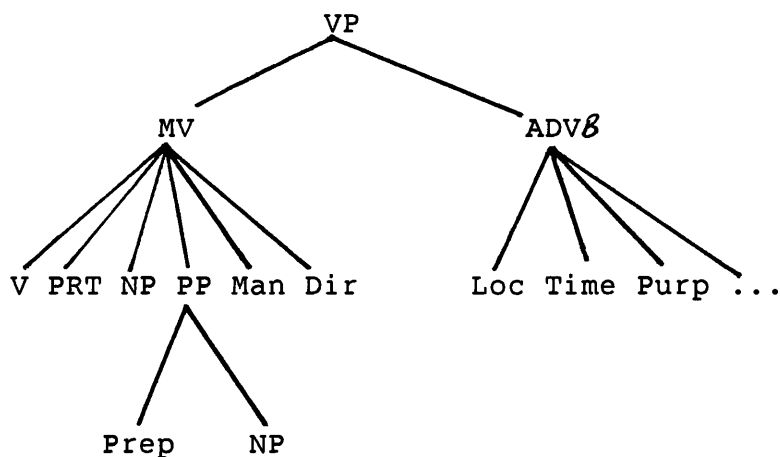
Fraser has made a shrewd observation on the distribution of these adverbial constructions: Those dominated by MV cannot precede the sentence while those dominated by ADVβ can. Adverbial constructions which are dominated by MV must precede ADV, while those dominated by ADVβ must follow MV. Fraser has concluded that adverbial constructions dominated by MV have less freedom of movement than do those dominated by ADVβ.

Keyser (1968) suggests a convention called 'Transportability Convention' (TC) whereby adverbials are marked [+ transportable]. By this convention adverbials can be

moved anywhere in the sentence as long as they preserve sister relationships. That is, an adverbial dominated by S could move to any other position dominated by the same node. By TC, Keyser continues, one would expect adverbials dominated by S to occur in the three positions (presumably 'final position' is the position with a pause). Adverbials which are dominated by VP would occur in sentence-medial or final positions; this time sentence final with no pause. [4]

In his doctoral thesis with the title "Towards an Integrated Theory of Adverb Position in English" Thomas Boyden Ernest (1983), contrary to one's expectations, concentrates much on the semantic and logical properties that adverbials manifest rather than on their positional behaviour.

Quirk et al (1985) " A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language" pay more attention to the classification of adverbials than to their distributional behaviour. The book sets up certain criteria to distinguish those adverbials which are comparatively integrated from those peripheral to the structure of the clause. Consequently, they are classified into 'adjuncts', 'disjuncts', 'subjuncts' and 'conjuncts' and then further subclassified into many different groups. The authors also demonstrate the possible positions for many types of adverbial besides certain restrictions that certain items hold when collocating with other constituents of the sentence.[5]

There have been many articles whose first concern is the adverbial. Peter A. Schreiber's (1971) central investigation is into the suitability of style disjuncts which derive from manner adverbials of a deleted higher performative clause 'permanner' in performative English sentences. Throughout his paper, he has drawn a distinction between two kinds of

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[4]See Keyser (1968:359-75)

[5]For more details see pp. 435, 448, 449, 463, 465, 467, 468, 469, 499, 505.

imperatives, viz. true imperatives (commands), and pseudo-imperatives (hortative imperatives) and then investigates whether such a distinction helps explain the variability and oscillation of judgements of imperative sentences with style adjuncts.[6] His argumentation is principally contingent on the hypothesis that the two structures (I command you S) and (I suggest (to) you S) determine the occurrence of 'permanner' style disjuncts in the two types of imperative just mentioned. Such style disjuncts are precluded from command imperatives which derive from the structure (I command you S), whereas they are acceptable in hortative imperatives which derive from the structure (I suggest (to) you). Here are his illustrative examples repeated in (3) and (4):

(3) *I command you <u>frankly</u> / <u>truthfully</u> to come down this instant.

(4) I suggest (to you) <u>frankly</u> / <u>truthfully</u> that you should be glad that we are leaving.

Susumu Kuno in his article "Positions of Locatives in Existential Sentences" (1971) traces the relationship between locative and temporal adverbials when occurring consecutively.

Lakoff (1968, 1970, 1973) indicates, though his focus is on the analysis of adverbials with their logical forms, that adverb-preposing does not admit the same flexibility in all sentences. In certain constructions adverb-preposing is workable with no effect left on the sentence meaning; in others it is not. Violation of the constraint on adverb-preposing results in ungrammatical sentences. His aim from this contention is that a sentence is fully ungrammatical if it is ungrammatical relative to all readings, not only to a given reading. So the role of rules of grammar is not simply

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[6]Schreiber (1971:340) defines hortative imperatives as the imperatives in which only nonstative verbs and adjectives can function as main surface predicates.

to separate out the grammatical from the ungrammatical sentences of English, but also to pair surface forms of sentences with their corresponding meanings or logical forms.

CHAPTER TWO

2 INFLUENTIAL FACTORS ON ADVERBIAL PLACEMENT IN ENGLISH

2.0 INTRODUCTION

Adverbials take up different positions, the choice of which is dependent on a number of factors. These factors, which rest on semantic or syntactic grounds or on both, may work independently or jointly in influencing adverbial placement. Some of these factors are so perceptible that one can easily discern their role(s); others, on the other hand, are intricate, requiring close scrutiny to detect their effect. The factors at work pertain to the source, medium, (spoken or written), text category (fiction, nonfiction, ...etc.), stylistic provenance (sports, type of linguistic activity, (e.g. conversation)), individual adverbial exponents, semantic interpretation of adverbials, syntactic structure (the type of clause, type of subject, type of verb phrase, form of 'not'), the impact of intonational features including emphasis, the idiosyncratic predilection of the writer (speaker), and realization (morphological make-up). For these types of contributory factors, two notions are assigned: centrifugal and centripetal. These two terms are used to show the magnitude of a factor on the choice of adverbial position. 'Centripetal' is related to factors which exhibit greater influence and 'centrifugal' is related to those factors which show less degree of influence. Therefore, 'centrifugal' involves factors of source, medium, text category, idiosyncrasies and stylistic province on the one hand; 'centripetal' embraces the remainder on the other. First, centripetal factors will be considered as they show greater influence in terms of the close relationship that an adverbial holds with other constituents of the clause.

To begin with, it is useful to examine the means by which each basic element of the declarative clause can affect

adverbial positioning and in order of SVO:

2.1 THE SUBJECT

The subject displays different tendencies to influence adverbial placement. The form of the subject in relation to adverbials plays a remarkable part in sentence balance:[7] that is, the subject in the form of a personal pronoun is unable to balance a heavy adverbial phrase or clause in medial position, thus such a position, which is rarely occupied by adverbial phrases or clauses, is not felicitous for such phrases[8], e.g.

    (1) *He, <u>finishing</u> <u>his</u> <u>work</u> <u>early</u>, decided to go to a
        play.

    (2) *She <u>in</u> <u>the</u> <u>Commons</u> <u>yesterday</u> rejected Labour
        charges that the programme contained no new money
        or proposal, no community involvement and no help.

As an alternative, initial position is used:

    (1a) <u>Finishing</u> <u>his</u> <u>work</u> <u>early</u>, he decided to go to a
        play.

    (2a) <u>In</u> <u>the</u> <u>Commons</u> <u>yesterday</u> she rejected Labour
        charges that the programme contained no new money
        or proposal, no community involvement and no help.
               DM 8/3/1988;2/6

However, such phrases appear comfortably in medial position when the subject, other than a personal pronoun, is strong enough to balance them

    (3) The obstruction to sanctions <u>within</u> <u>the</u>
        <u>Commonwealth</u> was praised by South Africa.
            G 1/3/1988; 6/7

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[7]Sentence balance refers to the logical relationship between the parts of a sentence. In using this relationship speakers tend to render a sentence stylistically well balanced in accordance with the norms of English structure. Quirk et al (1985:1398) state that forming a sentence with a long subject and a short predicate is usually avoided, e.g.
  The story is told of her phenomenal success in Australia.
?The story of her phenomenal success in Australia is told. Conversely, a short subject and a long predicate including a long object is quite usual and is termed 'end-weight'.

[8]See Jacobson (1964:123).

Sometimes, it is difficult for adverbials, especially when surrounded by terminal junctures, to appear immediately after a weak personal pronoun; other positions have to be used:

(4) You require, <u>absolutely</u>, a modern equipped lab.[9]

Conversely, a personal pronoun as subject can balance an adverbial phrase in cases where such an adverbial phrase is not too heavy or the personal pronoun itself is revitalized, by means of emphasis, though this is less common. Accordingly adverbial phrases may be placed in medial position:

(5) He, <u>more</u> <u>than</u> <u>once</u>, iterated the old story.

Both auxiliaries such as 'shall', 'should', 'can', 'could', 'will', 'would' and adverbials like <u>never</u>, <u>probably</u> occur more frequently with the subject NP when it is a personal pronoun than when it is an ordinary NP. The heavier stress on these auxiliaries can prop up the lighter stress on the personal pronoun and thus strengthen it relative to the adverbial:

(6) He <u>probably</u> would have arrived earlier.

(7) But you <u>certainly</u> can't go around assaulting women.
                    DM 5/3/1988; 6/2

(8) But if you cannot get in, Liverpool's midfielder
    Steve McMahon says you can <u>probably</u> see it from
    outside.   G 5/3/1988; 14/2

2.2 VERB PHRASE

Among these influential factors, that of verb phrase structure seems to be conspicuous. Though adverbial position is often variable within the verb phrase structure, it is not the case that adverbials always readily occupy any position there. This is clear from the restrictions imposed on the choice of position which is, to a certain extent, defined by the complexity of the verb phrase as well as by the

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[9]ibid.

intonational features its members may carry; the more complex the verb phrase, the more problematic the choice would be. To illustrate, a verb phrase may contain one or more auxiliaries and the choice in reference to auxiliary placement, before or within or after the auxiliaries concerned, can be a clue to the most plausible interpretation of the function of an adverbial. For instance, adverbials like <u>afterwards</u>, <u>deliberately</u>, <u>readily</u>, and <u>safely</u> manifest different types of temporal relationship according to their position in relation to the auxiliary, i.e. either adjacent to it or within the verb phrase:

(9) You can <u>afterwards</u> tell more people about it.

(10) She might <u>deliberately</u> arrive before us.

(11) These operations can <u>readily</u> be prolonged.

(12) He had been <u>safely</u> roaming in the streets.

The number of auxiliaries that the verb phrase contains is a decisive factor in determining an adverbial position. Normally, an adverbial occurs after the first auxiliary, if unstressed, or after the last one, i.e. before the main verb.

(13) I will <u>probably</u> run him in a handicap at either Towcester or Newbury a week after the festival meeting.   G 8/3/1988; 17/2

(14) "I don't stand a chance of continuing with those because I'd be <u>instantly</u> recognised".

DMr 2/3/1988; 22/4

(15) Two other companies at the conference on board the Royal yacht, to which the Duke of York was <u>briefly</u> called to promote British business, said that they had <u>recently</u> agreed to set up new sites in the south-west.   G 1/3/1988; 6/2

(16) Names like Graeme Souness, of Rangers, and Don Howe, of Wimbledon, will <u>inevitably</u> be linked with the job.   DMr 7/3/1988; 26/2

Nonetheless, a set of interesting complications may emerge in

relation to the type and position of an adverbial. In this respect, two types of adverbial need to be considered: sentence-modifying adverbials and verb-modifying adverbials (these two so-termed adverbials will be exemplified further in section 3.3). Most sentence-modifying adverbials appear more comfortably in a position before aspectual, and modal auxiliaries or even before emphatic 'do' than verb modifying adverbials do:

(17a) He <u>probably</u> has moved the car.

(17b) He <u>probably</u> is finishing his work.

(17c) He <u>probably</u> did deliver my message.

(18a) *He <u>completely</u> has moved the car.

(18b) *He <u>completely</u> is finishing his work.

(18c) *He <u>completely</u> did deliver my message.

Either of these type of adverbials is possible after the first auxiliary:

(19) He has <u>probably</u> / <u>completely</u> moved the car.

(20) He is <u>probably</u> / <u>completely</u> finishing his work.

(21) He did <u>probably</u> / <u>completely</u> deliver my message.

Still, the incidence of these two classes varies in sentences containing more than one auxiliary: That is, a sentence-modifying adverbial has higher frequency in a position between two auxiliaries, if present, than that of verb, whereas only a verb-modifying adverbial is preferred after two auxiliaries. This can be exemplified as follows:

(22) He will <u>probably</u> have torn the picture.

(23) *He will <u>completely</u> have torn the picture.

(24) She is <u>probably</u> being duped by her group.

(25) *She is <u>completely</u> being duped by her group.

(26) They have <u>probably</u> been repairing the car.

(27) *They have <u>completely</u> been repairing the car.

(28) *John will have <u>probably</u> read the magazine.

(29) John will have <u>completely</u> read the magazine.

(30) *They have been <u>probably</u> repairing the car.

(31) They have been <u>completely</u> repairing the car.

In view of these examples with <u>completely</u>, it can be said that a sentence reading is acceptable so long as an adverbial like <u>completely</u> is within the vicinity of the verb. This indicates that many exponents of verb-modifying adverbials are largely restricted in their occurrence to certain positions, e.g. degree adverbials like <u>really</u>, <u>entirely</u> immediately before the lexical verb or finally.

Another piece of evidence reinforcing the effect of this factor is the inclusion of aspect, which brings about a drastic change in sentence interpretation. For instance, sentence

(32) The hairstylist <u>carefully</u> cut my hair

is allegedly ambiguous, referring either to the hairstylist's manner in connection with the cutting or to his taking care to cut the hair, i.e. his carefulness caused the tidiness of the hair. Its ambiguity can be levelled out as a result of aspect interpolation which acts as a disambiguating factor. Such interpolation of the auxiliary (aspect) in sentences like (33) helps disambiguate the sentence and then preclude the manner interpretation when <u>carefully</u> is preposed to the pre-auxiliary position

(33) The hairstylist <u>carefully</u> had cut my hair.

The type of verb seems to accentuate the influence of the verb phrase factor: that is, the choice of adverbial position is subject, in many cases, to the type of verb. This reveals that not all adverbials co-occur freely with any type of verb. For instance, <u>slightly</u> is positioned and interpreted differently when collocating with two distinctive types of verb. When it co-occurs with a verb that indicates a degree of quality as in

(34) She wavered <u>slightly</u>

final position is the norm. Medial position is the norm when <u>slightly</u> turns up with a verb that indicates a degree of

intensity as in (35)

(35) Her behaviour slightly irritated him.

In accordance with the influence of the verb, it is commonly remarked that many adverbials, especially manner adverbials, are rejected because of the absence of collocational congruency between them and the verb of the sentence. The deviant sentences (36) and (37) would sound more natural if their verbs were replaced by other verbs which allow semantic congruency with the adverbial used, as in (38) and (39):[10]

(36) *We knew the answer carefully.

(37) *She makes up loudly.

(38) We wrote the answer carefully.

(39) She dressed loudly.

Since the discussion revolves around adverbials manifesting the manner of the action, it is pertinent to note how Dik (1975) classifies such types of adverbial. Dik (1975:97) argues that the traditional characterizations of manner adverbials utilizing paraphrases like "in an x manner/ way/ fashion" or the possibility of question with "How?" do not work for all adverbials intuitively categorised as manner adverbials. He points to the problem

> "It is decidedly strange to answer a question with "how" by means of an adverbial like "reluctantly", although the phrase "in a reluctant manner" seems possible."

He gives examples similar to (40) with the possible paraphrase

(40) John goes to school reluctantly

?John goes to school in a reluctant manner

Reluctantly in (40) is an awkward answer to a question introduced by How?

(41) How does John go to school?

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[10] See Matthews (1984:137)

??John goes to school <u>reluctantly</u>

It seems that the type of verb itself, a factor which Dik overlooks, can furnish such a paraphrase. That is, <u>reluctantly</u> can be paraphrased in the manner mentioned above when it co-occurs with verbs like 'walk'. It can also serve as an answer to the same form of question:

(42) My child walked to school <u>reluctantly</u>.

My child walked to school in a reluctant manner.

(43) How did your child walk to school ?

My child walked to school <u>reluctantly</u>.

The difference between the example cited by Dik and our example can possibly be clarified by the paraphrase that my child in (42, 43) wanted to go to school but what he was reluctant about was the way of going, which he insisted on changing, for instance by going on his bike.

2.2.1 COHESION

Another supplementary factor is whether or not adverbials form more or less cohesive units with the verb whose meaning is the determinant factor. Certain types of adverbial are fundamentally required to complement the verb meaning, the omission of which will leave the sentence ungrammatical. These are usually placed in final position, e.g.

(44) I put the book <u>on</u> <u>the</u> <u>table</u>.

(45) The parade lasted <u>for</u> <u>two</u> <u>hours</u>.

(46) They lived <u>happily</u>.

Yet, there are cases where adverbials are normally not essential as complements. However, they are felt to be very important elements whose omission affects the sentence meaning. Such adverbials naturally occur at final and initial, but less commonly at medial position, e.g.

(47) This was <u>allegedly</u> done in an attempt to blacken
the reputation of his superior, Professor Meriel,
in revenge for being transferred to another
hospital.   G 5/3/1988; 6/7

(48) "It puts the solution <u>squarely</u> on the backs of the
taxpayers in the creditor countries", Baker told
the Senate Budget committee.   G 5/3/1988; 11/6

(49) He says: "I can't believe it's the woman who swore
she and Richard would grow old <u>gracefully</u> without
the aid of the surgeon's knife. DMr 1/3/1988; 14/2

Other cases in which adverbials are used as optional
components whose omission results in no change in the sentence
reading also deserve attention. The normal position for such
adverbials is medial. Initial and final positions are also
possible, e.g.

(50) They moved <u>simultaneously</u> to isolate him after
his abysmal offensive.

(51) <u>Progressively</u>, we expect to be able to deal with
most customer requirements from a single enquiry
point.

2.3 THE DIRECT OBJECT

The direct object influences adverbial placement in one
way or another. Adverbials, generally speaking, can occur in
most usual positions in sentences with a direct object. Yet,
certain observations are worth mentioning:

a- the direct object, usually of two words, collaborates with
other clause constituents to balance adverbial phrases and
clauses in medial position, e.g.

(52) Ford chiefs <u>in Detroit</u> signed a single-union 'no
strike' deal with the engineers in October.
DM 7/3/1988; 9/2

b- when the direct object is long, it is plausible to place an
adverbial before it, lest such an adverbial should become too
prominent or be taken to modify part of the object, e.g.

(53) Mrs Thatcher <u>yesterday</u> rejected Labour leader Neil
Kinnock's call to accept a Commons committee's
recommendation for an extra £1,000 million for the
NHS.   DMr 5/3/1988; 2/3

(54) One committee member, the Conservative MP for
Harlow, Mr Jerry Hayes, said: "Unless the
government take <u>seriously</u> the recommendations we
put forward there will be another crisis this
Christmas."   G 2/3/1988; 1/8

(55) It had <u>successfully</u> reinforced Nato's basic
message of defence, deterrence and dialogue.
                    G 5/3/1988; 4/5

c. in certain cases, the heaviness of the adverbial phrase
requires a heavier object to outweigh it, e.g.

(56) They begin to notice, <u>besides</u> <u>their</u> <u>particular</u>
<u>acts</u>, their extraordinary deeds.

2.4 FORMS OF NOT

Forms of 'not' influence adverbial position in several
ways. As a matter of course, adverbials in initial position
are outside the scope of negation, while almost all of those
in final position are inside it. Adverbials in medial position
have either possibility and accordingly their meaning is
greatly or slightly affected. In the two versions of (57) the
meaning of the sentence differs considerably according to
whether or not the adverbial is included in the scope of
negation; that is at (a)

(57a) He <u>deliberately</u> did not help us
the adverbial is outside the scope of negation and thus the
meaning is slightly affected. In (57) at (b)

(57b) He did not help us <u>deliberately</u>
the adverbial is inside the scope of negation, this time with
a considerable difference in meaning − in this case the
negation is not clausal but rather subclausal, that is the
incidence of helping is confirmed but what is denied is the
deliberate way of helping which can be glossed as accidental.
Thus, the positive form of (57b) is

(57c) He helped us <u>accidentally</u>.

Of importance to the above discussion of the involvement

of adverbials in the scope of negation is the ability of the adverbial itself to become the focus of negation. 'Precede' and 'follow' relationships between the element *not* and adverbials help distinguish the type of the adverbial concerned as in (58) where the adverbial at (a) is a SMA, a VMA at (b)[11]

(58a) Whoever owned the house was <u>clearly</u> not expecting us.

(58b) I had not ever thought <u>clearly</u> about this division.[12]

One more point needs to be made about the behaviour of adverbials. They show different positional attitudes according to whether or not the form of *not* is full or contracted. In sentences containing one auxiliary (finite auxiliary), adverbials can stand either before or after the auxiliary when a full form of *not* occurs after it, but they can stand before it when contracted *not* does so. Examples:

(59a) He <u>obviously</u> cannot join us.

(59b) He cannot <u>obviously</u> join us.

(59c) He <u>obviously</u> can't join us.

The slight misfit are the forms of *do* where adverbials vacillate between both positions. It is necessary to point out that this is no more than a rule of thumb since instances deviating from the above observation can be found .[13]

A final note in connection with the effect of negation is that negation can impinge on adverbial placement negatively in that adverbials, usually subject-modifying adverbials, in certain constructions, become undesirable and are soon dislodged from the sentence when it undergoes negation. Below are some examples. Those asterisked fail to make coherent

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[11]VMAs will be discussed in section 3.3.

[12]These two examples are found in Sinclair, J. (1987:249)

[13]For the frequency of forms of not, full or contracted, see Jacobson (1975: Figures 5:21, 5:35 pp 381, 407).

sense:

    (60a) John came, <u>foolishly</u>, too late.

    (60b) *John did not come, <u>foolishly</u>, too late.

    (60c) John did not come too late.

    (61a) She <u>violently</u> spanked her son.

    (61b) *She <u>violently</u> did not spank her son.

    (61c) She did not spank her son.

Other types of adverbial, mainly VMAs, behave similarly when their sentences are negated. Sentence (62), for example, is syntactically correct but semantically bizarre

    (62) ?The thief did not flee <u>hastily</u> / <u>stealthily</u>.

2.5 ADVERBIAL INTENSION

Factors of sentence structure may interact with syntactic constituents in various ways. Such interaction enables sentence elements to attain the ultimate form of the sentence. In particular, three distinct levels of sentence construction have an effect on adverbial placement; they are word order, semantic structure and intonation.[14] For semantic structure, adverbials are said to be the most diverse of the clause elements by virtue of their assumption of several semantic roles. For example, <u>still</u> often blends concessive with temporal implications as illustrated in the next two sentences respectively:

    (63) <u>Still</u>, we should have helped him.

    (64) There is <u>still</u> work to do.

On the one hand, it is quite possible for the same item (adverbial) to operate in radically different grammatical functions, though its semantic function remains constant. This shows up clearly with <u>frankly</u> in these examples:

    (65a) <u>Frankly</u>, she uncovered the secret.

    (65b) She <u>frankly</u> uncovered the secret.

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[14]See Firbas (1964:120-122). These three levels are not necessarily all detailed; however the last two will be considered here due to their pertinence to the present discussion.

(65c) She uncovered the secret <u>frankly</u>.

On the other the same item can range in its semantic roles according to the shift in grammatical function. <u>Then</u> and <u>immediately</u> in these examples assume different grammatical functions with concomitant meanings as a result of a shift in position and they must then be assigned to more than one class:

(66) My brother went to deliver his speech in York this afternoon. He <u>then</u> went to the party held at the city hall.

(67) They went home. <u>Then</u> (they) went straight to bed.

(68) If astronauts have landed on the moon, <u>then</u> there is no reason why they can't land on Venus.[15]

(69) A sudden idea <u>immediately</u> sprang to my mind.

(70) He had studied his world <u>immediately</u>.

(71) I will give you an answer <u>immediately</u> I've finished reading your file.

As a corollary to the above discussion, position cannot be uniquely associated with any given reading, i.e. there is no one-to-one correspondence between position and interpretation. Adverbial intension retains the key to the whole problem. Presumably, almost every adverbial class would call for certain requisites which help its members occupy the normal position felicitously. For instance, a lexical entry for <u>wisely</u> would contain certain information of various sorts. Structurally, a- it requires a co-occurrent animate subject:

(72) <u>Wisely</u>, Ahmed weighs 70 kilos.

(73) *<u>Wisely</u>, the stone weighs 70 kilos.

b- it can occupy many standby positions in different clause types. The versions of (74) have <u>wisely</u> in different positions in the same clause type

(74a) <u>Wisely</u>, the president dissolved the meeting.

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[15]This example is taken from Quirk et al (1985:640)

(74b) The president <u>wisely</u> dissolved the meeting.

(74c) The president dissolved the meeting <u>wisely</u>.

It is widely believed, by many grammarians, that positions like that in (74b) give rise to overlapping and then the sentence has two different interpretations, the first of which is (subject-modifying adverbial) that the president was wise to dissolve the meeting. The second is (sentence-modifying adverbial) that it was wise of the president to dissolve the meeting. Thus, <u>wisely</u> in such a sentence can be assigned to two classes simultaneously.[16]Needless to say <u>wisely</u> in (74a) is a sentence-modifying adverbial; whereas <u>wisely</u> in (74c) is a verb-modifying adverbial. Sentences (75) and (76) still contain <u>wisely</u> with almost similar meaning, yet they differ in their construction

(75) Did John <u>wisely</u> admit his mistakes?

(76) John <u>wisely</u> did not tell her the secret.

Semantically, <u>wisely</u> may require certain types of verb. This follows from the general semantic constraints which stress, though in a narrower sense, that different types of adverbial have a considerable range in their compatibility with different types of verb. Sentences (77) and (78) reveal that <u>wisely</u> goes with the verb of (77) but not with that of (78)

(77) <u>Wisely</u>, my brother proposed to marry Jane.

(78) *<u>Wisely</u>, the man lied to us.[17]

Other sorts of requisites necessitate that certain types of adverbial need to be in proximity to the clause element they modify, it being the case that sentence acceptability decreases if any element tries to push the adverbial away from the vicinity of its modified element. Sentences (a) of the

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[16]In chapter four an attempt will be made to disentangle the most appropriate reading from this welter of interpretations.

[17]Greenbaum (1969:54) addresses the same problem and notes that by suitable contextualisation, certain awkward sentences can be acceptable.

following demonstrate the more acceptable:

(79a) The teacher told the students <u>individually</u> /
<u>collectively</u> to report.

(79b) ? <u>Individually</u> / <u>collectively</u> the teacher told
the students to report.

(80a) To Roy and his wife, <u>in search of a new house</u>,
the evening papers turned out to be of little
use.

(80b) ? <u>In search of a new house</u>, the evening papers
turned out to be of little use to Roy and his
wife.

To make this factor more comprehensive, account of the
influence of other clause elements on adverbial placement can
be taken. An illustration is the role that the indefinite
article plays in adverbial interpretation; in (81) it
allocates a different function to the adverbial when it
intervenes between this adverbial and its head. In such cases,
the adverbial occurrence in front of noun phrases seems to be
restricted largely to indefinite noun phrases. This is clearly
shown when sentences (81) and (82) are compared with (83):

(81) She is a <u>really</u> intelligent child.

(82) She is <u>really</u> an intelligent child.

(83) *She is <u>really</u> the intelligent child.

2.6 TYPE OF CLAUSE

Clauses are formed in many different ways and their members
(elements) stand in a syntagmatic relation. The diversity in
clause construction often influences adverbial positioning.
Adverbial placement in the major simple clause types
(declarative, interrogative, negative and imperative) will be
investigated since these types are the prime concern of this
study. In simple declaratives with normal word order, most
possible positions (initial, medial, and final) are open for
adverbials; otherwise certain constraints restrain such
mobility. For negatives, position is defined by whether

adverbials are inside or outside the scope of negation. As for adverbials in interrogatives and imperatives, they behave disparately in that it is quite possible to find certain adverbials, whether of the same or different types, appearing acceptably in questions or in imperatives while other types are completely rejected. Arguably, it is not the case that the adverbial alone determines the position; rather certain restrictions, either of semantic or syntactic implication, come into play: adverbials whose semantic typology is of greater influence on choice of position display various roles and subroles. What is especially worth noting here is that a certain class favours a certain position, though other positions are possible for it, while another class normally occurs in another position. Even within the same class, some exponents differ in their occurrence from others. Syntactically, adverbials enter into a syntagmatic relationship with other clause constituents by means of which adverbials' mobility, to a certain extent, is governed. This reflects the fact that some adverbials, either of the same class or of a different one, favour a certain position or positions; others range more freely.

2.7 REALISATON

A further factor which has a strong effect on where adverbials are placed is the morphological make-up of adverbials. Adverbials can be realized by a great variety of linguistic structures, i.e. single words, noun phrases, prepositional phrases and clauses. Those diverse forms which produce adverbial function are systematically distributed in harmony with sentence sequence; that is, such forms usually correspond to their semantic, positional and grammatical properties. For example, degree adverbials are chiefly realized by single words and are likely to occur in medial position where they can act as verb modifiers.

The frequency of these various realization types

oscillates considerably in their occurrence in sentences. Adverbial clauses which normally accommodate final position could possibly be positioned sentence-initially. The best candidates for medial position are single word adverbials, clauses are virtually excluded, prepositional phrases less common. Phrases most frequently stand in final position; initial position is also quite common, but medial is rare. Initial position is mostly preferred by sentence-modifying adverbials which could be found elsewhere in a sentence. It often happens that these various types of adverbial realization enter into a contextual relation of hierarchy in which they are arrayed in order of precedence: single word adverbials - adverbial phrases - nonfinite clauses -finite clauses.

Further conventions, similarly related to adverbial forms, come to light:

a- English sentence balance necessitates that adverbials are patterned to suit the demands of information focus. For instance, hypodermically in (84) tends to be put at final position for this purpose.

(84) This kind of disease is cured hypodermically[18]

b- shorter adverbials normally tend to precede longer ones, e.g.

(85) I am receiving my wages weekly this year.

(86) The 31-year old man was arrested early yesterday

at his home in West London.   G 2/3/1988; 1/3

c- adverbials are sometimes designated as integral or peripheral to the sentence. If two adverbials are required by the same clause, the more integral would normally precede the peripheral one, e.g.

(87) She kept them in her garage in Spain.

Within the effect of this factor, another subfactor

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[18]See Quirk et al (1985: 604).

appears also at work in that adverbials corresponding to various semantic roles can occur in the same string. These adverbials are not always distributed arbitrarily but according to certain conventions. In sentence (88) the order of the adverbials comes in a hierarchy of their modification: the more peripheral adverbials tend to appear later. Practically, clustering all adverbials at the end of the sentence would make the sentence unpleasant to a native speaker, so they are conveniently interspersed in the sentence:

    (88) He <u>still</u> <u>often</u> works <u>in the garden</u> <u>with his shears</u>

        <u>on Sundays</u> <u>for hours</u>.

A final note needs to be made here, that there are points at which form and position overlap. The adverbial <u>legally</u> in (89) is structurally ambiguous and thus can be classified quite differently. It may be a manner adverbial meaning 'quite legally'; an adverbial of means with an interpretation of 'by invoking the law'; and an adverbial of instrument with the meaning of 'with legal argument'[19]

    (89) She did it <u>legally</u>.

2.8 <u>INTONATION</u>

In combination with other variables, most of which have been touched upon, intonation can be of great significance in conditioning adverbial placement. The relation between intonation and adverbial is striking in that differences in intonation often entail different interpretations of sentences containing adverbials. This depends on whether an adverbial is part of the same word group as the remainder of the sentence or whether it constitutes a separate intonational unit on its own. So, it is not the case that the same adverbial always occurs in parallel environments; intonation (stress) has the effect of reordering the interpretation of certain adverbials

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[19]See Quirk et al (1985:478)

in otherwise identical sentences. Illustrative examples are the following sentences where the emphatically stressed items are indicated by capitals:

(90a) Zaid <u>reluctantly</u> ate the APPLE on the table.

(90b) Zaid <u>reluctantly</u> ATE the apple on the table.

(90c) Zaid <u>reluctantly</u> ate the apple on the TABLE.

Each of the above sentences has various things to say about Zaid's reluctance. In (90a) Zaid was not necessarily reluctant to eat anything else on the table, but was reluctant to eat that apple. In (90b) he was not reluctant to give the apple to his brother or to cut it into pieces; he was only reluctant on this occasion to eat it. In (90c) he might be quite willing to eat any other apple given to him but not that particular one on the table.

As far as intonation is concerned, adverbials do not behave alike. Some do not occur as a part of the intonational contour which covers the main clause, but occur only as a discrete word group[20], e.g.

(91) Sam gave it to Bill, <u>allegedly</u>

Others occur only as part of the intonational contour over the main clause, e.g.

(92) He finished the book <u>completely</u>.

It has become evident that the presence of adverbials with separate intonational contours results from the fact of their not being integrated into the rest of the sentence and indeed acting in many cases as equivalent to the whole sentence. These typically appear to be sentence adverbials resisting any other interpretation.[21] Yet other adverbials

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[20]In writing, the presence or absence of punctuation corresponds respectively to the case of separate word groups and to that of adverbials as part of word intonation.

[21]Cruttenden (1986:75) cautions us that it is not necessary for 'clause modifying adverbials' to have a separate intonation group; they merely very commonly do. This accords, he maintains, with the speaker's wish to make the modification prominent. This is true to a large extent, but there is a
(Footnote continued)

occur in both environments, which in turn have different readings, e.g.

(93) He played the trick / surprisingly /

The adverbial surprisingly in (93) means 'it was surprising that....' when it forms a separate intonational unit; whereas it is interpreted as 'a surprising rendition' where it is a part of the intonational contour of the main clause.

The information on intonation potential already presented leads to three different types of adverbial readings directly related to the three positions: initial, medial and final. It can be assumed that, of the adverbials which can occur in initial position, most can occur as part of an intonational contour, a case which appears to give no change in reading for such adverbials. By contrast, adverbials that occur in final position may have different readings according to whether they form a discrete word group or not. It is the second possibility which yields manner, means, and instrumental readings. Adverbials in medial position may have both intonational possibilities. Only those which can form separate intonational groups in initial and final positions can do so in medial position.[22]A comparison between (94) and (95) reveals that happily in (94) is less than fully acceptable as it does not constitute a discrete intonational unit, while in (95) it is quite acceptable since it has a separate intonational unit:

(94) *She knew happily what he proposed.

(95) She knew, happily, what he proposed.

In connection with what has been mentioned above, Hawkins

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[21](continued)
certain group of SMAs which persistently retain a separate intonation group. This of course depends on the type of adverbial; allegedly in (91) for example, which unequivocally does not merge two syntactic functions- far from being homonymous.

[22]For more details see Cruttenden: (1981:168); Allerton and Cruttenden: (1978:161-165)

(1978:173) quoting Jackendoff (1972) states that intonational/ pause possibilities for adverbials are directly related to their position within structural trees. If an adverbial is preceded or followed by a pause in a sentence, then it has derived from a structure in which it is dominated by S. If it cannot be preceded or followed by a pause then it has derived from a structure where it is dominated by VP. To illustrate, the adverbial in (96) has derived from S and modifies the whole sentence; in (97) it has derived from VP and thus modifies the action expressed by the verb 'speak'

(96) George spoke, <u>seriously</u>.

(97) George spoke <u>seriously</u>.

The adverbials in (96), (97) can serve, as a test of their validity, as responses to questions introduced by Did (do) ...? and How...? respectively. <u>Seriously</u> in (96), which permits only S-domination, has the meaning ' I am serious in telling... or I can tell seriously that....' In (97), <u>seriously</u> permits only VP-domination with a manner interpretation.

It should be said that adverbials with pure manner readings are normally placed to the right of the verb since they are part of the same word group as the rest of the sentence. Their readings will be blocked if such adverbials are shifted elsewhere in the sentence in the hope of being given a new status with nuclear stress, e.g.

(98) The guns roared (while we slept) <u>loudly</u>.

(99) He answered my question <u>lucidly</u>.

(100) She read the book <u>completely</u>.

The possible sentence readings in (98, 99, 100) will be blocked, yielding ill-formed sentences if the adverbial is preposed

(101) *<u>Loudly</u> the guns roared (while we slept).

(102) *<u>Lucidly</u> he answered my question.

(103) *<u>Completely</u> she read the book.

The uneasy statuses of the adverbials exemplified through 101-103 are similarly touched upon by Halliday (1985) who excludes such adverbials as being thematic. With regard to 'theme rheme' Halliday specifies two types of theme, the first of which functions as a subject in a nominal group (unmarked); the other, which does not assume subject function, is an adverbial group and complement (marked) (p45). Within his adverbial group he distinguishes between those which can be purposively fronted to the first position in the sentence to be thematic and those which retain their positions as they cannot be given thematic status. In this respect the adverbial group is divided into modal and conjunctive adjuncts, the former being further divided into mood adjuncts and comment adjuncts (49). The elements which tend to be or have to be thematic are comment adjuncts (frankly, honestly, evidently, (un)fortunately) and those of the mood adjuncts that particularly express probability, usuality, obligation and presumption (pp. 82-83).

The function of the system Theme-Rheme can be aligned with the prosody which informs us what information in the sentence can be taken for granted (is 'given') and what is of special significance (is 'new')

2.9 Modification

Another factor, modification, may be so strong that its effect penetrates other environmental factors. As modifiers, adverbials have the potentiality of being placed in contiguity with the modified element. This, of course, depends in many cases on the nature of modification. As has been mentioned earlier, adverbials can modify as many words as a sentence contains, i.e. they can modify noun, verb, adjective, another adverbial, preposition, determiner, numeral, particle, and the whole sentence as well. Such variety of functional positions gives no very reliable clue to adverbial word order: it is difficult to delineate the precise number of steps in the

constituent hierarchy. However, an observationally sufficient characterization of adverbial positioning can be suggested. Adverbials which are used to characterize process, events, or states of verbs are usually placed immediately before such verbs, occasionally after them. Those which characterize manner, means, direction of verbs normally appear at the end of the clause. Adverbials that are said to characterize utterances, occurrences or circumstances are freer in their occurrence than are the former types.[23] Though all possible positions are open for sentence-modifying adverbials, initial position is the most natural, final is quite frequent, medial is less common.[24] Adverbials of the first two types (verb-modifying adverbials) are less free in their appearance in the sentence; they are comfortable in medial or final positions, while they are far less possible in initial position.

2.10 STYLE

Finally, style also plays some part in the choice of adverbial placement, just as do other centrifugal factors. In this respect, the placement of adverbial depends, to a certain extent, on the text type (context) in which they appear, e.g. scientific books, journalese, narratives, or conversation. The choice of position is often mercurial from one stylistic provenance to another, from article to article and even from passage to passage. As far as journalese is concerned, which comprises the main body of the corpus of this study, it hardly represents one particular style. It is often said that journalese sometimes goes beyond the truth and is full of expressions which in many cases indicate an idiosyncratic

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[23]These types of adverbial will be reclassified later pursuant to the mode of this study: they are functionally labelled on the basis of what sentence constituent they modify.

[24]It is a distinguishing feature of sentence modifying adverbials that they are set off from the rest of the sentence by comma(s) or its intonational equivalent.

predilection. More specifically, an adverbial (mostly temporal: today, this morning) is transported to a position which it does not normally occupy due to the relative unimportance of time specification. Thus it can be said that such adverbials always report what has previously happened.

All the factors which have been investigated are of a linguistic nature. These factors may interact with various non-linguistic ones such as the speaker's or writer's idiosyncrasies, or reactions speakers/hearers have when a number of adverbials nudge them into adopting this or that attitude towards the conversational situation they are in. This complex interplay between linguistic and non-linguistic phenomena can show clearly that the choice of the adverbial position is determined through the combination of many factors: not only by syntax or semantics or phonology but also by the social context in which the utterance is expressed.

CHAPTER THREE: ADVERBIAL CATEGORISATIONS

3.O INTRODUCTION

This chapter is in two parts, the first of which attempts to review briefly the different treatments that the adverb class has received from the proponents of the major recognized schools of grammar. The second part presents various mentions of adverbial classifications.

3.1 DIFFERENT TREATMENTS

Most grammarians have dealt cautiously with the category 'adverb' and consider it, as compared with other syntactic categories, as a complex area of English grammar. Such a complexity has led some grammarians to evade the analysis of this category or handle it perfunctorily. They describe the adverb class as a depository into which marginal grammatical items with unclear status are lumped. More precisely, Palmer (1972:62) suggests that:

> The adverb in particular is quite clearly a 'ragbag' or 'dustbin', the class into which words that do not seem to belong elsewhere are placed.

Bolinger (1981:84) similarly speaks of the difficulty of the problem:

> ... But the class of adverbs is a dumping ground. It includes words that modify only other modifiers...; words that modify only verbs...; words that modify only sentences... and words that combine two or more of these functions....

This attitude toward adverbials stems from the fact that they form an elusive group of categories and hence pose enormous problems that cause concern to those who have dealt with them. In the simplest cases it has been found that the works which have so far been devoted to analysing adverbial placement are sparse. This is again due to the very many reasons that contribute in part or in combination to the complexity of this

class. Among the more salient are the following:

a. The great heterogeneity that adverbials show which in turn causes them to overlap in that their functions imperceptibly shade into each other. For example, <u>completely</u> in both versions of (1) differs considerably:

(1a) He <u>completely</u> denied what he said.

(1b) He denied what he said <u>completely</u>.

In (1a) <u>completely</u> modifies the verb, meaning 'strongly'; in (1b) it modifies the complement and corresponds to the meaning of 'all of it' (all what he had said). Another example of such overlapping is sentence (2). In (2a) <u>naturally</u> can be classed as a sentence adverbial meaning 'of course' while in (2b) it is a manner adverbial paraphrasable as 'in a natural manner'

(2a) <u>Naturally</u> she has finished her homework.

(2b) She has finished her homework <u>naturally</u>.

b. The high mobility that helps its members occupy various positions and hence fall into a number of positional subclasses. That is, certain adverbials can occur in positions in which other exponents of the same subgroup cannot. This is clearly shown in sentences like (3) and (4) where <u>sometimes</u> and <u>never</u> are hardly mutually substitutable:

(3a) <u>Sometimes</u> I have my lunch at home.

(3b) I <u>sometimes</u> have my lunch at home.

(3c) I have my lunch <u>sometimes</u> at home.

(3d) I have my lunch at home <u>sometimes.</u>

(4a) *<u>Never</u> I have my lunch at home.

(4b) I <u>never</u> have my lunch at home.

(4c) *I have <u>never</u> my lunch at home.

(4d) ?I have my lunch at home <u>never</u>.

c. The intricate factors which singly or collectively, affect its placements. This was fully discussed in chapter two.

Also on the debit side, one can hardly find a common denominator for the diverse items within the categories or subcategories. Words like <u>very</u>, <u>however</u>, <u>quickly</u>, <u>downstairs</u>,

<u>even</u>, <u>not</u>, have all simply been labelled adverbials in traditional grammars but with no significant or distinctive information about how these words are used. Consequently, it is observable that adverbials, in the past, have been classified on a number of bases. They have been classified according to affixes, functions, meanings, distributions, or combinations of these. What follows are sketches of how the category 'adverb' has been considered with special reference to its syntactic behaviour:

3.1.1 <u>TRADITIONAL APPROACH</u>

At the outbreak of this century, traditionalists immersed themselves in related structures and also in co-occurrence restrictions. Western (1906:79) stated that "Word-modifying adverbs stand in the same relation to verbs and adjectives as adjectives do to nouns...." He, like other traditionalists, was interested in distribution and the consequential semantic changes it renders. Western (Ibid:76) deduced that

> As a rule, word-modifying verbs are placed after sentence-modifying adverbs, before the verbs. But this rule is not without exceptions....

Sweet made certain observations in reference to the word order of adverbials. He (1955:20) reported that

> In a succession of adverbs and adverb groups those most intimately connected with the verb precede - He came up at once ! \ We went to school together \ I want to look about me a little.

Sweet (ibid:21) still keeps in line with the word order and states
> When one of two modifiers is a lengthy group, the short verb-modifier is often allowed to precede even if it would otherwise follow, as in: he heard again the language of his nursery [he heard it again]... in such cases it is felt that the heavier modifier will easier bear separation from the verb.

Sweet (ibid:20) also wrote "... in some cases, indeed, no

other order is allowable, as in: let him in / I have left my
umbrella behind." He even went beyond this limit and suggested
that I <u>have</u> <u>left</u> <u>behind</u> <u>my</u> <u>umbrella</u> is ungrammatical because
it " appears to be that the adverb might be mistaken for a
preposition if put before the noun-word."

Sweet's observation is refuted, by some grammarians, on
the grounds that it overlooks the verb plus particle
constructions which occur frequently with noun phrase
following the particle.[25]

Palmer (1969:241-50) suggests five ways of classifying
adverbs, of which adverbial placement forms one way.
The residual traditional grammarians have made a contribution
to the understanding of adverbials in that they have
classified them on the basis of their semantic representations
but given no clear reference to their positioning. Since this
study is primarily concerned with the syntactic order of
adverbials, such a classification need not be dwelt on at
length. However, it is worth a quick look.

H. V. George (1966:332-39) discusses the structural
signals which distinguish various meanings. Poutsma
(1929:203-204) indicates that adverbial adjuncts could be
divided into those of place, time, causality, and manner. He
further subdivides these meaning-based categories into
subcategories. Kruisinga's (1957:441-42) classification is
also by meaning. Zandvoort (1957:246) categorizes adverbials
into twelve classes, again on a semantic basis.

The views held by a few of most prominent of the
traditional school have so far been discussed. In order to
make the illustration of the distinction clearer, the
traditional definition of the category 'adverb' will be cited
below. Traditionalists have given many, though somewhat
similar, definitions among which Curme's is typical. He

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[25]see Nilsen (1972:15)

(1935:71) defines an adverb as "...a word that modifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb." Such a definition is not satisfactory as it is largely notional and often extremely vague in that not all adverbs occur with all these three functions. For example, very modifies adjectives (and adverbs) but not verbs, whereas such traditional adverbs as ahead, yesterday, why,... etc. modify verbs but not adjectives or adverbs. Furthermore, this definition reflects the traditionalists' failure to see that not all adverbs are restricted to these three functions:

    (5) The man is nearly at the top of the hill

    (6) Almost everybody attended the meeting

    (7) Virtually all the seats are sold out

    (8) The match yesterday was exciting

The underscored adverbials are modifying the preposition, the indefinite pronoun, the determiner, and the noun respectively. Another example which corroborates the above observation of the fallacy of the traditional view of adverbials is of words like usually and quickly which are termed adverbs but have nothing, in given functional positions in specific sentences, in common. In other words they do not enter into relations of pragmatic contrast with each other as other members of other classes do when they can be substituted for one another in a given position with no loss of sentence grammaticality.[26] Consider the following examples where quickly does not commute with usually:

    (9) He ran away quickly.

    (10) *He ran away usually.

    (11) Her food is usually bad.

    (12) *Her food is quickly bad.

In sum, the unworkable traditional definitions follow from the fact that different criteria were used for

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[26]See Huddleston (1984:97) who points to the fact that not all members of a class always pragmatically contrast

categorizing the separate parts of speech. To use different criteria makes such definitions quite inadequate as language-particular ones, i.e. they would not be able to assign words to the correct class.

On the other hand, traditional grammars deserve the credit for making original statements about the adverb class. They have made statements about distribution, substitution, strict subcategories and co-occurrence. The taxonomies that have been proposed have not gained majority acceptance among modern grammarians; however the traditional scheme, from a pedagogical point of view, provides the best starting point for discussion. In other words, their work is of merit as it was they who were the first to set up the category called 'adverb' and they who developed the prescriptive rules for the correct use of adverbs.

3.1.2 STRUCTURAL APPROACH

Structural linguists, like many other modern linguists, criticized the traditional doctrine of the parts of speech and invalidated the definitions given by those grammarians. Structuralists do not use the same designations of the categories 'noun', 'verb', 'adjective', ...etc. but refer to them as 'word-classes' or 'form-classes' rather than 'parts of speech' to dissociate themselves from the traditional doctrine. As their grammars are a revolt against those of traditionalists, structuralists reject the traditional concept of defining 'adverb' by what it modifies. The examples they cite are similar to those mentioned above.

Among those structuralists Fries takes the lead and criticizes the traditional definitions when he (1952:204-205) writes:
> According to the usual application of these definitions any word that modifies a 'noun' or 'pronoun' is an adjective; all other modifying words are 'adverbs'. The difficulty here lies in the fact that the units are defined in terms of the structure. We need rather to describe the structure in terms of units.

Fries uses a different technique for his definition, which is based on the suitability of words to fill particular slots in carefully selected linguistic frames. Accordingly, he breaks the category 'adverb' into eight subcategories. Fries makes his classification separate and distinct from that of the traditional grammar by labelling the major parts of speech as class 1 'nouns', class 2 'verbs', class 3 'adjectives', and class 4 'adverbials'. The most remarkable point is that Fries treats what traditional grammars call 'adverb' in no less than five of his fifteen groups in addition to the total membership of his class 4. To go into slightly greater detail, Fries sets up sentence frames to explore positions in which his new classificatory words can operate. His group C contains only the negator not, e.g.

(13) He may not do well in the exam.

His group D consists of all words that occur immediately before class 3 and class 4 words. They perform the function of adjective or adverb modifiers but not of verbs modifiers. Examples:

(14) The film was awfully good.

(15) The boys climbed very quickly much later.

Group H also has only one word the expletive there. Formally, it has the shape of the class word there except it is always unstressed, e.g.

(16) There is a lady in that corner.

Group I covers all words functioning as interrogators: 'When', 'How', 'Who', ...etc. Group J includes all words equivalent to sentence connectors: 'therefore', 'nevertheless', 'although'. The words of this group occupy various positions in accordance with that of the included sentence and they must be set off from the remainder of the sentence by a pause or comma. Group L contains two response words 'Yes' and 'No', the first of which confirms the truth value of the sentence, while the second negates what has been said before.[27] Examples:

(17) <u>Yes</u>, we are on our way now.

(18) <u>No</u>, he is not here now.

Fries's framework has been criticized on the grounds that his class 4 ought to be subclassified as these adverbs do not all have identical functions, irrespective of the obvious differences in their meanings.[28]

Henry A. Gleason appreciates Fries's work; yet he suggests certain corrections to make it more valid. Gleason (1965:130) states

> These moderate-sized groups of 'adverbs' must certainly be separated out from the class if it is to be made workable: they are better treated as independent parts of speech rather than as subdivisions of a comprehending (sic) 'adverb' class.

Gleason's (ibid) first subdivision is 'intensifiers', Fries's group <u>D</u>, the justification of which is that 'intensifiers' modify adjectives and adverbs but not nouns or verbs. His second subdivision is 'limiters', within Fries's group <u>D</u>, which "modify phrases of all kinds, noun phrases as well as others", and the third would be 'sentence-introducers', or 'sentence-connectors', Fries's group <u>J</u>.

Lloyd and Warfel describe the function and position of the English adverb. Their description is most appropriate for this category, where it is said that

> The adverb steers and guides the sentence and cuts down the potential meaning in the verb. It can affect the utterance largely and grandly or pinpoint narrowly a specific segment of it. It is not bound to the fixed order of the noun cluster and verb cluster; at any point where these show a chink, the adverb can do its work. It is movable, the wandering, the free-wheeling unit in the utterance.[29]

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[27]See Fries (1952:83-102)

[28]See Palmer (1972:62)

[29]Lloyd and Warfel (1957:151)

However, Lloyd and Warfel did not set up any delimitation and left the adverb uncontrolled.

Jacobson's (1964) "Adverbial Positions in English" is an excellent synopsis of adverbial positioning. His book comprises two parts, the first of which sets test frames for various types of adverbial constructions by means of which adverbials are classified by position. It also investigates thoroughly and comprehensively the factors that influence the placement of the major adverbial categories. The second part of Jacobson's book is a dictionary whose main purpose is to show how individual adverbials are actually placed by writers of the time during which the book was being compiled. Jacobson has also written other works about the word order of adverbials. They can be regarded as a brilliant account of adverbial placement.

Other structuralists have developed grammars based on the assumption that phonology should have priority over morphology or syntax. They assume that many syntactic problems can be resolved by virtue of phonology and consequently phonological problems should be dealt with before morphological or syntactic ones. Such grammarians have given no special treatment to the word order of adverbials, so this study will not engage itself much in discussion of their works.

3.1.3 TRANSFORMATIONAL APPROACH

Unlike their forerunners, transformational generative grammarians are interested in such transformations as reductions, deletions, expansions, and in the relationship between various forms. These form-word classes are more interesting to them than are function words since the former may characteristically undergo these transformations. As far as adverbials are concerned, transformational grammarians treat them as optional elements in the phrase structure rules.[30] They concede that the adverb has been the most maligned part of speech studied in the literature of

generative grammar. Like other grammarians, they attribute this scant treatment to the variety of semantic and syntactic roles adverbials play in English. The proponents of this school claim that adverbials can either be generated in deep structure or by transformational rules. Fundamentally, they believe, they are derived from adjectival complements or introduced as the verb phrases of higher simplex sentences.[31]

Bent Jacobson (1977:103) is in sympathy with the suggestion that various adverbials are optionally converted into prepositional phrases which are 'true' categories. Fowler thinks that the addition of the category 'adverb' will substantially increase the complexity of a very simple grammar. He avoids such an addition because of its optionality. It is relevant to quote him

> It seems undesirable to add a new one of the 'adverbial modification', especially since this function is, for [32] the majority of sentences, perfectly optional.

He maintains "...even if adverbial modification were a distinctive function, it would not be essential."[33]Jackendoff elaborates on Fowler's claim and points out that the set of transformations for an adjective-noun construction enables one not to treat adverbials independently since their paraphrase relations are so widely varied. Hence they were neglected in favour of more tractable constructions. Jackendoff assumes that adjectives and related adverbials share selectional properties. Adverbials, thus, must be reduced to adjectives so that shared selectional restrictions need not to be stated twice.[34]

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[30]See Chomsky (1965:105-106)

[31]See Lakoff (1970:145-65) ; Jackendoff (1972:52)

[32]Fowler (1971:43)

[33]Fowler (1971:55)

At the extreme, Bowers argues that there is no need for a 'category adverb' at all. He (1975:547) accounts for this by saying that "These so-called adverb phrases are simply instances of the category `AP'". Bowers (Ibid:548) vindicates his claim by saying

> Since adverbials are identical in their informal structure to AP's, and since the distribution of the suffix -ly is completely predictable on the basis of the syntactic position of AP, there is no need whatsoever to assume the existence of a special category 'adverb' in the PS rules.

As regards adverbial placement, transformational grammarians concern themselves with co-occurrence restrictions between adverbs and other form-classes, particularly with verbs, rather than adverbial positioning.[35]

Lees (1962:15-18) in his article "The Grammatical Basis of Some Semantic Notions" indicates that "the concept of `modifier' is not a semantic notion, but a purely grammatical one." He (ibid) then adds "...all so-called adverbial expressions to be modifiers" — "seems to be at least somewhat counter-intuitive." Lees subsequently suggests five types of adverbial expressions which could be attributed to a major sentence constituent rather than being modifiers. Below are these five types, some of them with subtypes, with corresponding examples:

Name	Adverbial	Sentence
1. Sentence Adverbial	certainly	This is certainly true.
2. Preverb	almost	We are almost finished.
3.a- Locative	in town	I'll meet him in town.
b- Time	tomorrow	I'll meet him tomorrow.
4.a- Instrumental	with his	John drove it with his

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[34]See Jackendoff (1972:47-48)

[35]See, for instance, Chomsky (1965:102-105)

	hand	hand.
b- Concomitive	with his cousin	John drove in with his cousin.
c- other adverb manner	carefully	John drove carefully.
5.a- Attributive	quite	John is quite careful.
b- Attributive which is Aa + ly	extremely	John is extremely careful.[36]

James B. Fraser distinguishes between different types of adverbial in terms of having a role in the strict subcategorisation of the verb. Fraser (1965:7-9) sets up a tree whereby he locates the occurrence and position of certain expressions among which adverbials are placed.

Don L.F. Nilsen (1966:39-41) sets up transformations which do not change the semantic content of the sentence but change only emphasis or style. Through these transformations, listed below, he considers the problem of particles as well as adverbial distribution:

1. NP Mod$_{sent}$ V X ── Mod$_{sent}$ NP V X ── NP V X mod$_{sent}$
   The left fielder confidently caught the ball ──
   Confidently the left fielder caught the ball ── The left
   fielder caught the ball confidently.

2. NP$_1$ V Prt NP$_2$ ── NP$_1$ V NP$_2$ Prt
   Bob tried on the shirt ── Bob tried the shirt on.

3. NP$_1$ V$_t$ NP$_2$ ── NP$_2$ be PstPrt V$_t$ (by NP$_1$)
   Jim hit the tall sailor ── The tall sailor was hit (by
   Jim)

4. NP V$_{io}$ NP$_2$ to NP$_3$ ── NP$_1$ V$_{io}$ NP$_3$ NP$_4$
   I gave the money to John ── I gave John the money

5. NP$_1$ V$_{oc}$ prep NP$_2$ ── NP$_1$ V$_{oc}$ NP$_2$
   I stayed at home ── I stayed home

6. ArtNondef Noun Be X (Advplace) ── There be ArtNondef
   Noun X (Advplace)

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[36]Lees (1962:13-15)

Some boys were eating marshmallows (in John's room) ——

There were some boys eating marshmallows (in John's

room).[37]

In short, transformational grammarians envisage the problem of the syntactic distribution of adverbials in terms of dominating nodes in a tree, that is, whether adverbials are immediately dominated by the node S or by the node VP. The following abstract trees can characteristically show the attachment of three positions: initial, medial, final with pause to sentence and verb phrase respectively:
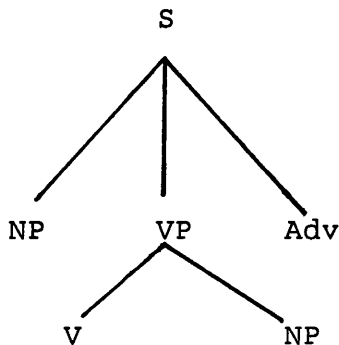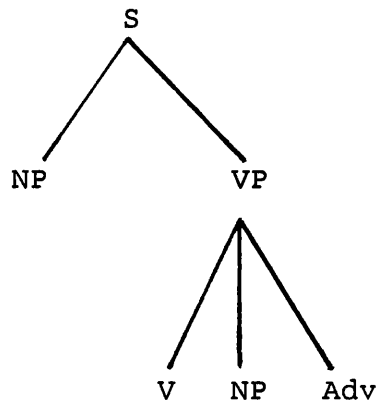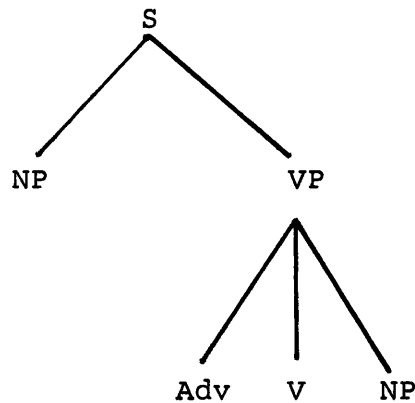
1. a-
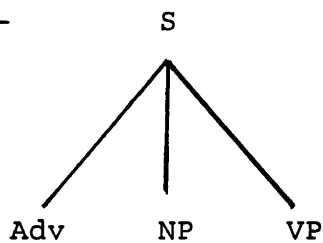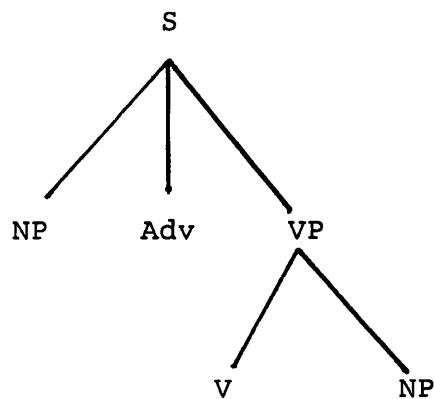
Adverbials occupying final and medial positions can be attached to the verb phrase

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[37]Nilsen (1966: 38-43)

2. a-

```
          S
         / \
        /   \
       /     \
      NP      VP
             /|\
            / | \
           /  |  \
          V   NP  Adv
```
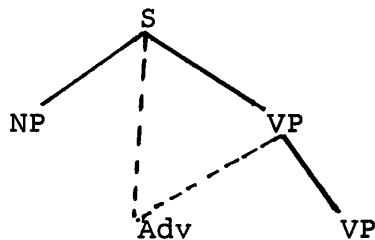
b-

```
          S
         / \
        /   \
       /     \
      NP      VP
             /|\
            / | \
           /  |  \
          Adv V   NP
```

Adverbials that yield ambiguity can be attached to either S or VP

3.

```
          S
         /↑\
        / ¦ \
       /  ¦  \
      NP  ¦   VP
          ¦  /|
          ¦ / |
          ¦/_-¬
         Adv   VP
```

3.2 ADVERBIAL CLASSIFICATION

Most studies taking adverbials as their main focus confirm that the adverbials constitute the most nebulous and puzzling category of the traditional word classes, a fact which makes distinctions among them notoriously difficult to draw. This is reflected in the striking differences in concepts and terminology that are used by many grammarians. Therefore, the many principles of classification employed, such as semantic similarity, morphological make-up and similarity of distributional behaviour, do not really warrant adverbials composing a single class. For instance, wilfully and well display different semantic notions: one refers to the motives of the doer and the other to the character of his doing. Similarly, reluctantly as in (19)

(19) She wrote the letter reluctantly

can not be classed the same as hurriedly in (20)

(20) She wrote the letter <u>hurriedly</u> .

But <u>inscrutably</u> in (21)

(21) She wrote the letter <u>inscrutably</u>

is ambivalent since it refers simultaneously to the character of the style of her writing or to her own inscrutability.[38] This might puzzle the reader and thus make him seek a way out of the ambiguity. One solution is to consider the syntactic criterion of relative position. Such a criterion can determine the right interpretation of the adverbial when placed close to the word it modifies. Thus placing <u>inscrutably</u> to the right of the subject would produce a subject-oriented reading. This criterion seems to be fine but a question may be raised: Is it foolproof? Before giving any answer it is advantageous to consider the following two examples where <u>certainly</u> occupies the same position but with different meaning. Any shift in its position would either force it into another subcategory or entail a semantic change. In (22) <u>certainly</u> is unquestionably a sentence-modifying adverbial, while in (23) it is a subject-modifying adverbial

(22) He <u>certainly</u> made a mess of it

(23) He <u>certainly</u> showed how to do it

The above discussion enables us to say that position alone is not sufficient to delimit the type of the adverbial but type of modification should be taken into account. They collaborate together to render the right type of the adverbial concerned. The preceding argument points to the necessity for more examples, if a convincing picture of adverbial classification is to be constructed. Provision of such examples will be made in the subsequent chapters.

3.2.1 MODES OF CLASSIFICATION

A number of criteria are adopted in the attempt to classify and subclassify adverbials; the major ones are:

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[38] A similar contention is found in Matthews (1984:139).

a- function

b- morphological structure

c- semantic representation

d- position

e- integrity versus periphery

f- cooccurrence

g- intonation

h- transformation

i- orientation.

Semantic criteria are widely practised by traditional grammarians, who also try to apply this kind of subclassification to the positional behaviour of adverbials. As has been mentioned in many places in this thesis, semantics is scarcely a basis on which one can draw a clear-cut class, especially for adverbials, which do not form a genuine semantic class. Another traditional device is to classify adverbials on the grounds of morphological characteristics. [39]

Structural grammars stress that meaning is not a completely reliable criterion for classification. For their procedure, words traditionally classified as adverbials are isolated and rearranged primarily by their position in certain patterns and by their formal contrasts. Jacobson (1964) classifies adverbials by virtue of three criteria: morphology, semantics, and modification. The last two criteria are somehow far from easy to operate as they are interwined in the many borderline cases where two or more classes overlap. These three criteria are further subdivided into more related groupings. The criterion of morphological structure comprises one-word adverbials, adverbial phrases and clauses. That of semantics includes time, space, aspect or viewpoint, degree, restriction, particularisation, exemplification, mood and various conjunctional meanings. The criterion of function

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[39] See Poutsma (1929:part 1: 321-333; part 11: 607-666) and Jesperson (1947: 49 ff)

(modifying adverbials, complementary adverbials; referential adverbials and conjunctive adverbials) indicates that adverbials can fulfil many different functions in the sentence. Overlap often occurs when two or more functions are combined in the same adverbial. Jacobson (1970) adds other types of modification such as sequence signals and focalizers besides those previously listed (1964). Jacobson (1978a) sets up three ways of classifying adverbials (preverbs) according to their pragmatic, semantic and syntactic functions. He issues the warning that a strict line of demarcation is difficult to draw among these three sections since they are highly integrated. It is worth noting that it was probably Jacobson who first registered pragmatics as a criterion for classification.

The pragmatic function of a preverb refers to the content a speaker intends to communicate to his hearer(s). The factor which determines this content is the inherent content (the basic sense) of the preverb. For instance, the pragmatic function of the preverb <u>historically</u> in (24)

    (24) This country, <u>historically</u>, was the cradle of the
         most ancient civilizations

is its inherent content that the speaker utilises to restrict the whole situation to historical factors and on this basis the choice of a preverb is made. The semantic function of a preverb is expressed by its inherent content. It can be said that this function can single out preverbs which partake of the same semantic components and thereafter locate them to the same semantic class. By syntactic function Jacobson refers to the syntactic unit or units on which the preverb operates: as modifier, focalizer, connector.[40] Classification on the basis of syntactic function produces overlap since the preverb can perform more than one operation simultaneously. This is

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[40]See Jacobson (1978a:15-18)

clearly shown in Jacobson's example, repeated here as (25)

    (25) Jim did not become a teacher straightway. He was
       <u>first</u> an engineer.

where <u>first</u> performs two types of operation: modification (modifies the rest of the sentence in which it stands); connection (connects its sentence with the previous one).

A note needs to be added that these two operations can be switched if <u>first</u> is fronted to the very beginning of its sentence <u>First</u> <u>he</u> <u>was</u> <u>an</u> <u>engineer</u>; thus connective meaning will take precedence over modification meaning, whereas in (25) above the opposite is the case.

Greenbaum's classification (1969) falls into: disjuncts, adjuncts, and conjuncts, each of which is further subclassified into different subclasses. Disjuncts are subdivided, according to the kind of evaluation, into style and attitudinal. Style disjuncts (<u>seriously</u>, <u>frankly</u>) relate to comments on the style and form of what the speaker is saying while attitudinal disjuncts (<u>oddly</u>, <u>fortunately</u>) relate to the content and truth conditions of what is being said. Greenbaum has set up a number of syntactic and semantic criteria to distinguish these subclassificatory types. His criteria incorporate factors of position, intonation, and transformation as discriminatory characteristics. These criteria are listed on pp 18-23 of his book (1969); only three of them are relevant to the present discussion. The first two criteria test the ability of a particular adverbial to appear in initial position. In order to satisfy the first criterion, an adverbial must be unacceptable in initial position: *<u>Down</u> <u>he</u> <u>burnt</u> <u>the</u> <u>church</u> (p18). For the second criterion, the item must be unacceptable in initial position when the clause is negated: *<u>Always</u> <u>he</u> <u>does</u> <u>not</u> <u>want</u> <u>it</u> (p19). The third criterion employs intonation which inhibits the item from being used in initial position. That is, the item must be unacceptable in initial position if it is an independent tone

unit and carries a rising, falling-rising, or level nuclear tone. Again, with the meaning 'once more', satisfies this criterion: *again he played well (p19).

In Hartvigson (1969) use was made of intonation and position for defining the adverbial type. His criteria distinguish two categories: 'loose modifiers' I saw you actually and 'close modifiers' I saw you dimly.

Thomason and Stalnaker (1973) suggest a different taxonomy. They argue that two kinds of adverbial can be established: predicate modifiers and sentence modifiers. They implement a set of four criteria which are intended to define sentence adverbials. These criteria involve semantic notions such as scope, ambiguity, and paraphrase. In this respect, they stress that the fourth criterion which paraphrases the sentence by deleting the adverbial and prefacing the resulting sentence by It is Q-ly true that is of a greater preponderance in such a classification since it 'comes close to being a necessary and sufficient condition for determining sentence adverbials'. They test the eligibility of this paraphrase by contrasting examples similar to (26) and (27), the second of which passes or fails the test. Failure of the tests they established will render the adverbial as a predicate modifier

(26a) Sue frequently has her lunch at home.

(26b) It is frequently true that Sue has her lunch at home.

(27a) The manager slowly signed the letters.

(27b) *It is slowly true that the manager signed the letters.

These types of adverbial are opposed to certain adverbials whose function is equivocal. For example happily in (28)

(28) The man happily arrived on time

is a 'janus' adverbial having one sense (roughly equivalent to fortunately) of sentence modifier and another (roughly equivalent to gladly) of a predicate modifier. Furthermore,

the above test is also applied to other types of adverbial than -ly derivatives. As a result, sentences with temporal adverbials can be regarded as somewhat odd even if they are utterly grammatical. That is, (29) means the same thing as (30):

> (29) It is true <u>at</u> <u>five</u> <u>o'clock</u> that the murder was
>   committed.

> (30) The murder was committed <u>at</u> <u>five</u> <u>o'clock</u>.

But (31) is deviant and does not yield a sound paraphrase of (32):

> (31) *It is true <u>with</u> <u>a</u> <u>knife</u> that the murder was
>   committed.

> (32) The murder was committed <u>with</u> <u>a</u> <u>knife</u>.[41]

Huang's (1975) classification subsumes a number of semantic classes of adverbials. This classification views adverbials in relation to verbs of action which are thereupon grouped according to whether they entail Event, Participant in an Event, or Result of an Event (p13). Adverbials which ascribe some state of mind to the agent or patient of the sentence are referred to as 'state-of-mind adverbs'. A semantic dichotomy is made between these adverbials in that one set (carefully) imputes some state of mind to only the agent, the other set (willingly, gladly, anxiously) has the dual function of attributing some state of mind to either the agent or the patient. Adverbials which characterize the action indicated by the verb (He smiled broadly) are classified as manner adverbials. Those that express an evaluation of the actor's participation in the event (He wisely escaped from the POW camp) are called evaluative adverbials. Adverbials that describe aspects of the results of an event (She wrote her name legibly) are termed adverbials of result. With awareness of counter- examples that would destroy his semantic

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[41]See Thomason and Stalnaker (1973:203-206)

classification, the author takes up individual adverbials and labels them in the light of the properties which explain their relation to the sentence. Most of these terms are not discrepant from others; however, adverbials like <u>possibly</u> are termed epistemic adverbials by virtue of their role which is to suggest how the statement is to be understood in relation to a wider context. Adverbials like <u>surprisingly</u>, whose role is to express an external evaluation of the event as a whole, when the sentence including them as a whole describes a fact, are categorised as attitudinal adverbials (p26). A note can be registered that the author is discursive in his classification since he moves from one adverbial to another trying to give hints that each adverbial has a unique property which enables it to cooccur with another adverbial or another sentence constituent (adjective, for example, *extremely wrong; extremely idiotic) (p23). In a summary of his categorisation, he (p28-29) lists the following:

1. What the speaker does
   - A. Speaker's attitude (Surprisingly, he is ill.)
   - B. Speaker's state of mind (Frankly, Mary is a bore.)
   - C. Choice of theme (Theoretically, cancer is curable.)
   - D. Manner of action identified by speech act verbs (Briefly, the claim is false.)
   - E. Performatives (consequently, to quote the Times)
   - F. Epistemic qualification (John is probably ill.)

11. Event specifications
   1. descriptive: time and locative adverbs
   2. evaluative: wisely, foolishly (Foolishly, John called Mary.)
   - A. Participant:
     1. state: anonymously (He returned the book anonymously.)
     2. state of mind (with respect to an Event) Actor: carefully, intentionally

Patient: (there is no state of mind adverb in

English which predicates only of patient)

B. Event type: manner adverbs like slowly, rapidly, with

a limp

C. Result:

legibly (John wrote his name legibly.)

temporarily (He removed his hat temporarily.)

in the garbage can (He put the bottle in the garbage

can.)

111. Degree:

A. descriptive: very (Mary is very tall.)

B. reactive: surprisingly (Mary is surprisingly tall.)

Quirk et al (1985) establish two broad classifications under which many subclassifications are subsumed. One of these main classifications is semantic (pp 479-485) and the other is based on grammatical functions (pp 501-646). The semantic subclassification comprises seven subcategories: space (position, direction, distance); time (position, duration, frequency, relationship); process (manner, means, instrument); agentive; respective; contingency (case, reason, purpose, result, condition, concession); modality (emphasis, approximation, restriction); degree (amplification, diminution, measure). These subcategorisations of grammatical functions are: adjuncts, disjuncts, subjuncts, and conjuncts. The contrast between adjuncts and non-adjuncts is based on clearly syntactic criteria: the former can be the focus of a cleft, negative, or alternative interrogative construction, or within the scope of predication, ellipsis or proforms and so on (P 504). However, the contrast of subjuncts, disjuncts and conjuncts seems to be based on more semantic criteria. In practice, the book contains stimulating observations which expose the syntactic, semantic, and positional properties of numerous individual items of different types of adverbial.

Allerton and Cruttenden (1978) make a distinction between

sentence adverbials and non-sentence adverbials in the sense that the former manifest evaluation, or assertion of what is being said about the sentence while the latter range over either the whole predicate or part of it. The former category is said to include Quirk et al's (1972) disjuncts and conjuncts as well as causality adverbials.

Cruttenden (1981), whose prime concern is the analysis of correlation between intonation and sentence adverbials, splits up his sentence adverbials into interpretation sentence adverbials; presentation sentence adverbials; contingency sentence adverbials and conjunctional sentence adverbials. Cruttenden admits that the first two subclasses are drawn from Davies' class (1967) of 'clause-comment adjuncts', whereas, the last two represent a new subdivision within the class of 'conjuncts' used by Greenbaum (1969) and Quirk et al (1972). Cruttenden divides his four types of sentence adverbial further into many subclasses. Interpretation adverbials are divided into:

      a- message-oriented likelihood (<u>presumably</u>)

      b- message-oriented attitudinal (<u>fortunately</u>)

      c- subject-oriented attitudinal ((<u>un)willingly</u>)

Presentation sentence adverbials are divided into:

      a- viewpoint-oriented (<u>legally</u>)

      b- speaker/listener-oriented (<u>honestly</u>)

      c- style-oriented (<u>briefly</u>) and

      d- validity-oriented (<u>basically</u>)

These types and subtypes of sentence adverbial are identified on the basis of four syntactic/semantic criteria which comprise paraphrases and transformations in the form of test frames whereby the validity of these subclassifications is attested.

Paraphrasability has been exclusively used by some investigators as a major device for verification of adverbial classification. Not all of these paraphrases are completely

watertight. Cruttenden (ibid:230) criticizes those tests used by Nilsen (1972) and Schreibur (1971) which are constructed transformationally. Their arguments (paraphrases), as Cruttenden sees it, are vitiated by the noncompliance of some classes of sentence adverbials with these transformationally-based tests; the 'conjunctionals' (however, incidentally) being the most obvious examples. He adds that the majority of the members of this class do not, of course, have related adjectives and subsequently do not conform to such transformations.

Cruttenden's main concern is with the role that intonation plays in conditioning sentence adverbials. His last two chapters deal with the correspondences between certain intonational patterns and sentence adverbials. Cruttenden (1981:279) uses Halliday's terms (1970:162-164) 'new' and 'given' in the information structure in which they refer to the organisation of a text. For example, <u>Certainly</u> and <u>obviously</u>, which are of the same subclass (message likelihood), can both be used with 'given' sentences with falling intonation:

    (33) <u>Obviously</u>, he can.

    (34) <u>Certainly</u>, he can.

<u>Obviously</u> but not <u>certainly</u> can be used as a 'new' sentence:

    (35) <u>Obviously</u> he can win the match.

    (36) *<u>Certainly</u> he can win the match.

The same concept of 'new' and 'given' in the information structure has been advanced by Buysschaert (1982:110-121) but with different terms: 'topic-', 'comment', 'focus'.

Halliday (1970:149) lists two types of adverbial within his threefold distinction: process (verbal groups); participants (nominal groups); circumstance (adverbial groups). He subdivides the circumstantial elements into 'inner type' adverbials that are 'more central to the process' and 'outer type' adverbials which are 'less central to the

process'. Halliday cites these two examples, reiterated here as (37a) and (37b), to support the latter distinction

(37a) he was throwing stones <u>at</u> <u>the</u> <u>bridge</u>

(37b) he was throwing stones <u>on</u> <u>the</u> <u>bridge</u>.

<u>At</u> <u>the</u> <u>bridge</u> in (37a) is 'inner type' as it complies with 'what was he throwing stones at?' but not with 'what was he doing <u>at</u> <u>the</u> <u>bridge</u>?' On the other hand, <u>on</u> <u>the</u> <u>bridge</u> in (37b) is 'outer type' since it could go with 'what was he doing <u>on</u> <u>the</u> <u>bridge</u>?' and not with 'what was he throwing stones on?' Halliday uses another characteristic which implies the presence/ absence of an actor. That is, in a sentence like (38) the place element is 'outer type' since the actor is present, whereas, in (39) it is 'inner type' as it does not stipulate the presence of an actor.

(38) He washed the car <u>in</u> <u>the</u> <u>garage</u>.

(39) He keeps his car <u>in</u> <u>the</u> <u>garage</u>.

It seems fairly clear from what has been discussed so far that adverbials have been classified on the basis of different criteria. Those scholars who were concerned with the problem of adverbials labelled members of this class in such a way as to dissociate themselves from others. But what about transformational grammarians? Do they follow similar analyses?

Transformational Generative Grammarians refer to the category 'adverbial' incidentally, and accordingly they have not devoted much space in their analyses to its classification. What interests them is whether adverbials constitute a base in the deep structure level. So most followers of Transformational Grammar classify adverbials in terms of the role they play in strict subcategorisation with the verb. Chomsky distinguishes two classes of adverbial. The first is that of adverbials without strong cohesion with the verb which can be considered as optional. The second is that of adverbials that show strong cohesion with the verb and are necessarily 'prepositional phrases' and 'manner adverbials'.

He exemplifies certain verbs whose type is a determinant in the process of subcategorisation. That is, adverbials of direction are required by verbs like 'to dash', those of duration by 'to last', of place by 'to remain', and manner adverbials are refused by such verbs as 'to resemble', 'to have', 'to marry'.[42]

Fraser makes a demarcation between subcategorizing and non-subcategorizing adverbials. He includes among subcategorizing adverbials the manner and directional adverbials since they posses a role in the strict subcategorisation of the verb. Locative and temporal adverbials are introduced as non-subcategorizing adverbials in the absence of any role in the subcategorisation of the verb. His assumption is derived from the examination of certain constructions in which an adverbial is an essential part: He put it on the table; She drank him under the table; She darted towards the gunman. Therefore, these adverbials, as he claims, are dominated by MV.[43]

Bartsch (1975:350) following Mckay (1969) distinguishes free and non-free adverbials. Non-free adverbials require a subcategorisation of the verb while free adverbials do not. R. Steinitz (1969:13) claims that the sentence is split up into an NP and a VP in the traditional way, and that it is to the second division that adverbials belong. She distinguishes two types of adverbial: Adv and Advb and principally her classification also enters into the verbal subcategorisation in that Adv subcategorises the verb, where Advb does not. But in cases of doubt she resorts to the criterion of obligatory: optional. As for this last criterion, Bartsch (1975:364) elaborates on Steinitz's claim that verbs which express existence or coming into being require adverbial placement

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[42]Chomsky (1965:102-106)

[43]Fraser (1965:8-9)

only if the sentence subject is a definite description: The fire arose in the cellar; A fire arose (in the cellar).

Jackendoff's classification (1972) is of three types: speaker-oriented adverbials which involve the speaker's comment on the proposition expressed in the sentence; subject-oriented adverbials which relate to the subject of the sentence; and manner adverbials. Lehrer (1975:489) adds another class of adverbials which finds no place in Jackendoff's categorisation. She calls this subcategory 'complement-oriented adverbials', including adverbials like truly, correctly, rightly, falsely, erroneously, wrongly, and incorrectly. She gives examples like (40), whose meanings are represented by the entry shown in (41) where 'P' stands for the complement:

(40) John falsely believes that Bill is a thief.

(41a) Believe (John, P) & false (P)

(41b) Believe (John, P) & not (P)

Thus, (40) can only be paraphrased in the way displayed by (42)

(42) John believes that Bill is a thief and that belief
     is false. Bill is not a thief.

For positive adverbials, Lehrer (1975:490) offers the following entry:

(43a) Believe (John, P) & True P

(43b) Believe (John, P) & P

The above entry can be exemplified in (44) which may subsequently be paraphrased as (45)

(44) John correctly doubted that Bill is a thief.

(45) John doubted that Bill is a thief and this doubt
     was true.

Nilsen (1972) follows the same method of verb subcategorisation according to which adverbials are generated under two nodes. In other words, those adverbials which are not involved in the verb subcategorisation descend from the

node of MV. Adverbials that concern themselves with the verb subcategorisation are introduced under ADVB. It should be said that both of these types of adverbial are dominated by VP.

Hawkins (1978:53) puts forward a diagnostic criterion which employs a paraphrase, like that of Thomason and Stalnaker (1973), It is Q-ly true that..., as a test for distinction between sentence adverbials and non sentence adverbials - the former ending with -ly. For this purpose, Hawkins has also made use of Schreiber's observation (1971) which divides sentence adverbials into modals and evaluatives. Modal adverbials (evidently, possibly, obviously) derive from the same structure which underlies a surface form involving corresponding adjectives: It is adj. that S, whereas evaluatives (fortunately) derive from the structure which underlies S and it is adj. that S. Thus, depending on his 'focus and presupposition', Hawkins concludes that evaluatives appear to require the presence of full sentences for their acceptability, while modals do not. He supports his claim by presenting these two examples numbered here as (46) and (47):

> (46) John crossed the river on a raft or a log,
>   possibly
> (47) John crossed the river on a raft or a log,
>   unfortunately

where 'possibility' in (46) is assigned to the log: it is possible that it was on a log that John crossed the river. In (47), on the other hand, the evaluation of 'being unfortunate' is assigned to the event of John's crossing the river irrespective whether it was on a raft or a log. On this reading unfortunately is an evaluation of the main sentence; possibly is an evaluation of a constituent of the main sentence.

Buysschaert's classification (1982:133) falls into two broad divisions: essential complement, and free complement. He then subclassifies free modifiers as sentence modifiers or

verb modifiers or as ambivalent cases between them. Sentence modifiers are subdivided in accordance with the kind of information they add to the utterance: fact-modifiers (fortunately), claim-modifiers (probably), event-modifiers (tomorrow), act-modifiers (carelessly).[44]

In sum, the varying interpretation of the proposition is largely determined by the internal semantics of the adverbials functioning as sentence modifiers. Buysschaert came up with another subclassification which he calls U-modifiers (utterance modifiers) for adverbials that comment on the sentence as an utterance, i.e. they do not view it as an event, situation, claim, fact, or occurrence. For example, the adverbials honestly and in theory in (48) and (49) comment on the sentence as an 'utterance' as shown by their paraphrases just below them:

> (48) Honestly, you deserved that
>
> Honestly speaking (If I may speak honestly)...
>
> (49) In theory, she is out
>
> Theoretically speaking (One may say that)...

Accordingly, he suggests that the above subclassification would subsume those categories defined by Quirk et al (1985) as style disjuncts and viewpoint subjuncts. Buysschaert (1987:109-110) proposes another classification which he thinks is able to account for the positional behaviour of adverbials. Adverbials, with a falling-rising or low-rising intonation, that can function as the topic or theme of the utterance tend to occupy front and medial positions. Those adverbials with a falling intonation that can be the comment of the utterance tend to come relatively late (in medial and final positions).

Finally, this survey closes with another line of classification made by J. Taglicht (1984:122) who divides adverbial elements into three major classes in terms of their

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[44]See Buysschaert (1982:83)

interaction with negation:

a- nuclear items that must always be inside the scope of negation

b- intermediate items that may be inside or outside the scope of negation, and

c- peripheral items that must always be outside the domain of sentence negation.

He has, thus, used Quirk et al's divisions (1972) and tried to distribute their classificatory items to his three classes. For instance, class (a) includes intensifiers, process adverbials, direction adverbials, and adverbials denoting location in time or space. Class (b) comprises adverbials denoting extent over time or space (Quirk et al 1972:486). It also involves adverbials of duration and frequency, adverbials of cause, reason, or motive or volition and conditional clauses introduced by if. The third class contains conditional clauses introduced by unless, provided that, on the condition that, if, and only if. This class also has disjuncts and conjuncts. A perusal of the three classes reveals, as he notes, that only adverbials in the second class give rise to ambiguity of negative scope appreciably when they stand sentence-finally.

In the interest of simplicity a rough comparison of the various classifications will be demonstrated in the table below. Each classification has criteria of its own.

NAME	WORK	SEMANTIC	SYNTACTIC	POSITIONAL	REALIZATIONAL	INTONATIONAL	GRAMMATICAL	INTEGRATED/ PERIPHERAL	PRAGMATIC IONAL	TRANSFORMAT IONAL	SUBCATEGOR IZATIONAL
POUSTMA	1928	✓	✓	✓							
Jacobson	1964	✓	✓		✓						
	1970	✓	✓		✓						
	1978	✓							✓		
CHOMSKY	1965							✓			✓
Fraser	1965							✓			✓
Greenbaum	1969			✓		✓	✓				
Hartvigson	1969			✓		✓					
Halliday	1970							✓			
Nilson	1972	✓								✓	✓
Jackendoff	1972	✓	✓	✓		✓					✓
Thomason and Stalnaker	1973	✓	✓								
Hawkins	1977	✓	✓			✓					
Allerton and Cruttenden	1978		✓			✓	✓				
Cruttenden	1981	✓	✓			✓				✓	
Buyssch- aert	1987	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓			
	1982										
Taglicht	1984	✓						✓	✓		
Quirk et al	1985		✓	✓			✓			✓	

3.3 THE CLASSIFICATION ADOPTED

Considering this abundance of different adverbial classifications and considering that the same classification is sometimes interpreted differently by different authors, the present researcher prefers to state explicitly, and discuss at some length, which classification will be followed. Position and sequence of adverbials in the sentence are mostly influenced by their syntactic functions, i.e. according to the type of head they modify. Their description as modifying adverbials indicates that the adverbials under study can be classified into three main classes:

3.3.1 CLASS 1: SENTENCE-MODIFYING ADVERBIALS (SMAs)

This comprises sentence-modifying adverbials (SMAs). Such adverbials comment on the proposition expressed in the sentence, i.e. they describe the sentence as a whole. Semantically, they can stand as an equivalent to the whole sentence in which they occur. Grammatically, they modify the whole sentence. Syntactically, they are peripheral to the rest of the sentence, from which they are separated by intonation boundaries in speech or by commas in writing. For example, fortunately in (50) describes the sentence as a whole, that is, the fact that her telling me the news in time was fortunate (maybe for both of us)

(50) Fortunately, she told me the news in time.

Likewise, today in (51) qualifies the event that is described by the sentence.

(51) Today the same phenomenon can be observed.

It should be borne in mind that sentence adverbials display different kinds of evaluation of the sentence. This difference in semantics takes its cue from the inherent properties of the adverbial concerned. At present no semantic dichotomy is attempted but this will be done in chapter four (p 80).

3.3.2 CLASS 11: CLAUSE-ELEMENT MODIFYING ADVERBIALS (CEMAs)

Class 11 embraces clause element modifying adverbials

(CEMAs) which modify a particular constituent without
stretching its force (function) to any other part of the
sentence. This will be clear in the following sentences where
the modified element is italicized:

(52) *The boy* <u>obediently</u> shut the door.

(53) *I* <u>sincerely</u> hope that the next man can do as well
for him.   G 3/3/1988; 17/7

(54) ...the area had become a haven for young career
women who <u>happily</u> paid six-figure sums for the
basement and ground-floor flats that dominate the
area.   DM 2/3/1988; 5/5

(55) I <u>fully</u> *realise* that you have been involved in
one of these projects.

(56) We are very good friends, even if we are on
opposite sides for this game, but I <u>firmly</u>
believe we can both challenge the league
domination of Merseyside in the next few years.
DMr 5/3/1988; 26/4

(57) You *can* <u>afterwards</u> tell more people about it.

(58) I *wanted* <u>desperately</u> to talk about what we could
do if I <u>really</u> *were* pregnant.

(59) Players at those clubs do have an advantage, but
our players are good professionals and *have
prepared* themselves <u>mentally</u>.
DM 5/3/1988; 25/4

(60) Or was she so locked inside herself that she only
registered *external objects* that fitted with her
own thoughts and *could be used* <u>metaphorically</u> in
her poems.   G 4/3/1988; 22/3

Within this class there appear to be certain conventions at
work. For instance, the adverbial that modifies the subject of
the sentence, i.e. with subject-orientation, may be derived
from an adjective that can be predicated of the subject
intended. Thus, there is a subject orientation in

(61) *She* deliberately broke the glasses

which can be paraphrased as

(62) She was deliberate in her action of....

No such demonstration could be found with accidentally in (63)
as confirmed in its paraphrase in (64)

(63) She accidentally broke the glasses.[45]

(64) *She was accidental in her action of....

Types of modification also come into play, especially in
predicting positions. That is, adverbials which qualify or
intensify the meaning of the verb would be accommodated to the
left of their head while those that augment the verb meaning
normally gravitate to the end of the sentence. Sentences (65-
71) represent the former while sentences (72-78) are of the
latter type:

(65) We indeed *appreciate* her wittiness.

(66) She said: "I am a very person to have got a part

like this. I thoroughly *enjoyed* doing it, though

I was very nervous at the beginning".

DM 5/3/1988; 11/6.

(67) I entirely *reject* your suggestion.

(68) I absolutely *agree* with the judge's comments.

DM 5/3/1988; 6/3

(69) But it is strongly *rumoured* that Chancellor may

limit mortgage tax relief on any one home to

£30.000.   DMr 2/3/1988; 21/3

(70) These facts seriously *damage* Komisaruk's case,

as well as illustrating paranoia with computers.

G 3/3/1988; 25/5

(71) Eddie's furious father Terry said: 'This is

ridiculous. We will have *to* seriously *consider* a

boycott.   DM 3/3/1988; 2/2

(72) We are getting dangerous and violent criminals

---

[45] See Quirk et al (1985:573)

mixed haphazardly with pretty thieves.

DM 8/3/1988; 5/1

(73) They *married off* their daughter ostentatiously.

(74) Her mother *pushed*her ruthlessly towards

success, and being a conformist girl, Plath ....

G 4/8/1988; 22/1

(75) The tutor *criticized*my approach mildly.

(76) We *checked*the times meticulously.

(77) And when they did threaten to break through it was

defender Terry Fenwick whose 25-yard shot was

deflected dangerously close to Shilton'crossbar.

DM 2/3/1988; 40/4

(78) But the Earl and his distinguished visitors can

*lie*peacefully in their beds according to Mr Harry

James, keeper of Egyptian Antiquities at the

British Museum. It can be *said*unequivocally

that....   G 8/3/1988; 2/6

Therefore, this class needs to be broadened by new subdivisions. The major subdivision of these modifiers includes: a- subject-modifying adverbials (SUBMAs), b- auxiliary-modifying adverbials (AMAs), and c- verb-modifying adverbials (VMAs).[46] Those adverbials modifying an auxiliary and a verb are intimately related; however, they have distinguishable boundaries.

3.3.3 CLASS 111: VERB PHRASE-MODIFYING ADVERBIALS (VPMAs)

Class 111 contains verb phrase modifying adverbials (VPMAs) which are said to modify various verbal structures within the predicate, i.e. they modify the verb plus the

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[46]This subdivision is based on the high frequency of its members in most occurring sentences. But the fact that adverbials can modify as many sentence elements as possible does not necessitate including all the heads in the wider range of adverbial modification. For instance, adverbials modifying objects as in
    She wants the payment in cash
    I read the book in detail
can be found though not so frequently as other types of modification, say, VMAs.

object (complement) or/and other adverbials not only the verb. Sentences (79-83) clearly show what constituents the adverbial includes in its modification:

(79) Such kinds of metal *occur* <u>*very widely*</u> <u>in</u> <u>the</u> <u>southern</u> <u>country</u>.

(80) He <u>always</u> *had some light dishes.*

(81) ...she says, "To eradicate this disease one *must* <u>first</u> *identify it* and openly denounce it.

        G 3/3/1988; 6/6

(82) The DHSS, as far as can be seen of its research on ageing from descriptions of its research projects, on which it *spends several million pounds* <u>annually</u>, looks....   G 8/3/1988; 38/1

(83) She *was born* <u>*in York*</u> <u>in</u> <u>1950</u>.

To give more support to the above argument about such a type of modification, the following sentences can be contrasted:

(84) They *cleaned the dishes* <u>thoroughly</u>.

(85) They *handled* their neighbours <u>circumspectly</u>.

In (84) The adverbial <u>thoroughly</u> incorporates the verb and the direct object in its function in the sense that it affects the state of the dishes: to be changed from one state to another: from being dirty to being clean. In (85) the adverbial <u>circumspectly</u> encompasses only the verb in its function and in no way stretches it to the other parts of the predicate: their neighbours.

The point is that there appears to be some correlation between the position in which an adverbial occurs in the sentence and what it modifies. This is obvious when a form conflates two types of modification, say, sentence modification (class 1) and clause element modification (class 11). The position of <u>perhaps</u> in (86) and (87) singles out the type of modification which in turn gives rise to the right sentence interpretation:

(86) <u>Perhaps</u> *they will be in time to ask you*

themselves.

(87) His insistence on consultation is <u>perhaps</u>
 . *irritating.*

<u>Perhaps</u> in (86) operates on the whole sentence; thus it is a SMA. In (87) it modifies only the sentence constituent "irritating" so it is a CEMA. Sentence versions at (88) lend additional support to the correlation between position and type of modification: in (88a) <u>personally</u> appears in final position functioning as VMA with the meaning of "in person'. In (88b) it is at the beginning of the sentence modifying the whole sentence and thus labelled as SMA. This time it is synonymous with 'to be personal'. In (88c) which it functions as subject-modifying adverbial and hence appears sentence medially. Its meaning is synonymous with the appropriate reflexive form of the pronoun.

(88a) She *appreciates* your talents <u>personally</u>.

(88b) <u>Personally</u>, *she appreciates your talents.*

(88c) *She* <u>personally</u> appreciates your talents.

These types of modification enter into a contextual relation of hierarchy. This can occur where these types appear in the same sentence. In (89)

(89) They <u>often</u> *drive recklessly on motorways*

<u>often</u> comes at the highest level, as it modifies the predicate <u>drive</u> <u>recklessly</u> <u>on</u> <u>motorways</u>; then comes <u>on</u> <u>motorways</u> which modifies <u>drive</u> <u>recklessly</u>; the verb modifier <u>recklessly</u> ranks lower in the hierarchy of modification. The above ordering of such a stream of adverbials satisfies both semantic and grammatical requirements.

The distinction among these three classes is perhaps not as sharp as one might wish. The most appropriate conceptualization is of a continuum where cases of overlap emerge. However, the problem does not seem to be insuperable in that many criteria like intonation, punctuation, relative position enter into the distinction. For instance, the

criterion of relative position will draw a borderline between the occurrence of VMAs, a subclass of CEMAs, and VPMAs; when members of these two types co-occur in the same sentence, that of verb modification stands next to the verb, e.g.

(90) We have never fully appreciated their approaches. Inclusion of a compound auxiliary can be regarded as a test for the two adverbials to show their modification tendency. (91) thus reveals that, whereas fully remains a verb-modifier, never modifies the whole verbal word group

> (91) We would never have fully appreciated their
> approaches.

Thus, it has become patently clear that verb-modifying adverbials are inclined to occupy a place between an auxiliary and a principal verb, modifying only the principal verb; they are hardly ever placed before the auxiliary, and retain their position before the principal verb even if the auxiliary is compound, as exemplified in (92-96)

> (92) The Home Office has "robustly" denied claims of
> drug smuggling at Highpoint.   DMr 4/3/1988; 1/3
>
> (93) The government should have clearly recognised
> that the new taxes are high.
>
> (94) The dramatic scene, for the final episode of the
> current Dynasty series, has been secretly filmed
> amid tight security.   DM 5/3/1988; 3/1
>
> (95) My husband is 66 and I am nearly 64. We have been
> happily married for nearly 40 years, so you can
> imagine the state of shock I am in.
>
> DMr 1/3/1988; 11/4
>
> (96) In no uncertain terms, he told the Prince that he
> had been badly briefed and suggested, politely,
> that Charles think again.   DM 4/3/1988; 23/6

Many VPMAs can be positioned before an auxiliary, however, those which stand between an auxiliary and a principal verb encompass the auxiliary in their modification, e.g.

(97) The police should <u>eventually</u> complete a report

for the director of Public Prosecutions to decide

whether to prosecute.   G 1/3/1988; 1/3

(98) I think I <u>hardly</u> should know him if I saw him.[47]

(99) The merged party leadership dismisses this figure

and believes that the new party will <u>quickly</u>

establish itself as a third force more formidable

than either of its predecessors. G 3/3/1988; 1/5

If the auxiliary is compound, they are usually put between the

parts of the auxiliary or sometimes before its finite part[48],

e.g.

(100) My answer may have <u>remotely</u> upset him.

(101) For 20 years the aid and credit funds received by

Panama have been <u>largely</u> diverted from government

projects to the military oligarchy's personal

estates.   G 5/3/1988; 18/6

It could be said that the above classification is
relevant to predicting adverbial positions. This
function-based classification highlights how different types
of adverbial occupy their standby positions. In other words,
function and position combine to support the view that
adverbials can best be classified functionally. The next
chapter will demonstrate adverbial positions in different
sentence types on the basis of the proposed categorization.

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[47]Jacobson 1964:34.

[48]For more details, see Jacobson (1964:33-38)

CHAPTER FOUR

4. ADVERBIAL POSITIONS IN ENGLISH

4.1 POINTS OF CONTRAST

Earlier it was mentioned that adverbials enjoy an ambivalent status in linguistics mainly due to the wide ranging privileges of occurrence which distinguish them from other clause elements. Such an ambivalence also emanates from the cooccurrence of different types and from the fact that the number of adverbials in the sentence is not fixed. This gives the adverbial class more positional freedom and it has thus been described as the most peripheral category whose members are for the most part mobile and optional.

In recognition of this freedom this study will present in the first place sentences in which adverbials are most frequently used, then sentences with less frequency of use. The examples elicited from the three newspapers described earlier have been chosen with great care and in most cases are meant to reflect, to some extent, what a native speaker prefers most. When more than one example of the same category is given, the aim is to achieve variety by including other clause elements, alternating form (tense forms) or alternating exponents of that category.

As was stated earlier, adverbial positions will be specified on the grounds of the classification adopted by this study. This classification sheds light on many delicate issues of modification by deploying criteria of relative position or of paraphrase in addition to providing many examples to give a fairly full picture in illustration. As the analysis becomes more detailed, it is beneficial to take the same adverbial and ponder over its variable positions which subsequently entail different functions. Wisely in (1)

(1) Wisely, *he finished the work earlier*

is unambiguously a SMA paraphrasable by "(we) I (the speaker(s)) consider it wise that he finished the work

earlier. In (2)

(2) *He* wisely finished the work earlier

it is a SUBMA indicating that he was wise in his earlier completion of the work and it has no implication that his manner was at all wise. Wisely in (3)

(3) He *finished* the work earlier wisely

is no doubt a VMA implying manner interpretation. The following set of sentences seems to contrast in a similar fashion to the top sentences:

(4) Bravely, *800 soldiers defeated the aggressors*

(5) *800 soldiers* bravely defeated the aggressors

(6) 800 soldiers *defeated* the aggressors bravely

(4) asserts that it was brave of a (mere) band of 800 to resist, while (5) asserts of each of the 800 that he was brave to resist– numbers have nothing to do with it though. (6) describes the brave manner in which these soldiers resist. There are, however, many cases of overlap where verb operation and subject operation are mixed but the class membership is decided on the basis of what is first assumed to be the main function. In (7)

(7) She seriously considered him as a partner

a controversy is raised as to whether seriously is a SUBMA with the paraphrase of she was serious in considering him as a partner or as a VMA meaning his suitability as a partner was given serious consideration. A possible way to prevent this confusion is passivisation of the sentence. It is noteworthy that (8a) in which seriously keeps its position close to the verb is perfectly acceptable; whereas (8b) is rather clumsy

(8a) He was seriously *considered* as a partner.

(8b) ? He seriously was considered as a partner.

On the other hand, certain adverbials that functionally belong to one class show no specific connection with another. In (9) the adverbial must be interpreted only as a sentence modifier and there is no room for any other interpretation

(9) <u>Sadly</u>, thousands of children in the world today
suffer needlessly.

Conversely, many other adverbials can only be interpreted as a VMA, e.g.

(10) They placed it <u>sideways.</u>

(11) They turned <u>aside</u>

The first class (SMA) is said to subsume different types of semantic implication. It conveys in one way the speaker's comment on the style and form of what he is saying (style adverbials), and in the other his attitude to what he is saying, his evaluation of it and/or his certainty or scepticism (attitudinal adverbials). (12) and (13) manifest the two kinds respectively:

(12a) <u>Seriously</u>, do you intend to marry her ?

(12b) <u>In short</u>, he is a complete failure.

(13a) <u>Fortunately</u>, he is behaving well.

(13b) <u>Obviously</u>, no one can attend the party in this
weather.

To recapitulate, for the purposes of this chapter, the three classes demonstrated above with their subdivisions are distributed over the following table. Some of these classifications are not entirely new, yet others are.

CLASS	SUBDIVISION	FUNCTION	NORMAL POSITION	OTHER POSITIONS	EXAMPLES OF NORMAL POSITIONS IN DECLARATIVE SENTENCES
SMAs 1	STYLE	SMA	I	M AND F	<u>FRANKLY</u>, SHE IS MARVELLOUS.
	ATTITUDINAL	SMA	I	M AND F	<u>FORTUNATELY</u>, HE JOINED US.
CEMAs ·11	SUBMAs	SUBMA	M1	I AND F	I <u>READILY</u> HELPED YOU.
	AMAs	AMA	M2	NONE	YOU CAN <u>NOW</u> TELL THE STORY.
	VMAs	1. VMA	M3	NONE	HE <u>STRONGLY</u> CRITICIZED HER.
		2. VMA	F	M3	HE CRITICIZED HER <u>MILDLY</u>.
VPMAs 111		VPMA	F	M	SHE SNATCHED IT <u>SWIFTLY</u>.

No clear dichotomy, as far as the occurrence of SMAs in declaratives is concerned, will be tried between these two

types of SMAs since they fulfil the common function, i.e. modifying the whole sentence. However, their occurrence in other sentence types- interrogatives- requires such a semantic dichotomy as their position is determined somewhat on the basis of the semantic implication that each type manifests. This will be exemplified in section 4.2.2.

What is more necessary is to draw a distinction among the three classes. Such a distinction, which is of a semantic nature, is mainly a matter of paraphrase relation. For class I, this study will employ the test proposed by Thomason and Stalnaker (1973) to be (virtually) definitive for SMAs : paraphrasibility of adv + S by It is Adv true that S.
Thus, (14a) which characterizes the circumstances described by the sentence is roughly paraphrased by (14b)

    (14a) Definitely, I need your help.

    (14b) It is definitely true that I need your help.

Focus of negation is another criterion that can draw a line of demarcation between members of this class and those of the other two classes. Unlike members of CEMAs and VPMAs, SMAs can not be the focus of negation, a phenomenon which makes them precede the negative particle unless separated by a comma. Supposedly the adverbial in sentence (15a)

    (15a) They clearly define their policies

is interpreted ambiguously, once with sentence modification and the other with verb phrase modification. However, the ability to become the focus of sentence negation will determine which type is which. In (15b) the adverbial is a SMA since it precedes the negative particle; whereas in (15c) it is a VPMA because of its propensity to be the focus of negation

    (15b) They clearly do not define their policies.

    (15c) They do not define their policies clearly.

Another subsidiary criterion that is able to distinguish certain exponents of SMAs — attitudinal (expressing

viewpoints) – is 'non-gradability', according to which they do not accept clause comparison or the modification which is possible for many CEMAs and VPMAs. If modified, such adverbials will no longer assume the same function but turn out to be exponents of other classes, e.g.

(16a) Politically, this party holds exotic attitudes.

(16b) *Very politically, this party holds exotic
    attitudes.

It seems that there are no corresponding paraphrases for all classes. However, some classes or subclasses can avail themselves of a paraphrase which can allay any doubts as to their most natural positions. This obviously applies, besides SMAs, to SUBMAs, which can be distinguished by the paraphrase: NP + be + a related adj. (for examples see pp 71-72).

But it is more urgent to discern two kinds of VMAs, one with intensification effect (magnifier), and the other intended to augment the verb meaning (augmentor). The first type can be allocated the paraphrase: The degree of + NP + be + a corresponding adj. as a diagnostic factor for their positions. It is perfectly clear that this paraphrase bears an interpretation under which the adverbials with intensification effect are placed directly before the verb. Therefore (18) represents a sound paraphrase of (17), whereas (20) is an awkward paraphrase of (19)

(17) They strongly criticised his approach.

(18) The degree of their criticism was strong.

(19) He handled the book carefully.

(20)*?The degree of his handling the book was careful.
Other examples that seem to endorse the above test are:

(21a) The information accurately describes the
    accommodation I have.

(21b) The degree of the description of the
    accommodation is accurate.

(22a) These problems will be approached sympathetically

(22b) *?The degree of approaching the problems is
      sympathetic

The other type (with intention of meaning augmentation) can be represented by one or another paraphrase in accordance with the meaning it conveys (manner, means, instrumental ...etc.)

Two principles are essential to the development of the argument, principles that govern adverbial ordering and that can help to mark out the three classes. The first of these is 'hierarchy', where adverbials appear in a widely sequential relationship. This principle states that the order of adverbials in a sentence is determined either by their potential size (single word adverbials, adverbial phrases, adverbial clauses)(for examples see p31) or by their modification range where they manifest inclusiveness (larger units subsume smaller ones (p75), peripheral adverbials subsume integral ones (p31). More specifically, as far as position is concerned, adverbials which have a verb-modifying tendency follow other adverbials in medial position but precede them in final position

(23a) He <u>probably</u> <u>accurately</u> described the incident.

(23b) ?He <u>accurately</u> <u>probably</u> described the incident.

(24a) He behaved <u>rudely</u> <u>in</u> <u>the</u> <u>meeting</u>

(24b) ?He behaved <u>in</u> <u>the</u> <u>meeting</u> <u>rudely.</u>

The second principle, which is 'comitation' predicts that the adverbial and its head (the modified word) are intimately related, forming one semantic unit. It manifests itself so as to predispose the adverbial to occur in close proximity to its head. It thus seems plausible to suppose that the adverbial in (25) translates as a basic member of the predicate, i.e. verbs like 'put' require combination with an adverbial to make a (complete) predicate

(25) He put your watch <u>on</u> <u>the</u> <u>shelf</u>

The question is whether <u>on</u> <u>the</u> <u>shelf</u> modifies just the verb 'put' or modifies the verbal group 'put your watch'. It is

said that 'your watch', as a complement, completes the sense
of the verb and together with the verb form a unit of sense.
Thus, the adverbial does seem to modify the predicate rather
than just a part of it (see p74). Cases of intransitives that
require adverbial complements also comply with this principle.
For instance, (26) is quite odd but (27) is acceptable

    (26)*He lives (in the sense of reside)

    (27) He lives <u>in</u> <u>London</u>

Certainly these sentences seem to have categories whose basic
members are verbs that combine with an adverbial somewhere
along the route to becoming heads of complete verb phrases.

    Now, it behoves the discussion to bring in two further
factors which may assist in placing these two principles in a
wider perspective. The first factor is adverbial realisation,
the other is communicative clarity. As for adverbial
realisation, there is a hierarchical ranking of units in terms
of their potential size. That is, adverbials of smaller units
are usually placed before those of the larger ones. The
reverse order does not work and only larger units can be
placed sentence initially. Adverbials in the form of
prepositional phrases or clauses, which are cumbersome at
medial position, can normally be found in final position. They
are not uncommon in initial position where they set the scene
or avoid the ambiguity which may arise from clustering
adverbials at final position. Single-word adverbials have
medial position as their normal habitats. Other positions,
namely initial and final, are also possible. However,
cooccurrence of the adverbial forms generally creates an odd
stylistic effect even if the larger one is preposed to initial
position.

    Communicative clarity demands an elegant adverbial
ordering in the sentence. One way to avoid any equivocation
which may arise from a certain position is generally to place
the adverbial close to its head. Thereby, the resulting

ambiguity is explained syntactically: the subject-oriented meaning is, for example, expressed by placing the adverbial to the right of the subject, e.g.

(28) The lady <u>carefully</u> reshelved the books

The verb phrase adverbial reading is achieved by positioning the adverbial concerned later in the sentence, e.g.

(29) The lady reshelved the books <u>carefully</u>.

Other conditions, in this respect, may help to remove any ambiguity. Such conditions could provide graphological evidence like commas or dashes or phonological evidence like intonation to identify the function and type of the adverbial. The fact that <u>particularly</u> in (30) is followed, not preceded, by a comma may be taken as an indication that it can be construed as SUBMA. Similarly, the adverbial in (31) has its own intonational nucleus and (in essence) is usually classed as a sentence adverbial

(30) Martin <u>particularly</u>, enjoys watching cartoons.

(31) Sam spoke, <u>honestly</u> .

As far as position is concerned, the position in the three classes defined by the classification which is adopted here will be considered in order of priority, i.e. according to the position most favoured :

4.2 <u>SENTENCE-MODIFYING ADVERBIALS</u> (CLASS 1):

Despite the different semantic roles they manifest, SMAs favour initial position :

(32) Most pension experts say that <u>usually</u> it is best
to stay in SERPS if you are a man aged 45 plus or
if you are a women aged 40 plus DM 2/3/1988; 21/5

(33) <u>Professionally</u>, Jay has made several documentaries
about aids,... .   G 3/3/1988; 21/2

(34) <u>Last night</u>, Mr Scargill said the result came as
'no surprise' to him   DMr 2/3/1988; 31/3

(35) <u>Ironically</u> the fifth earl had gone to Egypt in the
first place for his health. <u>After a few years</u> he

had hired his own archaeologist   DM 8/3/1988; 6/3

(36) <u>Perhaps</u>, the most vivid illustration of the
     difference between the two sides two weeks ago lay
     in the contrast between the enterprising way of
     the Welsh backs.   G 5/3/1988; 15/7

(37) It is partly bad luck, but the fact is I have not
     scored enough for a winner. <u>Ultimately</u>, that has
     to be my fault.   DM 8/3/1988; 6/3

(38) <u>Paradoxically</u>, there is a seeming acceptance of
     Moscow's policies, but at the same time an
     unwillingness to accept the Russians sent to
     implement them.   G 3/3/1988; 11/7

(39) <u>Apparently</u>, he's looking better than ever and is
     due to fly to Japan this weekend.

                              DMr 3/3/1988; 38/1

Final position, with comma, is also frequent but less common
is medial. [1]

(40) ... Even though the computer was alongside other
     rooms full of disused furniture, Komisaruk decided
     it was operational and destroyed it, <u>accordingly</u>.

                              G 3/3/1988; 25/5

(41) Today's sale is a rare opportunity <u>indeed</u>.

                              G 5/3/1988; 9/1

(42) Lord Coulsfield said that the former M16
     officer's book had already been circulated widely.
     Information in it had been published <u>previously</u>.

                              G 3/3/1988; 2/2

(43) No comment was available from the department of
     Health <u>yesterday</u>.   G 1/3/1988; 1/3

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[1]The examples cited from the newspapers suggest that medial
position is as frequent, if not more so, as the other
positions open for SMAs. This is presumably due to factors of
prominence which make journalists initiate sentences with
something more striking and thus moves SMAs, especially of
time, to a position other than their most natural one. See
section 2.10 p 37.

(51) Hundreds of career girls living alone were last
    night praying that a shadow of fear had <u>finally</u>
    been lifted from them.   DM 2/3/1988; 5/4

(52) The protestant church, which has made it clear
    that it does not wish to become an 'agency for
    emigration', has <u>now</u> been drawn fully into the
    conflict   G 1/3/1988; 17/1

(53) However, it is known that on large operations such
    as this at least six terrorists would <u>normally</u> be
    involved.   DM 1/3/1988; 2/5

Medial position after the second auxiliary is thorny for such
types of adverbial :

(54) ?Stacey had been <u>previously</u> remanded on an
    unconnected charge.

(55) ?The Scottish champions will be <u>surely</u> reinforced
    by the return to the squad this afternoon.

    Indubitably, more than one SMA may cooccur in a single
sentence without tautology or contradiction

(56) <u>Previously</u>, <u>at</u> <u>Newcastle</u> <u>in</u> <u>January</u> Mick's star
    appeared certain to win, but unseated Phil Tuck at
    the final fence when well clear   G 8/3/1988; 17/1

(57) It <u>now</u> looks certain Duff will promote a
    Tyson-Bruno fight <u>at</u> <u>Wembley</u> <u>in</u> <u>September</u>.
                                    DM 2/3/1988; 32/6

(58) It <u>finally</u> voted <u>yesterday</u> for merger with the
    liberals   DM 3/3/1988; 22/5

(59) Barry McCuigan, the former world-feather weight
    champion, and his manager Barney Eastwood
    <u>officially</u> and <u>acrimoniously</u> parted <u>yesterday</u> when
    Eastwood sold his option G3/3/1988; 17/6

(60) <u>Certainly</u> Underwood is <u>statistically</u> the worst
    finisher in the British international Rugby.
                                    DMr 2/3/1988; 28/2

(61) The potency of these firebombs was <u>vividly</u>

> demonstrated to the media <u>recently</u> by Army bomb
>
> disposal experts at a house on Anglesey due for
>
> demolition.   G 5/3/1988; 17/7

This again proves that SMAs do not follow more highly individualistic patterns of behaviour than exponents of other classes do. At all events, there appears to be a considerable degree of restriction on cooccurrence of two or more SMAs in the same clause. For instance, the two adverbials in (62) are debarred from being adjacent

>   (62) *<u>Evidently</u> <u>carefully</u> John left the meeting.

It is debatable, as Jackendoff (1972:87) enquires, whether the types of constraints which are responsible for the non-occurrence of adverbials as in (62) are of a semantic or stylistic nature or perhaps partly both. Another constraint is that there can not be two SMAs of the same semantic class unless these adverbials are subject to different interpretations:

>   (63) *<u>Evidently</u> John <u>probably</u> leaves Mary at home.

>   (64) *<u>Usually</u> John <u>probably</u> leaves Mary at home.

In connection with the occurrence of two SMAs in a sentence Jacobson (1978a:87) considers both <u>probably</u> and <u>never</u> as SMAs and the order governing them must be that <u>probably</u> precedes <u>never</u>. His examples are here repeated as (65) and (66)

>   (65) Your brother <u>probably</u> <u>never</u> saw it.

>   (66) *Your brother <u>never</u> <u>probably</u> saw it.

Jacobson (ibid:147) accounts for their fixed order by postulating that <u>probably</u>, according to his configuration tree, is generated above the finite tense predicate, while <u>never</u> is generated below it. The question of the acceptability of (65) but not (66) is that <u>never</u> in this context can be regarded, in normal environments, as VMA and not as SMA.[2] Its verb modification can be tested by two means: First it can

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[2]In Jacobson (1964:35) <u>never</u> is considered as verbal modifier.

serve as a proper response to a question introduced by How often ?

(67) How often did your brother see it? <u>Never</u>.

<u>Probably</u>, on the contrary, does not offer a good response to such a question:

(68) How often did your brother see it? *<u>probably</u>

Second is its propensity to appear, in normal intonational environments, after, not before, the auxiliary, if included. Such a test shows that <u>probably</u> is acceptably placed before the auxiliary. Below are illustrative examples:

(69a) He had <u>never</u> seen it.

(69b) ?He <u>never</u> had seen it.

(70a) He had <u>probably</u> seen it.

(70b) He <u>probably</u> had seen it.

Therefore, <u>probably</u> and <u>never</u> appear in this order according to the 'hierarchy' principle (see p84) where an adverbial of verb modification should follow, in initial and medial positions, that of sentence modification.

On the other hand, there are sentences where two SMAs appear in rather a fixed order and they cannot be permuted, e.g.

(71a) <u>Certainly</u> I would find a job and <u>possibly</u> I would enjoy it.

(71b) *<u>Possibly</u> I would find a job and <u>certainly</u> I would enjoy it.

The unacceptability of (71a) follows from its logical intension in that this sentence has two propositions which should come in serial relationship. This logical relationship necessitates that the certainty of the first proposition should precede the probability of the second. In other words, it is not sensible to consider a proposition as probable- uncertain- and simultaneously assume what follows to be a fact.

More such sentences, of which (72) is a representative,

can be found:

(72) John <u>wisely</u> spoke in the meeting <u>slowly</u>

(73) *John <u>slowly</u> spoke in the meeting, <u>wisely</u>

(72) states that John was wise in that the rate at which he spoke in the meeting was slow. For (73), if one forces a reading on it, it will be the same as that given in (74)

(74) ?The rate at which John was wise in speaking in
     the meeting was slow.

Sometimes, a SMA functions in very much the same way as a CEMA; that is, operating only on one element. Classed as CEMA, it occupies medial position: a position immediately before the focused word

(75) A cure has now been found for this <u>unfortunately</u>
     very rare disease.

4.2.1 <u>SENTENCE-MODIFYING ADVERBIALS IN NEGATIVES</u>

In negative sentences, SMAs almost always stand at the same positions which are open for them in declaratives but with the corollary that they are normally outside the scope of negation of the clause they modify.

(76) The National Society for the Prevention of Cruelty
     to children said," <u>Clearly</u>, it is not something we
     would encourage."   DMr 4/3/1988; 3/6

(77) Captain Jim Bush ... said that of the 700
     incidents "<u>Probably</u> no more than a dozen were
     significant in that they resulted in the release
     of radioactive material."   G 3/3/1988; 1/2

(78) The Prince almost <u>certainly</u> did not know of the
     strings attached to it,... .   DM 4/3/1988; 23/6

(79) After she once fainted in his arms, Raymond
     Vignale told Elizabeth Taylor: "<u>Really</u>, I do not
     understand why you only won two Oscars".
                    DMr 2/3/1988; 17/1

So, the negation does not refer to the adverbial but rather to the predicate. The fact that (80) may be paraphrased as (81)

militates against the inclusion of SMAs in the scope of negation

> (80) Harry did not drink all the syrup, _fortunately_.

> (81) It is fortunate that Harry did not drink all the
>   syrup.

One further piece of evidence against adverbial negation here is that _fortunately_ could be removed with no change in the sentence negation:

> (82) Harry did not drink all the syrup.

Medial position provides another piece of evidence of exclusion of SMAs from the scope of negation: they cannot be the focus of negation. Such evidence, deduced from citation of the newspapers, proves that most SMAs, with the exception of a few like _necessarily_, _generally_, should precede the negative particle, e.g.[3]

> (83) "I _simply_ cannot see where this is to get to".
>
> > G 4/3/1988; 22/3

> (84) But the report on fear of crime says that the true
>   picture is _actually_ not so sad, and implies that
>   some one of the fear may be irrational.
>
> > DM 1/3/1988; 1/1

> (85) But if for any reason someone is _temporarily_ not
>   in benefit that week, when payment does restart it
>   will be at the income support level, which is
>   lower than supplementary benefit. G 8/3/1988; 5/4

> (86) What do you do ? sure: teach people that if they
>   cannot afford to buy something now they most
>   _certainly_ cannot afford to pay interest rates of
>   30 per cent to pay for it, but that takes time.
>
> > G 3/3/1988; 14/1

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[3]One has to be careful when tries to make any generalisations about adverbials owing to the complex interplay of diverse factors of influence that govern the position choice. The influence of these factors may prompt an adverbial to contravene its class members.

(87) The minister leapt up and suggested that Mr
     Campbell-Savours, as a member with robust views,
     would <u>surely</u> not want to circumscribe others their
     right to robust opinions, too.   G 4/3/1988; 6/8

(88) Mr Simpson had argued that, although there had
     been a deception, "dishonesty did not <u>necessarily</u>
     follow deception".   G 5/3/1988; 3/8

(89) ...that he allowed Glover total access to Flood
     Street, but stating that in this new organisation
     Blashford-Snell would not <u>necessarily</u> have a lead
     executive position.   DM 4/3/1988; 23/3

(90) I <u>certainly</u> do not agree with you

Surrounded by commas, these adverbials have the nature of an
afterthought which affirms, not denies, the certainty of what
is stated. They are still outside the scope of 'not', (91)
serves as an example

(91) I do not, <u>certainly</u>, agree with you.

It is worth noting that some SMAs but not all can have
corresponding negative adverbials and then be negated
independently of their clause. They still assume the same
function, i.e. sentence modification

(92) <u>Not</u> <u>surprisingly</u>, these sentiments sound just
     like those of the sorcerer himself. Venables, in
     his first North London derby, is playing for
     pride.   DMr 5/3/1988; 26/5

(93) <u>Not</u> <u>surprisingly</u>, both the AA and the RAC are
     shying away from the suggestion that they
     should....   DM 7/3/1988; 6/9

(94) <u>Not</u> <u>unnaturally</u>, and according to Wagner-Martin,
     with some justification, she suspected infidelity.
                    G 4/3/1988; 22/3

(95) <u>Unfortunately</u>, the cargo appears to be almost
     worthless in commercial terms.   DM 7/3/1988; 23/2

(96) <u>Unfortunately</u>, he has arrived late

The negative meaning of (96), for example, falls on the adverbial and does not even verge on the meaning of the main clause. That is the proposition of his arrival late is asserted but the adverbial is negatively expressed in that the speaker considers the fact of arriving late is unfortunate (for certain reasons, perhaps they missed the train). On the other hand, a set of adverbials that cannot be negated independently can also be found. Examples of such adverbials are: possibly, probably, evidently, doubtfully, and the like.

(97) * Impossibly, he would come to the party.

(98) * I will reimburse his money, unevidently.

The reason why such adverbials reject the attached negative particle is a question for the semantics of the form itself.

The form of another sentence element viz. 'not' plays a part in determining the suitability of certain exponents of SMAs in negative sentences. To this end it was noted in chapter 2 (p25) that the form of 'not' contributes an influential factor on adverbial position. Of relevance here is a set of SMAs which attracts certain constraints related to the form of 'not'. Such adverbials as probably, obviously, certainly, cannot be placed between the auxiliary and the contracted form of 'not'. As an alternative, medial position is used instead.

(99) * He is certainly / obviously n't coming.

(100) * He will certainly / obviously n't come.

(101) He certainly / obviously isn't coming.

(102) He certainly / obviously won't come.

The anomaly of (99) and (100) disappears when 'not' has its full form:

(103) He is certainly / obviously not coming.

(104) He will certainly / obviously not come.

4.2.2 SENTENCE-MODIFYING ADVERBIALS IN INTERROGATIVES

The behaviour of SMAs in this area of syntax is a point of dispute among grammarians. Their treatments, though

slightly different, do not tackle the class as a whole but break it into subclasses and sometimes individualize it, thus handling some, but not all of, its members. To know the acceptability of members of this class in interrogatives, adverbialists divide them in terms of their inherent properties: their semantic implications. This section will in general focus on the major divisions, ignoring the individualistic behaviour as it is of no concern to this study. It is presumptuous to say that many exponents of this class do not sit comfortably in questions whereas others may easily do so but with reservations.[4] It was mentioned on p (81) that a neat line of demarcation between the two types of SMAs is necessary to see which type can appear comfortably in interrogative sentences. Most SMAs that express the speaker's attitude to what he is saying, his evaluation of it ('attitudinal adverbials'), may not appear in questions whatever their structure is, e.g.

(105) *Has he <u>fortunately</u> arrived on time ?

(106) *Did they <u>evidently</u> come to the venue?

(107) *They asked whether we <u>surprisingly</u> own such a house.

The incompatibility that accounts for the oddity of such adverbials with interrogatives is due to the fact that two asserted propositions are present and there do not exist the corresponding questions in which one proposition would be asserted and the other one questioned at the same time. However, Ernest (1983:405) provides an example like (108)

(108) What did they <u>evidently</u> buy?

which acts counter to the above observation. His justification is that (108) is not very bad as it is questioning only part of the proposition if it is presupposed that they bought something. This supports the assumptions made earlier about

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[4]This observation is confirmed when no examples of SMAs in interrogatives can be found in the three newspapers.

the idiosyncratic aspects of the adverbial category. Such idiosyncrasies led Bellert (1977), who gives a similar explanation for the appearance of sentential adverbials in questions, to distinguish between purely modal adverbials and those which are not purely modal. She (1977:344) comments on the nonoccurrence of purely modal adverbials in questions such as

(109) *Will they <u>certainly</u> come?

by saying "We do not ask questions and at the same time evaluate the truth, or degree of the truth, of the proposition that is being questioned". Again, in contradistinction to Bellert's example, Ernest (1984:419) provides an example the acceptability of which he can not account for. The example he has given is like (110)

(110) Will John <u>surely</u> finish his work earlier?

which seems to involve questioning the assertion that it is sure that John will finish his work earlier.

Now it is necessary to return to the other part of Bellert's division which involves 'not purely modal adverbials'. These adverbials can appear in questions. Bellert (1977:344) advances an account of their occurrence in such a sentence type: "They have an additional meaning component that could be described by means of a corresponding meaning postulate". She gives an example repeated here as (111)

(111) Has John <u>definitely</u> made up his mind?

in which <u>definitely</u> adds something to the proposition expressed in the sentence that the matter has not been definitely settled before.

However, it is plausible to revert to the second part of the dichotomy which embraces those exponents of SMAs that convey the speaker's comment on the style and form of what he is saying (style adverbials). Most of such adverbials may appear in questions but only in initial position

(112) <u>Frankly</u>, does she have this car ?

(113) *Does she <u>frankly</u> have this car ?

On the other hand, initial position is not comfortable for the other type of adverbial (modal adverbials). Schreiber (1971:88) thinks that modal adverbials, as sentential adverbials, can at least in some cases, occur in interrogatives but only in medial position. He asserts the occurrence of adverbials like <u>possibly</u> in questions with the idea that these adverbials are themselves being questioned. This is clear in (114)

(114) Is he <u>possibly</u> a scholar?

which underlies a sentence like

(115) Is it possible that he is a scholar?

Quirk et al (1985:628) and Greenbaum (1969:115) see the acceptability of those adverbials classed as not purely modal adverbials by Schreiber as marginal. Yet, they exclude certain items (basically, essentially, fundamentally, ideally) and accept them in interrogatives, even sentence initially.

The above discussion gives further evidence for the diverse behaviour of the adverbial class. The heterogeneity of its members has led grammarians to hold dissimilar, sometimes paradoxical, attitudes, which eventually make it hard to have a unified class.

4.2.3 <u>SENTENCE-MODIFYING ADVERBIALS IN IMPERATIVES</u>

The same semantic dichotomy that was used in the previous section (with interrogatives) is relevant to the acceptability of SMAs in imperatives. That is, attitudinal adverbials do not come with imperatives, e.g.

(116) *<u>Fortunately</u>, / <u>Clearly</u>, do it at once, Jane.

whereas style adverbials can occur in imperatives, favouring initial position

(117) <u>Obviously</u>, lie about your weight.

In addition, modal adverbials are also incongruous with imperatives

(118) *<u>Possibly</u>, read the story.

All that can be said about the incompatibility of (116) and (118) is that their propositional content cannot be true or false.

To revert to the distinction mentioned on p (13) between the hortative and command types of imperative, it needs mentioning that most style adverbials occur more comfortably in the hortative than they do in the command[5]

    (119) <u>Frankly</u>, / <u>Confidentially</u>, be glad that we are
          leaving.

    (120) *<u>Frankly</u>, <u>Confidentially</u>, come down at once.

However, certain style adverbials used as response utterances are hardly excluded from the category of command, e.g.

    (121) What do you want me to do ? Briefly, go home.

4.3 CLAUSE-ELEMENT MODIFYING ADVERBIALS

It is the case that adverbials can be interpreted either in terms of the relation that they bear to the structure of the sentence as a whole or in terms of some sort of gradation of meaning correlated with gradation of position. This leads one to deduce that not all adverbials can appear with equal acceptability in all possible positions in a sentence. However, the divisions of class 11 into SUBMAs, AMAs, and VMAs will help to detect the right position (p73). Well-known examples suggest that SUBMAs take subject reference for granted and say something about the situation designated by the subject itself. Likewise AMAs specify the concept (usuality, obligation, probability, ability, inclination, or time) expressed by an auxiliary. In fact this subclass is such a closed one that its members frequently tend to have an idiosyncratic predilection for certain types of auxiliary. VMAs generally restrict the meaning of the verb referred to. Therefore, a VMA operates on a verb before that verb combines with any of the linguistically specified parts of the

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[5]See Schreiber (1971:340-41)

predicate.

Now, the following sentences need be considered to see what constituent is within the adverbial modification :

(122) She <u>carelessly</u> forgot our date

(123) They would <u>probably</u> reach London tonight

(124) I <u>entirely</u> disagree with your proposal

(122) asserts that forgetting the date constitutes evidence in itself of her carelessness. (123) indicates that the probability of reaching London tonight is expressed by the combination of the auxiliary 'would' and the adverbial <u>probably</u>. (124) can be interpreted as saying that the degree or extent of my disagreement is entire. These sentences will turn out to be rather odd or construed otherwise if their adverbials are dislodged from their present positions.

This line of investigation can be pursued further by analysing in turn the positions of these three subtypes of adverbial:

4.3.1. SUBJECT-MODIFYING ADVERBIALS:

The most natural position of this type is to the right of its head (the subject), e.g.

(125) ...that is, until Botham hypnotized him
yesterday. The trap was set with two fine legs,
and Siddons <u>obligingly</u> lobbed the ball up in the
air like a man in a trance.   G 3/3/1988; 17/4

(126) He finally forced her to leave the cottage at
knife-point in the family car, with police
<u>helplessly</u> standing by, then hijacked a police
car.   DM 1/3/1988; 3/1

(127) Samantha Fox <u>furiously</u> denied yesterday that he
had used her or tried to sell a story of their
romance.   DMr 2/3/1988; 7/4

(128) Eddie <u>readily</u> admitted that it was great to be
back.   DMr 2/3/1988; 11/3

(129) "The facts <u>clearly</u> suggest that the decision was a

political challenge and had nothing to do with our

society".   G 8/3/1988; 10/3

(130) I <u>sincerely</u> hope the next man can do as well for

him.   G 3/3/1988; 17/7

(131) Littlemore, of Abbey Lane, Southam, Warwickshire,

slashed David Bullas in the throat with the key,

severing an artery because she <u>wrongly</u> believed he

had taken another women home from a party.

DM 5/3/1988; 5/3

(132) Nicholas Coleridge, who is editor of the upper-

class glossy magazine, Harpers and Queen, does not

like the fashion folk. He <u>particularly</u> does not

like foreign folk... .   G 3/3/1988; 21/1

This claim can be corroborated by considering the pair <u>you</u>

<u>cruelly</u> <u>hurt</u> <u>her</u> and * <u>you</u> <u>terribly</u> <u>hurt</u> <u>her</u>. The first is

possible because <u>cruelly</u> modifies 'you'. It might be said that

it stands between 'you' and 'hurt' and faces both ways; but

according to the present classification it only faces one way,

i.e. modifies 'you'. When classified as VMA, <u>cruelly</u> should be

positioned sentence-finally. <u>Terribly</u> in the second of the

pair makes less sense taken with 'you', and in order to make

the sentence sensible, it has to be proposed to final

position.

A few complications are introduced by the fact that a

SUBMA still maintains its force as subject modifier, though

its place is not directly to the right of its head. In this

respect the context provides a clear guide to the semantic

interpretation of such a type of adverbial. The adverbials in

(133-136) are subject modifiers though they are placed away

from their head; the subject

(133) Firemen watched <u>helplessly</u> as 12-year old Lee

Wilding dangled upside down from the 25,000-volt

lines.   DMr 5/3/1988; 5/4

(134) It certainly did little to capture the
imagination of either the players or the public
who for their part <u>wisely</u> opted for more
stimulating diversions like watching jelly set.

G 8/3/1988; 19/1

(135) The father would have <u>happily</u> died if that could
have saved his son' life.

(136) Women also <u>rightly</u> worry about the safety of the
minicabs.   G 8/3/1988; 20/6

The adverbial can even precede its head (the subject)

(137) Valerie is a new mum who has this phobia about
germs. <u>Obsessively</u>, she scrubs her newborn's
bottles until her hands are red-raw.

G 8/3/1988; 20/4

(138) <u>Triumphantly</u> he told a neighbour on the housing
estate. "You can tell Jarman that Chris did that.

DMr 2/3/1988; 1/3

(139) <u>Apologetically</u> the British diplomat waved a hand
at the tents in the compound. "Sorry, it does not
look a little like Butlins" he said.

In other contexts, the inherent properties of SUBMAs
predominate their favoured position and reject any other
interpretation.[6] For example, sentences (143), (144) and (145)
sound awkward as their adverbials are placed a bit farther
from their head:

(140) She <u>readily</u> promised to help.

(141) He <u>willingly</u> accepted such a menial job.

(142) They <u>foolishly</u> asserted his contention against
such a vital tradition.

(143) *She promised to help <u>readily</u>.

(144) *He accepted such a job <u>willingly</u>.

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[6]Chomsky (1986:83) alludes, through a discussion on the
concepts of subjacency and proper government, to an adverbial
positioned to the right of the subject as subject-oriented
adverb.

(145) *They asserted his contention against such a
      vital tradition <u>foolishly</u>.

Another piece of evidence supporting the above observation is
the type of verb. This factor is so influential that it helps
the adverbial in point occupy its ordinary position. Sentences
(146) (147), for example, would be unacceptable if any
intervening element stands between the adverbial and its head

(146) She <u>mistakenly</u> thought of what I have done.

(147) The boys <u>naively</u> believed the illusionist had
      really cut the lady in half.

(148) * She thought <u>mistakenly</u> of what I had done.

(149) *The boys believed <u>naively</u> that the illusionist
      had really cut the lady in half.[7]

Also, the semantics of the sentence constituents may suggest
which acceptable structure is likely. For instance, in certain
contexts, such semantics will debar the SUBMA from occurring
where an extra force is instrumental in causing the incident.
e.g.

(150) *The son <u>obstinately</u> was spanked by his father.

(151) *The old man would <u>anxiously</u> have fallen ill.

(152) *?The girl <u>reluctantly</u> was beaten by her
      boyfriend.

On the other hand, in the verb phrase class are included some
cases where the adverbial contains the idea of agent, as in
(153) where <u>rurally</u> can be said to mean "by representatives
from rural areas", and is accordingly classed as SUBMA:

(153) Colorado State legislature are <u>rurally</u> dominated.[8]

Two more examples cited by Jackendoff (1972: 82-83) harmonize
with the above description: in (154) the adverbial is palpably

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[7]This does not mean that adverbials like <u>naively</u> are
exclusively used as SUBMAs. They can, in other contexts,
appear as VPMAs, where the type of the verb plays a crucial
part.

[8]This example is taken from Jacobson (1978:54)

attributed to the subject of the sentence[9], while in (155) it is a VPMA qualifying the whole predicate <u>was</u> <u>seduced</u> <u>by</u> <u>Joe</u>

(154) Mary <u>intentionally</u> has been seduced by Joe.[10]

(155) Mary was seduced <u>intentionally</u> by Joe.

4.3.2 AUXILIARY-MODIFYING ADVERBIALS

Members of this class, though it is rather closed, are typically accommodated next to the finite auxiliary, usually after it. If there is more than one auxiliary, the adverbial will still generally occur after the first:

(156) The floor should <u>properly</u> be swept by you.

(157) If we choose between Europe and open sea, we should <u>always</u> choose open sea.

(158) Between now and 2020, on the latest demographic predictions and using 1980 as a base, that population will <u>barely</u> double but... .

G 8/3/1988; 38/1

(159) This can <u>easily</u> be explained.

(160) I cannot <u>now</u> make this week's assignation.

In (156) the obligation that is explicitly evaluated by <u>properly</u> is expressed by the auxiliary 'should' and not by the verb 'sweep'. The same applies to (157). <u>Barely</u> in (158) describes the probability of doubling as bare in that it lacks contents that could be or should be present. <u>Easily</u> and <u>now</u> in (159) and (160) characterise and evaluate what is expressed by 'can' and not the circumstances described by the sentence. These examples confirm again that their adverbials are syntactically marked to appear in the auxiliary range which in turn tend to intensify the words they operate on.

Many cases display the close relationship between the

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[9] The difference in acceptability of this sentence and that of sentence 8b (p79) is explained by the presence of the agent. This kind of contrast in their acceptability is confirmed by many native speakers.

[10] Jackendoff deliberately uses compound auxiliaries in order to preclude manner interpretation.

adverbial and the finite auxiliary which together affect the choice of position. The relationship with the auxiliary can involve time and this can be more or less influential on the tense of the clause, or it can involve modification of the semantic content of modal auxiliaries, especially the possibility or ability meanings of 'may' (might) and 'can' (could). In the first two of the following sentences 'precedence' is expressed by <u>readily</u> and <u>deliberately</u>; 'duration' is expressed by <u>safely</u> in the third. The adverbial in the fourth sentence works on the semantic content of 'may' and expresses it as possible

(161) We are <u>readily</u> serving you.

(162) Was Ann <u>deliberately</u> ill?.

(163) The operation is <u>safely</u> in progress.

(164) We may <u>possibly</u> play badminton this afternoon.

Other cases show that certain adverbials correlate with certain auxiliaries in a way that allows the adverbial to evaluate, characterize or focus what is expressed by the auxiliary. Adverbials like <u>easily</u>, <u>best</u>, <u>probably</u>, <u>possibly</u> commonly cooccur with such auxiliaries as 'can' (could), 'will' (would) in a position immediately after them. Other positions are precluded. This preclusion is due either to the factor of sentence construction or to that of sentence acceptability.

(165) Such work can <u>best</u> be done by you.

(166) I wonder if you can <u>possibly</u> lend me ten pounds.

(167) She would <u>probably</u> believe his story

4.3.3 VERB-MODIFYING ADVERBIALS

It is particularly to be noted that the type of verb plays a crucial role in determining the position for such kinds of adverbial. The adverbial that qualifies or intensifies the verb denotes, on the intensity scale or on a quantity scale, the degree of the process expressed by a dynamic verb or the state expressed by a stative verb. To

illustrate, the adverbials in (a) sentences show the degree of intensity towards a dynamic verb and a stative verb respectively. The (b) sentences manifest the degree of quantity, again with dynamic and stative verbs:

(168a) His proposal was <u>highly</u> recommended

(168b) I am not saying that your words have been <u>fully</u> understood

(169a) A negotiable instrument... cannot be <u>partially</u> endorsed

(169b) I do not <u>quite</u> know

(170a) Economic warfare has <u>clearly</u> failed and it is time gentle persuasion was given a chance.

(170b) We are very good friends, even if we are on opposite sides for this game, but I <u>firmly</u> believe we can both challenge the league domination of Merseyside in the next few years.

DMr 5/3/1988; 26/4

Sometimes, degree is mixed with a locative force as in (171-174) where <u>universally</u> and <u>publicly</u> can be paraphrased as 'all over the world' and 'in public place'

(171) ...the only significant contemporary opera which has been <u>universally</u> accepted.

(172) Earlier Prince Andrew had <u>publicly</u> declared his love for Fergie.   DMr 1/3; 7/4

(173) The figures are <u>universally</u> taken to be the work of the Government, not the 48 million Bangladeshi voters.   G 5/3/1988; 8/6

(174) The Duchess once <u>publicly</u> humiliated the Duke by having an affair with a wealthy bisexual.

DMr 7/3/1988; 9/4

It can be still claimed that the type of verb is decisive and helps to remove any ambiguity which may arise from a certain position. In (175)

(175) Bill <u>fatally</u> wounded Sheila

it is clear that Bill's action in wounding Sheila caused her
to die. It is of course Sheila who dies and this suggests that
fatally would have to be a modifier of the verb only. However,
there seem to be cases in which _fatally_ can be interpreted in
such a way that it is the subject who dies and hence modifies
it:

(176) Bill _fatally_ slided.

The above discussion vividly indicates that the position
immediately before the verb is the optimum one for such types
of adverbial. They may be found after the verb:

(177) The negotiations were now about to start
      seriously.   G 2/3/1988; 1/6

(178) There is, though, evidence of a change of heat in
      the Kremlin. Soviet Sentiment has shifted
      sufficiently for the current British proposal....
                                        G 2/3/1988; 18/8

(179) Some safety features can be dispensed with
      precisely because at sea there is no danger to
      the public.   G 3/3/1988; 1/2

(180) Mr Read then told him: The evidence you have just
      given does not appear, with respect, to match
      entirely with the evidence you gave before.
                                        G 3/3/1988; 2/5

VMAs augmenting the verb meaning favour a position after
the verb, especially when it is not followed by a complement.
They are occasionally placed before their head. In both
possibilities 'manner' and 'space' specification are involved,
e.g.

(181) They served _calmly_.

(182) Arther Scargill suffered a crushing blow to his
      authority last night when the miners voted
      overwhelmingly to end their five month overtime
      ban.   DM 7/3/1988; 2/1

(183) Prices vary _considerably_ in different parts

of this country.

(184) Jailing the man for 18 months, Mr Justice Rougier
said: A girl is entitled to dress <u>attractively</u>,
or even <u>provocatively</u>, and be friendly to casual
acquaintances and still say NO at the end of the
evening without being brutally assaulted.

DMr 4/3/1988; 7/3

(185) ... he is the perfect ringer for John Dawes,
captain and centre, who also <u>softly</u>, <u>softly</u> and
<u>stealthily</u> set up all the tidy options for his
crack troops.   G 5/3/1988; 15/6

(186) Police have always believed the rapist lives
<u>locally</u>, within a square-mile radius bound by
Holland Park Avenue and Lancaster Road.

DM 2/3/1988; 5/4

(187) We wish to apologize <u>unreservedly</u> for any
distress caused to Mr Lewis by the article.

G 3/3/1988; 6/3

(188) They had found each other at a party and used to
meet <u>secretly</u> at her flat in Kensington.

DM 8/3/1988; 3/6

(189) The literature differs <u>greatly</u> in what it
defines.

(190) Opinions about the merits of the five majors
differ <u>markedly</u>.   G 3/3/1988; 13/5

(191) I <u>always</u> encourage people to be smoking when they
join the course; said Gillian. DM 8/3/1988; 13/2

(192) Soutter, who comes from Cirencester and is ranked
no. 5 in the world, played <u>brilliantly</u> to score a
9-3, 9-4, 9-3 victory in 70 minutes.

G 8/3/1988; 17/1

(193) Anzio Platoon are still getting up <u>early</u> and
<u>zestfully</u>.   G 5/8/1988; 19/8

The question may be asked: Is the choice between these two

positions perplexing? The answer to a certain extent is 'yes'. The choice here is not a question of the grammaticality of the sentence but rather a matter of its acceptability.[11] A contrast between the two sets of sentences that have exemplified the two choices of position would work as a checkpoint. The new positions in the following sentences either render the sentences rather clumsy or give them a new interpretation. As representatives, the first and the third examples of each set are chosen:

(194) ?This proposal was recommended <u>highly</u>

(195) A negotiable instrument...can not be endorsed <u>partially</u>.

(196) They calmly served.

(197) ?Prices <u>considerably</u> vary in different parts of this country.

In sentences containing a compound auxiliary, VMAs, especially with the intensification force, tend to occupy post-auxiliary mid- position.

(198) The results of the Mexican debt scheme were being <u>closely</u> watched by Latin America's two other largest debtor countries, Argentina and Brazil, which... .   G 5/3/1988; 11/8

(199) Mr Robin Cook, the shadow social services secretary, said the Act had been <u>politically</u> manipulated to hit hardest the millions of people worst off in Britain.   G 4/3/1988; 6/1

(200) He has convinced himself that he is being <u>grossly</u> victimised by a handful of insignificant countries.   G 1/3/1988; 7/4

By contrast, pre-auxiliary mid-position is rare and seems to be restricted to sentence modification:

(201)*He <u>completely</u> has ignored my request.

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[11]For the distinction between grammaticality and acceptability see Chomsky (1965:11); Quirk (1966:61); Deese (1970:29-30).

(202) He <u>probably</u> has ignored my request.

A plausible justification is that a VMA, when it is in medial position, prefers a position next to its head- the main verb- (comitation principle). A simple test can be used to attest its suitability in this position; such a test comprises unstressed negative 'do'.

(203) He <u>probably/ entirely</u> agrees with you.

(204)*He <u>entirely</u> does not agree with you.

(205) He <u>probably</u> does not agree with you.

The same observation of sentence negation is recorded by Buysschaert (1982:107) and Jackendoff (1972:72-76). Unquestionably, the acceptability of this position (after the auxiliary) depends on the relative hierarchy of modification of the auxiliary and the adverbial concerned; so a sentence modifier may occur there, i.e. it ranks higher in the process of modification. If there are two auxiliaries, a VMA is more likely to appear after the second one than a SMA on the grounds that not all SMAs readily cooccur with all types of auxiliary. Thus, the position in (206) is more likely with <u>frequently</u> than with <u>probably</u>

(206a) She would have <u>frequently</u> travelled in search of happiness.

(206b)? She would have <u>probably</u> travelled in search of happiness.

4.4 VERB PHRASE-MODIFYING ADVERBIALS

Semantically, members of this class add something to the verbal phrase through the augmentation of its meaning and they thus operate on all the parts of the predicate. Positionally, most of them normally occupy final position:

(207) The tunes and arrangements complement this approach <u>perfectly</u>, so... . DM 7/3/1988; 24/3

(208) The Government yesterday set itself <u>firmly</u> to address the central civil right grievances of...
G 3/3/1988; 24/1

(209) Mike filled the bucket <u>fully</u>.

(210) I explained our stance <u>clearly</u>.

(211) The best way to cope with this problem is to make
sure you brush your teeth <u>thoroughly</u> every day.

(212) We have learned the lessons from Edinburgh - the
first city to run the games <u>commercially</u>.

DMr 2/3/1988; 16/3

From this one can conclude that the object of the verb
('complement', 'set', 'fill', 'explain', 'brush', 'run') must
be within the scope of the adverbial in these sentences, but
one cannot conclude that the subject must be within its scope.
Position before the verb is also possible for the exponents of
this class:

(213)...Mr Moore <u>promptly</u> rejected the compromise.

G 2/3/1988; 1/7

(214) She called the police, and bomb disposal experts
<u>quickly</u> defused the world war two grenade.

DMr 2/3/1988; 15/6

(215) He blocked up the raised end, and <u>systematically</u>
lifted the other end.   G 3/3/1988; 1/3

(216) "It does not represent <u>accurately</u> the way that
MPs <u>legitimately</u> carry out their duties:, he
protested.   G 3/3/1988; 6/8

In sentences containing an auxiliary, VPMAs stand between the
auxiliary and the main verb, including the auxiliary in their
modification

(217) "The merger-or-bust campaign has <u>tragically</u>
alienated over two thirds of our members", he
said.   G 3/3/1988; 14/2

(218) Lord Coulsfield said it had not been stated that
publication of any of the information in the book
would <u>directly</u> endanger national security.

G 3/3/1988; 2/3

(219) Earlier, the authorities had rounded up about 20

dissidents and <u>brutally</u> beaten up others invited

to a lunch organised by the British Foreign

Office.   DM 7/3/1988; 10/6

(220) In the first time that the government has ever

<u>publicly</u> confirmed the need to deploy troops to

maintain internal order,... G 2/3/1988; 20/1

If the auxiliary is compound, this type of adverbial is usually put after the second or after its final part or sometimes after the first:

(221) Mrs. Thatcher's initiatives to revitalize the

inner cities will be <u>widely</u> supported by industry

and commerce, but viewed sceptically by many

local authorities

(222) Such kind of claim would have been <u>hotly</u> denied

What counts as a possible adverbial position is not only the result of the intrinsic properties of the members of this category but also of questions of grammatical acceptability which inevitably become involved with questions of meaning. Thus, among members of class 111 there is a great variety of adverbials, especially those of time, position, and manner. More precisely, semantic roles and adverbial realization seem to converge to define the desired position. For instance, manner adverbials are normally realized by adverbial phrases derived from adjectives with (-ly) while adverbials relating to means are usually realized by prepositional phrases. When placed in final position, adverbials of manner usually precede those of means, and this proves that the longer the adverbial form the farther towards the end of the sentence it is placed, e.g.

(223) He rubbed his cheek <u>slowly with his finger.</u>

(224) We arrived at the oasis <u>safely by helicopter.</u>

Obviously, this order does not contrast with the orientation of the classification adopted in that the adverbials come according to the scale of size of modification (the

hierarchical principle) with the smaller stated before the larger.

To recapitulate, _slowly_ in (223) is a CEMA displaying the velocity of his rubbing while _with_ _his_ _finger_ is a VPMA showing the means by which the claim of rubbing his cheek has been fulfilled. It can then contain the whole predicate in its modification: _rubbed_ _his_ _cheek_ _slowly_.
Any departure from this order will render these sentences odd as in (225) below:

(225)? He rubbed his cheek _with_ _his_ _finger_ _slowly_

Manner adverbials precede also directional and locative specifications, e.g.

(226) She pulled him along a little _faster_ _towards_
Washington Square

(227) He gripped his pipe _tightly_ _between_ _his_ _teeth_

(228) The ferry drifted _dangerously_ _close_ _to_ _North_ _Sea_
oil _rigs_ _in_ _the_ _Bravo_ _field_ and narrowly missed
several of them before capsizing. G 5/3/1988; 1/3

(229) For a full 20 minutes, they filed _slowly_ _past_ _two_
openings _in_ _the_ _ship's_ _side_ where a priest and
nurses stood by, to toss their wreaths onto the
waves.   DM 7/3/1988; 2/6

As regards instrumental adverbials, they tend to appear last when other notions like manner or degree are considered, e.g.

(230) He opened it _with_ _great_ _care_ _with_ _this_
screwdriver.

Other adverbials of the same class but of different grammatical functions can cluster concurrently in final position. This applies more to locative and temporal adverbials. As to locatives, items denoting position normally follow those indicating direction:

(231) We played _around_ _in_ _the_ _park_.

The normal order of juxtaposed direction and position adverbials accords with the hierarchy principle. An adverbial

expressing a smaller unit usually comes before the one expressing a larger unit

   (232) I have been studying <u>at</u> <u>the</u> <u>School</u> <u>of</u> <u>Education</u>
         <u>in</u> <u>Leicester</u>.

   (233) They ran <u>down</u> <u>the</u> <u>hill</u> <u>to</u> <u>the</u> <u>city</u>.

Only the larger place (position, direction) can be transposed to sentence-initial position

   (232a) <u>In</u> <u>Leicester</u> I have been studying at <u>the</u> <u>School</u>
          <u>of</u> <u>Education</u>.

   (233a) <u>To</u> <u>the</u> <u>city</u> they ran <u>down</u> <u>the</u> <u>hill</u>.

Direction adverbials can appear in succession and in order: <u>from</u> <u>where</u>, <u>which</u> <u>way</u>, <u>where</u> to:

   (234) We cycled <u>from</u> <u>Bristol</u> <u>via</u> <u>Birmingham</u> <u>to</u>
         <u>Leicester</u>.

Final position is favoured by temporals which can represent different semantic notions. As such, they cooccur with each other and in order of precision. The more particular usually comes before the more general :

   (235) Mary played the piano <u>for</u> <u>a</u> <u>short</u> <u>time</u> <u>every</u>
         <u>other</u> <u>day</u> <u>last</u> <u>June</u>.

It also holds true of temporals that only the more general can be shifted to sentence initial position:

   (236) <u>Last</u> <u>June</u> Mary played the piano <u>for</u> <u>a</u> <u>short</u> <u>time</u>
         <u>every</u> <u>other</u> <u>day</u>.

On other hand, when adverbials of different semantic connotations are juxtaposed, their order alternates according to the type of the verb they come with.

   (237) They go <u>by</u> <u>car</u> <u>to</u> <u>the</u> <u>city</u> <u>centre</u> <u>every</u> <u>Saturday</u>.

   (238) The old lady placed her jewels <u>in</u> <u>a</u> <u>box</u> <u>secretly</u>
         <u>last</u> <u>night</u>.

   (239) The tornado lasted <u>for</u> <u>two</u> <u>days</u> <u>in</u> <u>the</u> <u>British</u>
         <u>Isles</u>.

Once more, the discussion reveals that the adverbial orderings in these sentences can conveniently be interpreted according

to the two principles: hierarchy and comitation.

It remains to say that adverbials functioning as obligatory clause elements always precede those which are considered as optional:

(240) She darted <u>into</u> <u>the</u> <u>room</u> <u>hurriedly</u>.

(241) My tutor drove <u>to</u> <u>Blackpool</u> <u>after</u> <u>midnight</u>.

(242) They sat <u>at</u> <u>the</u> <u>rear</u> <u>of</u> <u>the</u> <u>hall</u> <u>noisily</u>.

The foregoing sections have so far surveyed all the possible positions which different types of adverbial readily occupy. Apart from the mobility that these types of adverbial enjoy and apart from the few idiosyncrasies associated with different types of adverbial that were mentioned, there are many other special restrictions which a more complete discussion would take into account. It remains entirely possible that adverbials could be explained on a semantic basis. This complies with the premise specified earlier that one can easily imagine a semantic relation which could relate an adverbial to its verb. This type of relation, with other factors such as the realizational and the clause construction, operates to keep the adverbial in a restricted position. When this restriction on adverbial movement is violated, the sentence sounds unnatural: in sentence (243) <u>hard</u> and <u>at</u> <u>Leicester</u> are so incommutable that they sound awkward when juxtaposed in certain positions in a common environment.

(243a) He worked <u>hard</u> <u>at</u> <u>Leicester</u>.

(243b)*He worked <u>at</u> <u>Leicester</u> <u>hard</u>.

(243c) <u>At</u> <u>Leicester</u> he worked <u>hard</u>.

(243e)*<u>Hard</u> he worked <u>at</u> <u>Leicester</u>.

At first sight the difference may seem to be a contrast between manner: place, but such an analysis would be inconclusive since these two semantic representations are often used together. The same is true of (244) where <u>much</u> and <u>last</u> <u>week</u> display different positional behaviour:

(244a) She travelled <u>much</u> <u>last</u> <u>week</u>.

(244b)*She travelled <u>last</u> <u>week</u> <u>much</u>.

(244c) <u>Last</u> <u>week</u> she travelled <u>much.</u>

(244e)*<u>Much</u> she travelled <u>last</u> <u>week</u>.

The difference may therefore be ascribed to the different types of modification. This is in keeping with what is displayed in the two principles: 'hierarchy' and 'comitation'. The distinctions into types of modification are semantic since they show that the adverbials <u>hard</u> and <u>much</u> (when not modified) are placed close to their heads, i.e. after them. In the light of the above observation it has been found that many adverbials are more restrictive in their behaviour in that they are confined to a position before or after the modified word on which they are focused. It has been mentioned earlier that this study is not mainly concerned with the exemplification of the unique behaviour of individual adverbials, therefore no more space is devoted to such exposition.

4.5 CLASS 11 AND CLASS 111 IN NEGATIVES

Type and position of an adverbial determine to a certain extent whether the adverbial is involved in the process of negation. The type of an adverbial can also delineate the type of relationship held between the adverbial itself and the main clause. For present purposes, two main types of relationship can be identified: intrinsic and extrinsic. It can be said that those adverbials which display an extrinsic type of relationship are ruled out from the scope of negation. The types of adverbials that are intrinsically related to the clause they modify are inside the scope of negation of that clause. Therefore, adverbials that stand in initial position, as they are usually peripheral to the sentence, are outside the scope of negation, whereas almost all of those in final position are inside it. Many adverbials in medial position have both possibilities. Accordingly, adverbials classified in this study vary in their statuses towards the notion of

negation. Thus far it can be concluded that SMAs relate peripherally to the main structure of the sentence and hence they are outside the scope of negation.

As members of CEMAs, SUBMAs hold a neutral position when the sentences in which they occur are negated. Therefore, they can be regarded as superfluous. Wisely is taken as an instance of a SUBMA and its omission leaves the sentence negation intact.

(245) Jane wisely did not turn up in the meeting.

(245a) Jane did not turn up in the meeting.

All residual types of adverbial of class II and III are usually inside the scope of negation. This points to the fact that negation does not apply to the event expressed by the sentence but to the adverbial itself and thus denies its intension. With regards to position, they appear in the same places open for them in declaratives. Sentences (246a), (247a), (248a), and (249a) and their paraphrases (246b), (247b), (248b), and (249b) supply some cases in point:

(246a) I cannot immediately lift this up.

(246b) I can lift this up but not in the immediate instance.

(247a) She did not entirely/absolutely reject your idea.

(247b) She rejected your idea but not to an entire (absolute) extent.

(248a) He did not write the letter slowly.

(248b) He did write the letter but the rate of his writing was not slow.

(249a) He will not possibly become a doctor.

(249b) It is not possible for him to become a doctor

The behaviour of such adverbials in that they can not be positioned before the negative particle supports the conclusion that they are inside the scope of sentence negation:

(250a) * <u>Immediately</u>, I cannot lift this up.

(250b) ? I <u>immediately</u> cannot lift this up.

(251a) * <u>Slowly</u> he did not write the letter.

(251b) * He <u>slowly</u> did not write the letter.

(252) * She entirely/absolutely did not reject your idea.

(253) ? He <u>possibly</u> will not become a doctor.

Further sentences derived from the newspapers provide support to the above examples. Words that appear in italics indicate the type of the adverbial.

(254) That the IRA *cannot be defeated* <u>militarily</u> was "absolutely true".   G 3/3/1988; 21/2

(255) The postbag has not been <u>exactly</u> *overflowing* with messages imploring him to stay. G 3/3/1988; 23/3

(256) Raymond recalls a scene on an aeroplane: "It was a journey Elizabeth did not <u>really</u> *want* to make....   DMr 2/3/1988; 17/1

(257) He said the Government would publish a reply..." because it is clear you yourself have not <u>fully</u> *understood* the committee's recommendations."
          G 5/3; 4/5

(258) Yesterday Best's counsel, Mr Robin Simpson, QC, failed to persuade Lord Jane, Mr Justice Pill said that the trial judge *did not direct* the jury <u>properly</u>.   G 5/3/1988; 3/7

(259) The Geneva talks have been indirect with the Pakistani and Afghan delegations in separate rooms so that the Pakistanis *need not recognise them* <u>officially</u>.   G 5/3/1988; 8/6

(260) We are not <u>really</u> *getting* a fair deal- and this is borne out by the latest IBA report, which says... .   DMr 5/3/1988; 11/2

(261) Mr Simpson argued that, although Best had been "incredibly stupid", he *did not act* <u>dishonestly</u>

when he made.... .   G 5/3/1988; 3/8

(262) The Lord Justice.....said....that the Southwark
      Crown Court jury which last September found Best
      guilty of attempted deception by a 10 to 2
      majority *had not* surprisingly *decided* he had
      acted dishonestly.   G 5/3/1988; 3/7

(263) "It *does not represent* accurately *the way* that
      MPs legitimately carry out their duties", he
      protested.   G 3/3/1988; 6/8

(264) A former commander of the British Army in Ulster,
      General Sir James Glover, warned yesterday that
      the IRA could never be *defeated* militarily.

                                   DM 1/3/1988; 2/5

(265) The Army expects new arrivals to be homesick at
      first; it *does not* normally *let* them out until
      they have served either one month or two,
      depending on their age.   G 5/3/1988; 19/1

It has been noted that the negation of certain types of
adverbial, namely temporals and locatives, creates an
ambiguity. Sentence (266)

(266) He did not play the piano <u>for an hour</u>
can be interpreted as a- <u>that he did not play the piano and
the length of time of his restraint was an hour</u> or b- <u>that he
played the piano for a given period that was more or less than
an hour but was not one hour</u>. The second reading is suppressed
if the adverbial <u>for an hour</u> is preposed to initial position:

(267) <u>For an hour</u> he did not play the piano.
Likewise, sentence (268)

(268) My brother did not play chess <u>in the garden</u>
is open to alternative interpretation. It can mean either

(269a) My brother did play chess but not in the garden
or

(269b) He did not play chess but he played cards in the
       garden.

Ambiguities such as those exemplified in (266) and (268) can be alleviated phonologically. To achieve this, the adverbial is emphasized and consequently ruled out of the focus of negation:

(270) He did not play the piano FOR AN HOUR.

(271) My brother did not play chess IN THE GARDEN.

Adverbials, especially those of frequency, that mostly prefer medial position may precede or follow the clausal negative. Their oscillation toward negation emanates from their semantic properties which could determine their inclusion in the scope of negation:

(272a) He usually did not drink alcohol.

(272b) He did not usually drink alcohol.

(278a) He did not always drink alcohol.

(278b) * He always did not drink alcohol.

(279a) * He regularly does not visit us.

(279b) He does not regularly visit us.[12]

Now it is pertinent to consider adverbials like possibly which assume different functions according to their involvement in the scope of negation. In (280) it is an AMA with the meaning that their ability to finish the work on time is impossible, while in (281) it is a SMA in the sense that it is possible that they could not finish the work on time

(280) They cannot possibly finish the work on time.

(281) They possibly cannot finish the work on time.

To bring all this to a close this section concludes with a number of adverbials which imply negative meaning and are virtually restricted to medial position:

(282) Yet those who recognise schools and hospitals

rarely spare a thought as to how new facilities

will be reached... .   G 8/3/1988; 20/7

---

[12]For a full account of the propensity of such types of adverbials to precede or follow negation, see Quirk et al (1985:544-550)

(283) I have <u>never</u> seen a real kangaroo in my life.

(284) We can <u>scarcely</u> find a job in this city.

These adverbials can possibly be put in initial position and then they necessarily trigger subject-verb (auxiliary) inversion:

(285) <u>Never</u> have I seen a real kankroo in my life.

(286) <u>Scarcely</u> can we find a job in this city.

4.6 CLASS 11 AND 111 IN INTERROGATIVES

Most members of class 11 and 111, with the exception of most, if not all, SUBMAs can occur in interrogative sentences and almost in the same positions they readily occupy in declaratives:

(287) Did you <u>entirely</u> agree with her proposal?

(288) Should we <u>always</u> choose the same hotel?

(289) Has he drawn his brother's picture <u>ludicrously</u>?

(290) Can this new band of brothers compare to the one which <u>dramatically</u> painted the full face of little South Wales... ?   G 5/3/1988; 15/3

(291) Is a women entitled to dress <u>provocatively</u>?

DM 5/3/1988; 6/1

(292) But are we <u>really</u> to believe that they in California as ambassadors for British trade?

DM 2/3/1988; 6/2

4.7 CLASS 11 AND 111 IN IMPERATIVES

In imperatives, exponents of class 11 and 111 are less mobile in their occurrence. Thus many of them are unwieldy in this type of sentence structure. A representative example is

(293) * <u>Sadly</u> tell them about it.

Those which readily appear in imperatives favour only one position, i.e. initial. For instance, <u>Kindly</u> is restricted to initial position in both declarative and negative imperatives:

(294a) <u>Kindly</u> pass that plate.

(294b) * Pass that plate, <u>kindly</u>.

(294c) <u>Kindly</u> do not raise the TV sound.

(294d) * Do not raise the TV sound <u>kindly</u>.

Other adverbials with frequency interpretation like <u>usually</u>, <u>normally</u>, <u>regularly</u>, ...etc. do the same:

(295a) <u>Usually</u> sleep early.

(295b) * Sleep early <u>usually</u>.

(296a) <u>Normally</u> clean your teeth twice a day.

(296b) * Clean your teeth twice a day <u>normally</u>.

(297a) <u>Always</u> check your insurance policy thoroughly.

DMr 2/3/1988; 24/4

(297b) * Check <u>always</u> your insurance policy thoroughly.

Finally, the function of the adverbials classified in the above sections can be represented graphically. Figure 1 is taken to portray the function assumed by SMAs. The perpendicular A carries the adverbial function to the horizontal B C over which the main sentence spreads. This tallies with the premise that the function of SMAs falls on the whole sentence. The sentence <u>Fortunately, I found you in time</u> will serve as an example:

A

B ———————————————— C
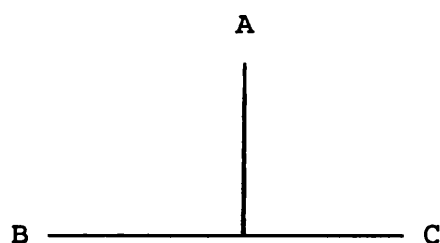
Figure 1

Fortunately

A

B ———————————————— C
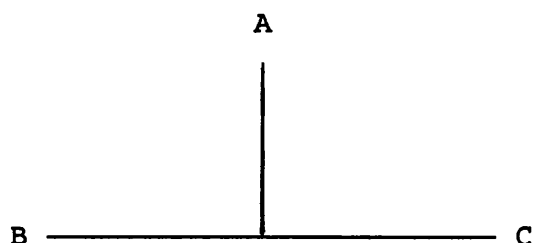
I found you in time

Figure 2

Figure

which is a right angled triangle, represents the function of other types of adverbial. The arrow alongside the hypotenuse carries the thrust of the adverbial towards the affected words. A distinction among the function of these adverbials can be made by changing the shape of the triangle - each will be in line with the area the adverbial operates on. An additional differentiation regarding the position of the arrow is made. The arrow which carries the thrust of SUBMAs will be alongside the lateral. The following four sentences, whose adverbials are mnemonics for members of SUBMAs, AMAs, VMAs, and VPMAs respectively, are attempted:

readily
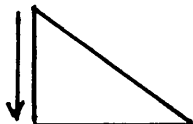
She   promised
       to help

now
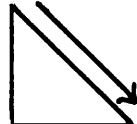
I make this   can
week's assignation

quite
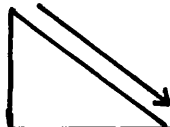
I do not   know

fully
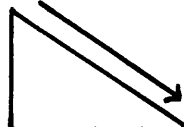
Mike   filled the bucket

4.8 ADVERBIALS COOCCUR CONCURRENTLY

The above discussion has considered the three classes of adverbial as a central point of reference and traced their variously distributed positions. From this survey of the adverbial category, it has emerged that a combination of two adverbials of the same class is possible but susceptible to conditions related to the properties of the adverbial concerned. The classification of adverbials given on (P80) may occur in clusters with a single head and then the ordering of them is governed by the two principles, i.e. 'hierarchy' and 'comitation'. So far the cooccurrence of two adverbials of the same class has been explored but adverbials of different classes can also collocate in one sentence. Since different adverbials (of different types) can fulfil the different functions, it is useful to see in what order they appear. In the past the tradition has been established that their successive order is determined by their semantic representations: manner, locative, frequency, time. Sometimes, manner and locative are switched depending on the type of verb. This rule, though it seems outwardly handy, is vitiated by a set of sentences which are considered stylistically poor. However, they follow its stated order. Native speakers are reluctant to accept adverbials as they appear in (298)[13]

(298) Bus drivers take people to New Jersey cheerfully
every night.

More acceptable is (299)

(299) Bus drivers cheerfully take people to New Jersey
every night

.

The contrast in acceptability between (298) and (299) might be accounted for by resorting to the manner of the classification: the adverbial cheerfully is urged back to its normal position immediately after the subject by forces

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[13]See section 5.4.4 chapter five.

pertinent to the precepts of the comitation principle. In other words, there is a direct 'geometric' parallelism between the subject and the coherently-related adverbial. The order of to New jersey and every night is explained by the 'hierarchy' principle.

The three classes (SMAs, CEMAs, VPMAs) will now be examined to see which order they come in. Members of these three classes can cluster in final position and they run as follows: CEMAs, VPMAs, and SMAs:

(300) Two members of the provisional IRA were killed
      instantly yesterday when the bomb they were
      loading on to a hijacked van....
                        G 1/3/1988; 1/3

(301) He has been training in secret in California for
      two months after the Japanese promoters insisted
      he got into shape.   DMr 3/3/1988; 38/1

(302) James Duthie and Jimmy Kirkwood, two of the 16
      players named this week for the Great British
      team to play in the Champions Trophy in Pakistan
      this month will miss the two unofficial
      internationals against Frane at Bisham Abbey this
      weekend.   G 5/3/1988; 15/7

(303) There is a wide spread perception in the Army
      that the standard of recruits has declined
      rapidly in the past 10 years. G 5/3/1988; 19/1

(304) He spoke tersely in the meeting unexpectedly.

The order in (300-304) is intended to satisfy the grammatical requirement that SMA be more peripheral than the other two, and the functional requirement that the smaller adverbial be stated before the larger in which it is placed. Therefore, the fact that unexpectedly, in (304) as an example, is higher in the hierarchy of modification than in the meeting may be suggested by the felicity of a- It was unexpected that he spoke tersely in the meeting when compared with b- It was in

the meeting that he spoke tersely unexpectedly.[14]

As for initial position, only the larger adverbial is placed there, e.g.

(305) Unexpectedly, he spoke tersely in the meeting.

(306) ? In the meeting he spoke tersely unexpectedly.
Generally, native speakers are not inclined to use a cluster of adverbials in initial position unless to avoid ambiguity or make an adverbial stand out more:

(307) Unexpectedly in the meeting he spoke tersely.

(308) ? Unexpectedly in the meeting tersely he spoke.
The matter is different for medial position. Medial position elements have the potentiality of being placed close to their heads. However, SMAs always precede other types:

(309) Lynsey, who has now fully recovered, said
       yesterday: it was the most frightening time of my
       life.   DM 5/3/1988;

(310) A Top Bank of England executive, Mr Rodney
       Galpin, is to take over the top job at the
       troubled Standard Chartered Bank whose group
       managing director, Mr Michael McWilliam,
       yesterday abruptly resigned and departed.
                          G 5/3/1988; 9/4

(311) Mr Locke said that the region had to acknowledge
       that its development programme- which previously
       created an over-supply of industrial
       accommodation- "can now never be sufficient.
                          G 8/3/1988; 15/1

(312) The bank probably was completely filled.
As was suggested at the beginning of this chapter cooccurrence of the adverbial forms is odd for stylistic reasons even if the larger one is prefaced to initial position:

(313) ? She attended the patient hourly daily.

---

[14]Such a hierarchical distinction lends support to the hierarchy principle

However, some examples which contain consecutive adverbials can be drawn from the newspapers. They are:

(314) The exception was a former butler, <u>apparently</u> <u>only</u> <u>marginally</u> less antique than the collection, who casually recalled seeing 'that Egyptian stuff' in a cupboard in 1936. DM 8/3/1988; 6/3

(315) On Sunday night Mrs Pickles was delighted to see that Volkswagen had returned to their earlier ad, <u>probably</u> <u>slightly</u> <u>nervously</u> since it was ....

G 1/3/1988; 3/7

(316) The Eagle's family were on the verge of pulling out of the prestige event after his girlfriend and her parents were left off the guest list, <u>apparently</u> <u>deliberately</u>.   DM 3/3/1988; 2/1

The above examples suggest that the acceptance of successive order of adverbials of similar realization is not exclusively attributed to their morphology but rather to their function and semantics. The adverbials <u>hourly</u> <u>daily</u> in (313) are queried because of their realization (both of two syllables) and their related semantics (time specification).
 Those adverbials in (314), (315) and (316) are of different meaning and different function (cf. <u>only</u> and <u>slightly</u> which imply a focusing process and a lower point of intensification respectively).

   In observing further cooccurrence restrictions it is noticed that SUBMAs follow SMAs but the reverse order does not work for any combination of these adverbials. This of course tallies with the hierarchy principle:

(317) <u>Probably</u> Jo <u>carefully</u> was climbing the walls of <u>the</u> <u>garden</u>.

(318) *? <u>Carefully</u> Jo <u>probably</u> was climbing the walls of <u>the</u> <u>garden</u>.

To test this claim, Jackendoff (1972) tries semantic embeddings explicitly represented in adjective paraphrases:

'It is probable that Jo was careful in climbing the walls', while the following is a spurious paraphrase of (318): Jo was careful (in its being probable) that she climbed the walls.

Reading through the examples given in this chapter shows that all these modifiers, with few exceptions, are optional, in the sense that they could be removed – and their sentences would still be syntactically and semantically well formed. These examples, most of which were elicited from the British newspapers and some from grammar books, could serve as attestation against the positions investigated in this chapter. Moreover, the next chapter will provide more empirical evidence of these positions in that it investigates whether British native speakers agree or reject what has been postulated in this chapter.

CHAPTER FIVE: ENGLISH QUESTIONNAIRE

5.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter principally examines the English native speakers' judgements over the acceptability of sentence variants with different adverbial positions. With awareness of the difficulty of getting a real consensus on many variants of these positions, it is quite practical to resort to native speakers' judgements which are generally judicious particularly in doubtful instances. Moreover these judgements can avoid any prejudice one tends to have towards orderly classification. Thus they can provide an objective method of assessing acceptability. These speculations form the mainstay of the questionnaire.

5.1 PILOT STUDY

The main task of conducting a pilot study is to make a questionnaire form approach its final shape in which it materially fulfils the purposes for which it has been originally designed, and to vindicate what objectives a researcher might envisage so that the whole research work will be on the right track. A pilot study may be considered as a 'healthy check' for a questionnaire where all irrelevant and vague statements are discarded. Furthermore, it paves the way for re-evaluation of the adopted procedure to surface what objectives are feasible and attainable:

> Only careful pilot work can show whether our selection of items adequately reflects the way in which [respondents think about the object]. Pilot work is also needed to ensure that we use terms that are like those the respondents use themselves and that have roughly similar meanings to most of them- and to us. Up to a point, the pilot work can also help us to interpret the 'level' of responses.
> (Oppenheim 1982:83)

The pilot study done for the current research benefited from the comments made by the respondents whose sampling, sharing the same characteristics of those intended for the main questionnaire, constituted the hallmark of the main study (questionnaire). These comments proposed the deletion of statements that might arouse aggressive or critical reaction on the part of the sample under investigation. Such a proposal was taken to render the final questionnaire more embracing. In the light of the pilot study, a questionnaire form was set in final draft.

5.2 DESIGN

As part of the research design different types of adverbial were distributed randomly in sentences of different types of construction. From this collection of sentences, an analysis was carried out to provide evidence for perceptions of the normal positions as well as of other possible positions of the different types of adverbial discussed earlier. Also under investigation was whether the people approached would be influenced in their judgement of acceptability by the order of adverbials when appearing co-ocurrently. Sentences were chosen to represent the classification of adverbials mentioned earlier. To recapitulate, adverbials were classified into three major classes: SMAs, CEMAs and VPMAs. The second class was further subdivided into: SUBMAs, AMAs and VMAs. Thus, they were tested on the basis of their function in a sentence as a whole or in part of it. Sentences of the present questionnaire provide fresh evidence as most of the sentences cited in the previous chapters were drawn either from grammar books or the three newspapers. The

justification for such a data-based analysis is that the investigator cannot totally rely on his own judgement concerning the acceptability of these grammatical structures.

5.3 METHOD

In the method of elicitation used the subjects were asked to respond to eighty sentence blocks each of which contained an average of five variants. In each variant a given item appeared in different positions within the same sentence environment. It is always possible that with a questionnaire of this type, respondents will fall into a pattern of answering items. For example, they may tend to choose the last mentioned item. To avoid this possibility a procedure of varying sentence ordering and of randomizing adverbial positions was followed. The subjects were informed that the questionnaire was part of a study, the primary concern of which was to identify the most natural adverbial positions. They were told that their instant reaction to the sentences should be first considered. They were also given the directions for using the checklist of items. That is, subjects were required to evaluate a sentence on a five point scale: normal (N); fairly normal (FN); rare (R); dubious (D); abnormal (AB). These variables were given numerical grades as follows: 1-1.5 = N ; 1.5-2.5 = FN ; 2.5-3.5 = R ; 3.5-4.5 = D ; 4.5-5 = AB. Example (1) will give an idea of what subjects were asked to do. They were given such variant forms as in (1) and requested to tick the box, corresponding to each variant, that represented their choice:

	N	FN	R	D	AB

(1.1) He <u>quite</u> forgot about her birthday. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

(1.2) <u>Quite</u> he forgot about her birthday. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

(1.3) He forgot <u>quite</u> about her birthday. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

(1.4) He forgot about her birthday <u>quite</u>. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

(1.5) He forgot about <u>quite</u> her birthday. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

The sentences were typed in a 20-page questionnaire. The questionnaire was split up into two parts to ensure that all items would be answered. Each part was responded to by one informant and the two parts were then paired and treated as one case. All the data were punched directly into the computer and the statistical information was derived from SPSS-X PACKAGE (N. H. Nie 1983).

5.4 INFORMANTS

The experiment took place in the course of the academic year of 1987-1988 at the School of Education in Leicester. The participants were one hundred British native speakers, educated to university standard. Eighty-six of them were undergoing PGCE courses (Postgraduate Certificate in Education). Five were doing M.A. courses in Applied Linguistics. One was a lecturer at Leicester University (School of Education). The remaining informants were school teachers. All the participants did the questionnaire voluntarily and freely in that they were given sufficient time throughout.

5.5 RESULTS

In some instances the respondents found a sentence quite unacceptable and even occasionally left a variant unmarked. The reason for this was probably that informants were unable

to decide which of the variants they would actually use. Furthermore, their response might have been influenced by what they thought was preferable. Their responses might also have been influenced by the different degrees of their perception of the adverbial investigated. This is clear in the scatter of responses over the scale. A more serious problem was that informants could not be expected to be completely free from the effects of fatigue or lapses of interest or the like. In spite of such effects, the response patterns are normally very clear. This is demonstrated in the tables to follow which provide evidence the results yield for different types of adverbial. These tables whose first row carries these abbreviations: PN= number of the adverbial position appearing in the sentence; N= normal; FN= fairly normal; R= rare; D= dubious; AB= abnormal; NR= no response, display the acceptability values with means. For the sake of brevity, sentence variants are condensed into one sentence and each position where the adverbial investigated could be inserted is given a number. The variants are indicated by these numbers.

The statistical examination of the data in these tables can be converted to a visual representation in the form of a scatterplot at the end of each section. All these scatterplots are amalgamated into a total one displaying all positions investigated. Unlike the tables, these scatterplots embody a much greater visual impact as they combine all positions concerned in a way which differentiates among the variables scaled.

5.5.1 SENTENCE-MODIFYING ADVERBIALS:

Effectively, the results illustrate that there is a high

level of agreement on the placement of SMAs. In declaratives, the majority of subjects confirm the assumptions made by this study that initial position is favoured by the exponents of SMAs. A glance at the following tables

TABLE 1

-<u>1</u>- John-<u>2</u>- will-<u>3</u>- come-<u>4</u>- to the party-<u>5</u>- (unfortunately)

PN	means	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	1.080	46	4				
2	2.020	21	17	4	6	2	
3	2.280	12	24	5	6	3	
4	3.820	4	4	9	13	20	
5	1.620	32	11	3	2	2	

TABLE 2

-<u>1</u>- Jim-<u>2</u>- has-<u>3</u>- arrived-<u>4</u>- on time-<u>5</u>- (surprisingly)

PN	means	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	1.040	48	2				
2	1.540	31	13	5		1	
3	1.560	32	12	3	2	1	
4	2.380	14	18	7	7	4	
5	1.918	24	12	8	3	2	1

which show the distribution of subjects' responses for unfortunately and surprisingly respectively indicates that the adverbial in

Unfortunately, John will come to the party

registered the acceptability value of 1.080. That is, as many as forty-six considered it normal, while only four saw it as fairly normal. Surprisingly in

<u>Surprisingly</u>, Jim has arrived on time

recorded a lower acceptability mean (1.040) for reasons
pertinent to the inherent properties of the adverbial
itself. The informants' consciousness of the idea expressed
by 'surprisingly' was a possible reason for the increase of
the scores which made it more acceptable in initial
position. The acceptability values of final position (1.620
for unfortunately; 1.918 for surprisingly) show that
respondents rated it as less frequent than initial position.
Though the difference is not so great, it would indicate
some polarisation in attitude rather than in behaviour. As
for medial position, subjects have not reacted similarly
towards all sentences. As might be expected, the adverbial
form, besides its properties, influences, to a certain
extent, the choices made by participants. The length of
adverbial (the number of syllables it carries) seems to have
had some effect: if an adverbial had more syllables
(unfortunately), this increased the acceptability mean.
These two adverbials may be taken as an example of a
disparity among subjects' responses.

In table 3

TABLE 3

$-\frac{1}{}$He $-\frac{2}{}$ is$-\frac{3}{}$ studying$-\frac{4}{}$ at home today$-\frac{5}{}$ (wisely)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	1.580	34	10	3	2	1	
2	3.320	8	10	9	4	19	
3	2.300	16	17	7	6	4	
4	3.940	2	6	7	13	22	
5	3.420	4	7	13	16	10	

subjects allowed sentence variants of <u>He</u> <u>is</u> <u>studying</u> <u>at</u> <u>home</u> <u>today</u> with <u>wisely</u> in initial and medial (after the auxiliary) positions as normal and fairly normal respectively; but they found the variants in which <u>wisely</u> is placed immediately after the verb or in final position as rare or dubious. Such rareness or dubiousness can be accounted for by semantic reasons by which the adverbial <u>wisely</u> has been rejected after the verb 'study' lest it should be interpreted as a manner adverbial. Little more than a third of the respondents (36%) who fully accepted the adverbial in medial position after the subject probably related it to subject-orientation.

5.5.1.1 <u>SENTENCE-MODIFYING ADVERBIALS IN NEGATIVE SENTENCES</u>:

According to the results, the acceptability values of SMAs in negative sentences oscillate to varying degrees. Some variants were given somewhat similar responses which can conveniently be displayed in tables (4) and (5)

TABLE 4

-1- We-2- do not-3- go-4- to bed-5- before midnight-6- (normally).

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	1.163	41	8				1
2	1.531	31	12	4		2	1
3	1.120	44	6				
4	3.720	5	3	11	13	18	
5	2.640	13	17	4	7	9	
6	1.800	24	18	3	4	1	

TABLE 5

$-\frac{1}{-}-$ I$-\frac{2}{-}-$ do not$-\frac{3}{-}-$ know$-\frac{4}{-}-$ what he wants$-\frac{5}{-}-$ (honestly)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	1.420	37	8	3	1	1	
2	1.240	41	8				1
3	1.840	23	17	6	3	1	
4	2.640	14	10	10	12	4	
5	2.260	18	13	10	6	3	

Responses to the sentence with usually are slightly different as displayed in table (6)

TABLE 6

$-\frac{1}{-}-$ He$-\frac{2}{-}-$ does not$-\frac{3}{-}-$ take medicine$-\frac{4}{-}-$ (usually)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	1.480	33	12	3	2		
2	1.740	26	15	6	2	1	
3	1.080	46	4				
4	1.800	25	15	6	3	1	

What is crucial here is the fluctuation of subjects' reactions towards sentences appearing in similar environments (with usually and normally). Actually, positions 1,2,3, and 4 of usually in table (6) closely correspond to positions 1,2,3, and 6 of normally in table (4). Positions 4 and 5 of table (4), which have no corresponding variants in table (6), record higher acceptability means bringing normally to the border of rareness or dubiousness, presumably because subjects wanted to preclude it being interpreted as a manner adverbial. Another possible reason is length of sentence: the fewer

constituents the sentence has the freer the adverbial is. The situation is a bit clearer for honestly in that the proportion of subjects who rejected it in position 4 (table 5) would suggest no strong semantic links specified between the verb 'know' and honestly

5.5.1.2 SENTENCE-MODIFYING ADVERBIALS IN INTERROGATIVES

As for SMAs in interrogative sentences, the following sentence

Frankly, does Sue know about it ?

conforms to the expectations set up in that style adverbials in interrogatives are acceptable only in initial position. Table 7 shows that the highest in acceptability is the variant with frankly in initial position. The proportion of the subjects (30%) who were of the opinion of the normality of position 5 is an example of the native speakers' perplexity towards the 'adverbial' category. They might be biased towards the preconception of the adverbial mobility or they, quite possibly, got bored with the questionnaire and consequently gave unreliable responses.

TABLE 7

$-\frac{1}{}-$ Does$-\frac{2}{}-$ Sue$-\frac{3}{}-$ know$-\frac{4}{}-$ about it$-\frac{5}{}-$? (frankly)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	1.735	29	11	4	3	2	1
2	4.700		1	4	4	41	
3	4.180	2	2	4	19	23	
4	4.367		1	7	14	27	1
5	3.592	5	10	3	13	18	1

As mentioned (p132) these positions occupied by the exponents of SMAs displayed over the foregoing tables are

plotted in scatterplot E1 (appendix 1).

This is a graph in which the axes represent values of the two variables (mean score and sentences of the tables), and each number of the position being investigated is represented by a cross whose position is defined by the values of the two variables. The crosses scattered along each column correspond to the number of the sentences of the table concerned and in the ascending order of acceptability. The higher the number of the mean score the less acceptable the item was for the respondents. For instance, the first column has the five variants of table 1 (p133) which are lined up in the order of acceptability. A line separating those positions which are fully acceptable (below 2.5) from those which are above the level of normality (2.5+) is drawn and labelled line of normality. This line stands as a demarcation between all normal positions and all queried positions, i.e. all those which were considered rare, dubious and abnormal. Thus, the line of normality in this plot indicates that the number of acceptable positions is 24 while the number of undesirable ones is 11. This refers to the positional freedom that adverbial positions enjoy, a fact which gives more than a choice to language users.

5.5.2 CLAUSE-ELEMENT MODIFYING ADVERBIALS

5.5.2.1 SUBJECT-MODIFYING ADVERBIALS: The results present a clear picture for the position of SUBMAs. They show that the position immediately after the subject is most preferable. Next in acceptability comes initial position; other positions range from being rare to abnormal. Tables 8, 9 and 10 record for each sentence the means and number of responses given to each position:

TABLE 8

-$\frac{1}{}$- We-$\frac{2}{}$- invite-$\frac{3}{}$- you-$\frac{4}{}$- to our party-$\frac{5}{}$- (cordially)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	2.480	12	17	11	5	5	
2	2.120	47	2			1	
3	4.520	2	1	2	9	36	
4	3.240	5	8	15	14	8	
5	3.940		5	11	16	18	

TABLE 9

-$\frac{1}{}$- They-$\frac{2}{}$- asked-$\frac{3}{}$- the manager to accept-$\frac{4}{}$- the

invitation-$\frac{5}{}$- (humbly)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	1.500	31	16	1	1	1	
2	1.160	42	8				
3	4.040		4	12	12	22	
4	4.220	3	1	7	10	29	
5	3.360	9	8	5	12	16	

TABLE 10

-$\frac{1}{}$- I-$\frac{2}{}$- have-$\frac{3}{}$- never-$\frac{4}{}$- been to New York-$\frac{5}{}$- (personally)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	1.200	43	5	1	1		
2	1.620	30	12	5	3		
3	2.120	20	14	9	4	3	
4	2.180	20	13	8	6	3	
5	2.060	21	16	6	3	4	

The split in the subjects' responses towards position 5 of table 9 confirms the fact that many adverbials show polysemy- they have multiple meaning. The seventeen informants who viewed position 5 favourably envisaged the

adverbial function as SUBMA or VMA. The means for sentence variants in table 10 reveal that subjects decided that personally in this context is a SUBMA. The slight differences exhibit a scale of descending means from position close to the subject to position farther from it. This, seemingly, signals that subjects felt that the closer position to the subject was a stage nearer acceptability.

5.5.2.2 **AUXILIARY-MODIFYING ADVERBIALS**: The results for sentences with AMAs show that subjects rightly chose the position to the right of the auxiliary, but they also found another position, namely final, fairly normal. Other medial positions, i.e. to the left of the auxiliary or immediately after the verb, as well as initial position, are far less acceptable. Tables 11 and 12 display the means and responses to positions occupied by always and scarcely

TABLE 11

-1- You will-2- find-3- my teacher in that room-4- (always)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	3.660	1	8	13	13	15	
2	1.000	50					
3	4.680		1	3	7	39	
4	2.480	10	22	6	8	4	

TABLE 12

-1- I-2- can-3- ignore-4- his views-5- (scarcely)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	4.340		3	5	14	28	
2	2.780	12	14	6	9	9	
3	1.040	48	2				
4	4.740			1	11	38	
5	4.700			4	7	39	

A comparison of tables 11 and 12 sheds light on the differences detected by the means for always and scarcely in that scarcely, not always, was disfavoured in all positions but one: after the auxiliary. This follows from its inherent properties which impose restrictions on its occurrence in the sentence. Among adverbials usually treated as having identical privilege of occurrence as scarcely are hardly, rarely, never, barely which are restricted, in common environments, to medial position: immediately after the auxiliary or before the main verb if no auxiliary is present. However, it has been found that some informants considered other positions, final for always and before the auxiliary for scarcely, as normal or fairly normal. The acceptability means for always in comparison with those of scarcely show that always scores relatively higher responses, presumably because always seems to be a common and frequently occurring adverbial. Acceptance of always and scarcely in positions other than their canonical ones proves to be a distinction between acceptability and grammaticality. An alternative explanation could be the psychological effect that doing a questionnaire may cause some informants to give random responses or poorly considered answers. Conceivably, if these items were presented singly to respondents, there would be unanimous agreement that pre-auxiliary positions are ungrammatical.

It was noted before that multiple function would influence the choice of position. This holds especially true for probably whose acceptability means show that subjects alternated their choices depending on an interpretation of

probably which matched the position it occupied. In table 13, which demonstrates the actual responses with their means for probably in a negative sentence,

TABLE 13

-_1_- This matter-_2_- would-_3_- not-_4_- have been-_5_- included-_6_- (probably)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	1.980	21	19	2	6	2	
2	1.340	36	11	3			
3	1.300	35	15				
4	2.694	6	17	16	6	4	1
5	4.380	1	1	4	16	28	
6	3.420	5	9	8	16	12	

it has been found that probably in initial position and in medial position, immediately after the subject, records lower scores of acceptability than it does in medial position, after the auxiliary.

5.5.2.3 VERB-MODIFYING ADVERBIALS: The results for sentences with VMAs illustrate the ease with which subjects specified which type of adverbial goes with which verb. The adverbial quite, as a representative of such adverbials, which is restricted to a position immediately before the main verb, registered as high a response as forty-six for normal position and only four responses were given to the position allocated as fairly normal. Table 14 shows the means and other values for each position :

TABLE 14

-_1_- He-_2_- forgot-_3_- about-_4_- her birthday-_5_- (quite)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	4.860			1	5	44	
2	1.100	46	4				
3	4.160	1	3	11	7	28	
4	4.960		1	3	1	45	
5	4.800			1		49	

Entirely of table 15 scores more positive responses for other positions:

TABLE 15

-_1_- I-_2_- agree-_3_- with-_4_- you-_5_- (entirely)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	3.720	2	6	13	12	17	
2	1.080	47	2		1		
3	1.760	27	15	2	5	1	
4	4.740	1		1	7	41	
5	1.060	47	3				

A look at table (14) and (15) warrants a contrast of the acceptability means of 4.160 and 4.800 for quite in positions 3 and 5 respectively with those of 1.760 and 1.060 for entirely in the same positions. The increase in the acceptability rate for entirely in those positions can only be ascribed to the possibility that entirely is less restrictive than quite and hence it could combine the function of manner and degree as well. Accordingly, it can be said that subjects might interpret it as a degree

adverbial in position 2 and as manner in positions 3 and 5. Other positions, namely 1 and 4 are regarded as dubious or abnormal.

As for VMAs which augment the verb meaning, the following sentences were included to check the validity of the positions offered to them in chapter (4). Subjects agreed, virtually unanimously, that most of these types gravitate to the end of the sentence, after the verb. The results for very hard and in Chicago are shown in tables 16 and 17 respectively:

TABLE 16

-1- They-2- were-3- looking-4- for a job-5- (very hard)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	4.469		1	5	13	30	1
2	4.720			3	8	39	
3	4.820			1	7	42	
4	1.320	37	10	3			
5	1.980	23	16	4	3	4	

TABLE 17

-1- He is-2- eager-3- to live-4- (in Chicago)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	4.160		3	11	11	25	
2	4.680			3	10	37	
3	4.780			3	5	42	
4	1.060	47	3				

The above tables give an indication that the two adverbials manifested sharp limitations in occurrence in such sentence environments. But, many speakers might see a considerable

difference in force between these two adverbials, particularly in Chicago, when they are used in other environments.

In sentences where two verbs are present, there is a clear preference for placing an adverbial close to the verb with which it forms a sound semantic collocate. The acceptability means for surgically and deliberately displayed in tables 18 and 19 yield evidence of this:

TABLE 18

-1- He-2- decided-3- to-4- treat-5- the patient-6- (surgically)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	4.120	3		9	14	24	
2	4.260		3	10	8	29	
3	4.020	2	7	8	4	29	
4	2.180	18	18	6	3	5	
5	3.878	2	5	12	8	22	1
6	1.340	36	11	3			

TABLE 19

-1- I-2- believe-3- you-4- did it-5- (deliberately)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	4.420		2	6	11	31	
2	4.080	5	2	5	9	28	1
3	4.660			5	7	38	
4	1.820	22	20	5	1	2	
5	1.040	48	2				

As was speculated, sentence structure is a contributory factor which has an effect on adverbial placement. Such an effect was tangible in sentences like that of table 20, as

the inclusion of the aspectual 'have' made the majority of subjects accept <u>resentfully</u> in the position before the verb where they possibly would have rejected it in the absence of 'have'. Table 20 shows the attitude subjects posed for the adverbial <u>resentfully</u>:

TABLE 20

-1- They-2- have-3- packed-4- their luggage-5-
(resentfully)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	2.540	11	20	5	9	5	
2	3.020	6	9	17	14	4	
3	1.600	30	12	6	2		
4	4.367		1	6	16	26	1
5	1.700	32	10	1	5	2	

With reference to CEMAs (VMAs) in negative sentences, subjects conform to what was hypothesized in chapter (4), that they only appear after the negative particle whether in medial or final position. This will be clearly shown in table 21:

TABLE 21

-1- I-2- do not-3- remember-4- its name-5- (completely)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	4.440	1	1	6	9	33	
2	3.780	9		7	11	23	
3	1.840	26	15	1	7	1	
4	3.540	4	9	9	12	16	
5	1.760	22	22	4		2	

For VMAs in imperatives, the results confirm that initial

position is the only acceptable one. Other positions are
either rare (position 4 of table 22) or dubious (position 3
of table 22) or abnormal (positions 2 and 3 of table 23).
Tables 22 and 23 provide an underpinning for the above
discussion.

TABLE 22

$-\frac{1}{-}-$ Carry$-\frac{2}{-}-$ out$-\frac{3}{-}-$ the instructions of the manager$-\frac{4}{-}-$
(always)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	1.080	46	4				
2	4.837			1	6	42	1
3	3.680	1	7	13	15	14	
4	2.531	13	11	13	10	2	1

TABLE 23

$-\frac{1}{-}-$ Leave$-\frac{2}{-}-$ the room$-\frac{3}{-}-$ (kindly)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	1.020	49	1				
2	4.800			3	4	43	
3	4.600		1	3	11	35	

The data for the aforementioned positions appear in
scatterplot E2 (appendix 1). It shows more obviously the way
in which the respondents viewed these positions. The line of
normality shows that the number of fully acceptable
positions (below the line) is less than that of disfavoured
positions. This indicates that members of CEMAs tend to be
placed near their head, relegating other positions, if
allowed, to the outskirts of the sentence. A further point
to bear in mind when considering the plot is that the
scatter of these marks does not necessarily mean that all
those which appear at the top are ungrammatical (tables 11

and 13), though many are. This might be a chunk of language whose propositional content was perceived as semantically anomalous or even merely unpleasant. In any event, their dubiety or abnormality are, presumably, due to factors of sentence construction, the respondent's attitude, the adverbial idiosyncrasies, or influence of other sentence constituents.

5.5.3 VERB PHRASE-MODIFYING ADVERBIALS

With respects to VPMAs, subjects agreed that final position is the favourite place for them. Initial position is less common while medial position is regarded as dubious or abnormal, especially when the adverbial refers to the time or place specification. Degrees of similarity as well as those of disparity in subjects' reactions to such adverbial positions, can be spotted. Tables 24, 25 and 26 display how subjects found positions for into the garage, at my house and outside in the sentences in which they occurred:

TABLE 24

$-\frac{1}{2}-$ He$-\frac{2}{2}-$ is$-\frac{3}{2}-$ driving$-\frac{4}{2}-$ his car$-\frac{5}{2}-$ (into the garage)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	3.780	2	4	15	11	18	
2	4.560		2	4	8	36	
3	4.840			2	4	44	
4	4.580	1	1	1	12	35	
5	1.000	50					

TABLE 25

-$\frac{1}{-}$- They-$\frac{2}{-}$- plan-$\frac{3}{-}$- a meeting-$\frac{4}{-}$- (at my house)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	2.600	9	17	12	9	3	
2	4.560	1		5	8	36	
3	4.220		3	9	12	26	
4	1.400	40	3	4	3		

TABLE 26

-$\frac{1}{-}$- I-$\frac{2}{-}$- only-$\frac{3}{-}$- like-$\frac{4}{-}$- fish-$\frac{5}{-}$- (outside)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	3.408	8	8	8	6	19	1
2	4.878				6	43	1
3	4.760			1	10	39	
4	4.429	2	3	2	7	35	1
5	1.860	29	9	6	2	4	

The similarity in the means demonstrated in the above tables can be accounted for by the fact that these adverbials exhibit certain restrictions which delimit their occurrence in the sentence. For instance, the adverbial into the garage denotes direction and therefore is naturally placed after the verb. Outside in this context accommodated in final position refers to the object of the sentence and thus receives information focus.[1] Final position was also favoured by at my house of table 25 where other positions range from being rare to being abnormal. It is worth noting that most of the subjects depended on their intuition and were conscious of such restrictions. Consequently they rejected almost all other positions but the acceptable ones.

In this connexion, subjects' reactions to co-occurrence restrictions are not always similar.

The results (means) for the sentence with <u>as</u> <u>well</u> show that subjects agreed that <u>as</u> <u>well</u> can only be found in final position, while the results for the sentence with <u>microscopically</u> show some evidence for allowing it in initial position. Tables (27) and (28) show the distribution of the means and other responses for <u>as</u> <u>well</u> and <u>microscopically</u> respectively:

TABLE 27

-[1]- They-[2]- broke-[3]- the dishes-[4]- (as well)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	4.200	1	3	9	9	28	
2	4.700			3	9	38	
3	4.500		4	3	7	36	
4	1.280	40	8		2		

TABLE 28

-[1]- He-[2]- examined-[3]- the specimen-[4]- (microscopically)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	2.280	19	13	4	13	1	
2	2.540	13	18	5	7	7	
3	3.500	3	8	14	11	14	
4	1.220	43	4	2	1		

The wider scatter of results in table 28 signifies the uncertainty that existed in the minds of informants over the acceptability of this kind of adverbial in the sentence in

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[1]See Quirk et al (1985: 498-500; 730-32).

which it appeared. The mean of 2.280 for <u>microscopically</u> in initial position constitutes a disruption of normal expectation.[2]

The acceptability means for sentences with temporal adverbials are not always alike. The results reveal that the adverbial itself was responsible for these differences in subjects' responses. Tables (29) and (30) give an idea of subjects' responses for <u>tonight</u> and <u>soon</u> which are found in common environments. <u>Tonight</u> in initial position registered higher scores than it did in final position presumably because the subjects wanted to emphasize the event of lecturing.

TABLE 29

-<u>1</u>- The professor-<u>2</u>- will-<u>3</u>- give-<u>4</u>- a lecture-<u>5</u>- (tonight)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	1.040	48	2				
2	3.460	3	8	14	13	12	
3	2.380	10	24	8	3	5	
4	4.120	1	3	10	11	25	
5	1.140	46	3			1	

TABLE 30

-<u>1</u>- She-<u>2</u>- will-<u>3</u>- leave-<u>4</u>- home-<u>5</u>- (soon)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	1.620	31	12	3	3	1	
2	3.100	9	7	15	8	11	
3	1.400	33	15	1	1		
4	4.940				2	48	
5	1.240	43	4	2		1	

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[2] See Quirk et al <u>(1972:465)</u>

It is not clear, however, why the sentence with <u>soon</u> should elicit so much lower ratings than the sentence with <u>tonight</u>. Perhaps, the difference lies in the fact that <u>tonight</u> is bisyllabic whereas <u>soon</u> is monosyllabic.[3]

A glance at table 31 shows that the adverbial <u>permanently</u> does not behave similarly to the two adverbials of tables 29 and 30. Its acceptability means show that final position is still the preferred position. Initial position is regarded as dubious and is preempted by medial position. The disproportion in the subjects' responses for these adverbials can stand as an example of the heterogeneous positional behaviour of adverbials.

TABLE 31

-<u>1</u>- The professor-<u>2</u>- has-<u>3</u>- his lunch-<u>4</u>- out-<u>5</u>-
(permanently)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	4.140	1	2	10	13	24	
2	1.700	32	9	3	4	2	
3	4.620	1		1	13	35	
4	3.880	3	5	9	11	22	
5	1.860	25	16	3	3	3	

Final position for VPMAs denoting manner or means interpretation is also unproblematic. Initial position is less frequent as it is occupied by some, not all, items of these types, whereas medial position is rare. However, it can be said that adverbials like <u>softly</u> run counter to the above observation as subjects found it normal in medial position.

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[3]It may be said that such inferences do not claim intuitive insights as the researcher works outside his native language.

This is again ascribed to the possibility of the influence of the realizational factor.[4]

The influence of this factor is discernible when the acceptability ratings for <u>softly</u> and those for <u>with</u> <u>the</u> <u>knife</u> are contrasted. It is worth mentioning that subjects were, on the one hand, virtually unanimous in identifying final position as the optimum one, on the other, they differed in their reactions towards the occurrence of these two adverbials in other positions. While they deprived the adverbial <u>with</u> <u>the</u> <u>knife</u> from being accommodated in any position but final, they allowed <u>softly</u> in most positions. Though these adverbials manifest different connotations, they have a common tendency to occupy final position: their canonical position. If placed in other positions, especially initial and after the subject, they would be far less grammatical. To this end, many subjects did not conform when they accepted <u>softly</u> in other positions. Such a paradox between subjects' noncompliance and what positions have been set up for this type of adverbial is reconciled by considering the differences between grammaticality and acceptability. Nonetheless, the contrast in subjects' responses is shown in the results displayed in tables 32 and 33:

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[4]See the observation which emerged from the comparison of tables (29) and (30).

TABLE 32

-1- Mary-2- is-3- cutting-4- the bread-5- (with the knife)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	2.600	12	13	13	7	5	
2	3.940	1	5	10	14	20	
3	3.940		6	11	13	20	
4	4.460		1	4	16	29	
5	1.000	50					

TABLE 33

-1- He-2- pushed-3- the button-4- (softly)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	1.240	41	7	1	1		
2	1.500	34	9	6		1	
3	4.220		3	12	6	29	
4	1.100	45	5				

In sentences where two items of place or time co-occur, there is a strong resemblance between subjects' attitudes towards the two. Subjects' responses conform to what the principle 'hierarchy' implies, i.e. that the shorter place or time relation precedes the longer in final position and only the larger one can appear in initial position. The order relation between these two types is displayed in tables 34, 35, 36 and 37. In these tables each variant of a sentence will be analysed individually.[5]

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[5] Greenbaum (1977b:95-98) arrived at a similar conclusion about the order relation of such types of adverbial when he compared the results of his frequency and acceptability experiments.

TABLE 34

The nurse attended the patient (hourly/each day) MEANS N FN R   D AB NR

	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
The nurse attended the patient each day hourly	2.380	15	15	10	6	4	
Hourly the nurse attended the patient each day	3.380	5	9	9	16	11	
The nurse attended the patient hourly each day	1.220	41	7	2			
Each day the nurse attended the patient hourly	1.400	36	9	4	1		
The nurse hourly each day attended the patient	3.878	1	7	6	18	17	1

TABLE 35

The match starts (on Friday / at three o'clock) MEANS N FN R   D   AB NR

	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
The match starts on Friday at three o'clock	1.380	38	9	1		2	
The match starts at three o'clock on Friday	1.020	49	1				
At three o'clock the match starts on Friday	3.480	3	6	19	8	14	
On Friday the match starts at three o'clock	1.440	33	14	2		1	
The match at three o'clock on Friday starts	4.840			1	6	43	

TABLE 36

I studied (in drama school / in Paris) Means N FN R   D   AB NR

	Means	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
I studied in drama school in Paris	1.920	28	10	3	6	3	
I studied in Paris in drama school	2.240	12	18	11	5	4	
In drama school I studied in Paris	4.220	1	2	7	15	25	
In Paris I studied in drama school	1.580	27	19	2	2		
I in drama school studied in Paris	4.680		1	2	9	38	

TABLE 37

The girls are running (upstairs / around) MEANS   N FN R   D   AB NR

	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
The girls are running around upstairs	1.080	46	4				
Around the girls are running upstairs	4.840		1		5	44	
The girls are running upstairs around	4.900				5	45	
Upstairs the girls are running around	1.800	27	13	6	1	3	
The girls are upstairs running around	1.939	29	9	2	3	6	1

From tables 34, 35 ,36, 37 a clear distinction emerges between the sentences assumed to have their adverbials in normal position and the others. This points to the existence

of a symmetrical relationship between the results for most sentences in these tables. The slight difference between the means of 1.220 and 1.020 for the order of the temporal adverbials <u>hourly</u> <u>each</u> <u>day</u> ; <u>at</u> <u>three</u> <u>o'clock</u> <u>on</u> <u>Friday</u> of tables 34 and 35 corresponds clearly to a similar difference between the means of 1.920 and 1.080 for the order of locative adverbials <u>in</u> <u>drama</u> <u>school</u> <u>in</u> <u>Paris</u> and <u>around</u> <u>upstairs</u> of tables 36 and 37. Likewise, the acceptability means of 1.400 and 1.440 for the variants of tables 34 and 35, where the larger time relation appeared sentence-initially, are quite close to those of 1.580 and 1.800 of tables 36 and 37 in which adverbials of place relation followed the same order. Other means reflect to far less acceptable sequences.

The results for VPMAs in negative sentences again support the hypotheses put forward in this study which stress that they should be placed after the negative particle, preferably at the end of the sentence. This is clearly displayed in tables (38) and (39) (where a return to the first manner of demonstration, where adverbial positions were given numbers, is applied)

TABLE 38

-1- John-2- did not-3- approach-4- Harry-5- (slowly)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	4.600		2	4	6	38	
2	4.580		2	4	7	37	
3	2.900	10	14	8	7	11	
4	4.860			1	5	44	
5	1.760	27	13	7	1	2	

TABLE 39

-_1_- I-_2_- have-_3_- not-_4_- spoken-_5_- to him-_6_- (today)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	2.360	14	18	8	6	4	
2	4.520	1		5	10	34	
3	4.360		1	10	9	30	
4	4.240	1	2	11	6	30	
5	3.900	1	6	11	11	21	
6	1.000	50					

The reason why as many subjects as fourteen considered initial position for today in table 39 as normal and eighteen saw it as fairly normal is perhaps because they wanted to lay more emphasis on the time specification which is expressed by the adverbial today. That is, it was today rather than on previous day, that I (the speaker) have not spoken to him.

The results for VPMAs in interrogatives show that subjects confirmed that final position is the most acceptable, while initial position is abnormal, and medial rare. This does not always work with all adverbials of this class. What is of interest here is that many times, not often, is rare in medial position, presumably because the realizational factor has had an effect on the choice. Tables 40 and 41 display how many times and often were seen.

TABLE 40

-_1_- Have you-_2_- been-_3_- drunk-_4_-? (many times)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	4.600	2		2	8	38	
2	4.060	1		15	13	21	
3	4.280		1	11	11	27	
4	1.020	49	1				

TABLE 41

_1_ Does_2_ your teacher_3_ sit_4_ there_5_? (often)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	4.520		2	4	10	34	
2	4.740			3	7	40	
3	1.160	44	5		1		
4	4.320	1		8	14	27	
5	1.100	45	5				

Scatterplot 3 (appendix 1) gives a clearer picture of which positions are normally occupied by members of VPMAs. It clearly shows clusters of these positions where one can easily infer that members of this class are not so mobile as to appear anywhere in the sentence. They rather cluster in the area of their head(s).

5.5.4 SUCCESSIVE ORDER OF CO-OCCURRENT ADVERBIALS

To give another illustration of the pattern of these results warrants a look at how subjects viewed the order of concurrent items of the three classes. It is noted that a considerable number of subjects were not quite comfortable when confronted with sentences containing more than two adverbials. This is well reflected in the wider scatter of results which signifies the uneasiness that subjects had in coping with sentences where adverbials cluster. Moreover, some of them evaded the problem by not responding to such items in the questionnaire. It seems that subjects were reluctant to accept more than two adverbials appearing successively in one sentence. The results have been scrutinized and confirm this phenomenon, which is clearly established in tables 42 and 43.

TABLE 42

The boys played (happily/outside/sometimes/yesterday) MEANS N FN R D AB NR

	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
The boys played <u>sometimes</u> <u>outside</u> <u>happily</u> <u>yesterday</u>	4.633		2	3	6	38	1
The boys played <u>outside</u> <u>happily</u> <u>sometimes</u> <u>yesterday</u>	3.521	5	8	7	13	15	2
The boys played <u>sometimes</u> <u>yesterday</u> <u>happily</u> <u>outside</u>	4.333	1	2	7	8	30	2
The boys played <u>happily</u> <u>outside</u> <u>sometimes</u> <u>yesterday</u>	3.146	6	13	8	10	11	2
The boys played <u>yesterday</u> <u>sometimes</u> <u>outside</u> <u>happily</u>	4.479	1		5	11	31	2

TABLE 43

In this table, space allows only means for these variants to be mentioned. Subjects' responses are distributed over table 43a.

MEANS

	MEANS
I was there <u>for</u> <u>a</u> <u>day</u> <u>or</u> <u>so</u> <u>three</u> <u>times</u> <u>during</u> <u>my</u> <u>childhood</u>	2.080
I was there <u>three</u> <u>times</u> <u>for</u> <u>a</u> <u>day</u> <u>or</u> <u>so</u> <u>during</u> <u>my</u> <u>childhood</u>	2.080
I was there <u>during</u> <u>my</u> <u>childhood</u> <u>three</u> <u>times</u> <u>for</u> <u>a</u> <u>day</u> <u>or</u> <u>so</u>	2.580
I was there <u>during</u> <u>my</u> <u>childhood</u> <u>for</u> <u>a</u> <u>day</u> <u>or</u> <u>so</u> <u>three</u> <u>times</u>	3.400
<u>For</u> <u>a</u> <u>day</u> <u>or</u> <u>so</u> I was there <u>three</u> <u>times</u> <u>during</u> <u>my</u> <u>childhood</u>	3.140

TABLE 43a

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	2.080	25	10	7	2	6	
2	2.080	19	17	9	1	4	
3	2.580	14	13	9	8	6	
4	3.400	3	11	12	11	13	
5	3.140	12	8	6	9	15	

Now a look at table (44)

TABLE 44

	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
She came <u>here</u> <u>last</u> <u>year</u> <u>regularly</u> <u>by</u> <u>car</u>	2.510	12	14	12	8	3	1
She <u>regularly</u> came <u>here</u> <u>by</u> <u>car</u> <u>last</u> <u>year</u>	1.449	37	6	3	2	1	1
She came <u>here</u> <u>by</u> <u>car</u> <u>regularly</u> <u>last</u> <u>year</u>	1.673	27	13	8	1	1	
She came <u>here</u> <u>regularly</u> <u>by</u> <u>car</u> <u>last</u> <u>year</u>	1.469	31	14	3	1		1
She came <u>here</u> <u>by</u> <u>car</u> <u>last</u> <u>year</u> <u>regularly</u>	2.980	11	9	10	8	10	

makes it worthy to contrast its variants with those of tables 42 and 43. It is especially noted that subjects found those of table (44) more acceptable. One possible reason is that these variants are more frequent. Another reason in favour of their higher frequency can be added ; it is euphony which helps to make them more acceptable.

Again, the results are in general agreement with previous observations. Subjects confirmed the order in which members of the three classes appear. They identified that SMAs should come first when cooccurring with members of CEMAs or VPMAs. Table 45 shows that evidently always precedes quickly and this order cannot be switched.
The table also shows that the adverbials investigated were found to be infelicitous when adjacent.

TABLE 45

	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
The boys quickly snatched the cake evidently	4.180	2	6	2	11	29	
The boys evidently snatched the cake quickly	1.280	42	5		3		
The boys evidently quickly snatched the cake	3.040	3	16	15	8	8	
The boys quickly evidently snatched the cake	4.640			2	14	34	
Quickly the boys snatched the cake evidently	4.340	1	3	6	8	32	
Evidently the boys snatched the cake quickly	1.320	38	10	1		1	

The results also illustrate that SMAs (the larger ones) appeared after CEMAs and VPMAs in final position when they all occur adjacently. However, their order may be reversed when they cluster in initial position, a case which subjects found far from acceptable. Table 46 displays both possibilities:

TABLE 46

	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
We shall move <u>in</u> <u>York</u> <u>into</u> <u>a</u> <u>new</u> <u>house</u>	4.367	1	1	4	16	27	1
We shall move <u>into</u> <u>a</u> <u>new</u> <u>house</u> <u>in</u> <u>York</u>	1.120	44	6				
<u>Into</u> <u>a</u> <u>new</u> <u>house</u> we shall move <u>in</u> <u>York</u>	4.480			7	12	31	
<u>In</u> <u>York</u> we shall move <u>into</u> <u>a</u> <u>new</u> <u>house</u>	1.680	33	9	2	3	3	
<u>Into</u> <u>a</u> <u>new</u> <u>house</u> <u>in</u> <u>York</u> we shall move	4.420			11	7	32	
<u>In</u> <u>York</u> <u>into</u> <u>a</u> <u>new</u> <u>house</u> we shall move	4.680			6	4	40	

To confirm what has been mentioned above, the results in table 47 holds the same hierarchal order for the three classes:

TABLE 47

	means
My father was working <u>in</u> <u>the</u> <u>garden</u> <u>the</u> <u>whole</u> <u>day</u> <u>quietly</u>	3.292
My father was working <u>quietly</u> <u>the</u> <u>whole</u> <u>day</u> <u>in</u> <u>the</u> <u>garden</u>	2.694
My father was working <u>quietly</u> <u>in</u> <u>the</u> <u>garden</u> <u>the</u> <u>whole</u> <u>day</u>	1.313
My father was working <u>in</u> <u>the</u> <u>garden</u> <u>quietly</u> <u>the</u> <u>whole</u> <u>day</u>	2.313
My father was working <u>the</u> <u>whole</u> <u>day</u> <u>quietly</u> <u>in</u> <u>the</u> <u>garden</u>	2.771

TABLE 47a

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	3.292	3	13	11	9	12	2
2	2.694	10	18	5	9	7	1
3	1.313	37	8	2	1	2	
4	2.313	12	21	5	8	2	2
5	2.771	9	14	11	7	7	2

A close look at the results of table 47 would suggest that subjects found the third variant more acceptable, probably because they perceived a greater semantic coherence between the verb 'work' and the adverbial <u>quietly</u>. It would also

suggest that the SMA the whole day ranked higher in the hierarchy of modification presumably because of its peripherality to the sentence structure.

In the area of cooccurrence restrictions, the results pinpoint the influence of the factor of verb type. This influence is paramount in defining the choice of position when a doubt is raised. A comparison of the results for sentences in table (48) with those of table (49), reveals that loudly, regarded here as VMA, precedes in the room, which operates as VPMA, presumably because of the verb 'read', while on the table comes before with care, again because of the verb 'put', which requires a place relation to follow. It is no surprise that these results coincide closely with the two principles of chapter four, i.e. 'comitation' and 'hierarchy':

TABLE 48

	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
He read the book loudly in the room	1.800	27	14	2	6	1	
He read the book in the room loudly	2.340	16	14	11	5	4	
Loudly in the room he read the book	3.720	1	3	17	17	12	
He loudly in the room read the book	4.460		1	7	10	32	
He in the room loudly read the book	4.740		1	3	4	42	

TABLE 49

	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
He put the glasses on the table with care	1.420	38	7	2	2	1	
He put the glasses with care on the table	2.620	14	12	10	7	7	
With care he put the glasses on the table	1.720	22	21	6	1		
On the table he put the glasses with care	3.940	1	3	11	18	17	
With care on the table he put the glasses	4.520		3	3	9	35	
On the table with care he put the glasses	4.280		3	7	13	27	

The uneasiness shown by the respondents towards the cluster of adverbials is clearly reflected in scatterplot 4. The line of normality shows that positions in one instance were all rejected (42), few were located under normality in the other instances.

A final remark needs to be made about the occurrence of adverbial phrases or clauses which are largely found in final position. Initial position is possible but medial is rare. Tables 50 and 51 display this:

TABLE 50

-$\frac{I}{}$- I-$\frac{2}{}$- will-$\frac{3}{}$- tell-$\frac{4}{}$- you-$\frac{5}{}$- the story-$\frac{6}{}$- (when I get home)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	1.140	43	7				
2	4.260	1	4	4	13	28	
3	3.340	2	8	19	13	8	
4	4.860			3	1	46	
5	3.660	6	7	5	12	20	
6	1.040	43	7				

TABLE 51

-$\frac{1}{}$- They-$\frac{2}{}$- followed-$\frac{3}{}$-him-$\frac{4}{}$- (wherever he went)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	1.300	40	7	2		1	
2	4.360	1	1	7	11	30	
3	4.980				1	49	
4	1.020	49	1				

5.6 CONCLUSION

This experiment involving one hundred British native speakers, though it captures the fact that the adverbial class is a unique category in being a disorderly area in syntax, indicates that it is not difficult to find a way of systematizing adverbial positions. This is evident in the results of the present questionnaire which confirm the validity of the functional classification of this study which led to the investigation. The results point less to a clear demarcation between acceptable and unacceptable than to a scale of acceptability. One of the examples which manifests this scale of acceptability is the sentence of table 30 whose means are here repeated in a descending order of acceptability. The lower mean corresponds to a more acceptable variant with a given position.

```
     1      2      3      4      5
    --- She--- will--- leave--- home--- (soon)
5 = 1.240 ; 3 = 1.400 ; 1 = 1.620
```

It would appear that the choice of adverbial positions is governed by a complex interplay of factors. These factors fall into two categories. The first incorporates centrifugal factors: medium, source, text category, idiosyncrasies, and stylistic province. The second type comprises centripetal factors of individual adverbial exponents, semantic interpretation of adverbials, syntactic structure, the impact of intonation, idiosyncratic predilection of the speaker, and realization.[6] Factors of the second type were discerned by the results of the questionnaire as

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[6]These factors were detailed in chapter two.

influential. Hence, they were assigned order of importance where the hegemony of adverbial type is striking (tables 4 , 6 , 7 , 8 , 9 , 10 , 11 , 12 , 14 , 18 , 19 , 21 , 27 , 30). Type of verb comes next in this order of importance (tables 3 , 5 , 15 , 16 , 17 , 24). Other factors such as realizational, clause type and the others vary in their relative importance (tables 1 ,2 , 13 , 20 , 22 , 26 , 28).

Despite this complexity the results reveal a considerable degree of compliance with the two principles of 'hierarchy' and 'comitation'. These results can usefully capture all the implications that follow from these two principles. No instances were found to violate these principles. More specifically, the 'comitation' principle is often operative in determining the distance between verbs and adverbials. In this respect, it is reasonable to assume that subjects opted for the verb first and the adverbial afterwards or perhaps both as a unit. A glance at tables 3 , 6 , 7 , 14 , 17 , 21 , endorses the collocational link between the adverbials and the associated verbs.

As so often in language, a high premium is placed on an elegant style. This coincides with what was displayed by the results: that where a large number of modifying adverbials clustered in any position the subjects were reluctant to accept them (compare tables 42 and 43 with 44 and 47).

A further point which is worth a closer look is that adverbials do not generally intervene between verbs and their following objects (tables 16 , 17 , 20 , 21 , 27 , 28 , 29 , 32 , 33). An illustration of the above point is the sentence of table 20 whose mean of 4.367 for the position

between the verb 'packed' and the following noun 'their luggage' indicated a high rejection rate.

*They have packed <u>resentfully</u> their luggage.

It may be concluded that this experiment worked satisfactorily as it pinpoints the positional behaviour of different types of adverbial in relation to each other and to other sentence elements. It thus reinforces the belief that adverbial placement in English is somewhat elastic. Finally, from the results of the questionnaire it is clear that adverbials can be placed along a continuum from the problematic to those which constitute no problem at all to the language user.

To represent this kind of continuum and the elasticity of adverbial placement graphically, scatterplots 5 and 6 which are cumulative displays of scatterplots 1, 2, 3, and 4 can be used to display all positions discussed throughout this chapter. At first glance, scatterplot 5 appears to be a mess of marks. However, a closer examination of the plot will reveal much information about the relationship of these marks. In fact it mirrors a conglomerate image of the nature of the adverbial class and how delicate it is. Its placement invites a host of opinions. The crosses, as in the other plots, spread widely and it would not be so easy to draw a straight line which can run through the middle of them in the hope of showing their linearity. To display such delicacy, scatterplot 6, in which the sentences are ranked by mean score, is used. The number running from 1 to 51 corresponds to the number of the tables distributed in this

chapter but with the difference that they are not in the same order. The new order of the tables was arranged, for statistical reasons, in line with the ascending order of acceptability.[7] That is, the diagram represents the range of acceptability from the most acceptable (on the left) to the least acceptable (on the right). In other words it starts with the most acceptable variants (1 corresponds to table 6) and ends up with those which were rare or abnormal on the scale (51 stands for table 42). Statistically, the means of the sentences of the tables were calculated into mean score. To elaborate, the curve which runs in monotonically increase starts with the mean score (1.525) of 1 (table 6) and finishes with (4.022) which is the mean score of 51 (table 42). The significance of the curve lies in its representation of fully acceptable positions (non problematic) to those which arouse native speakers' dissatisfaction (problematic).

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[7]See table 52, appendix 11 for matching new numbers of these tables with the ones used in this chapter.

CHAPTER SIX: PART ONE: ADVERBIALS IN ARABIC

6.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter is in two parts. The first gives a review of adverbial categorisations with the intent to demonstrate all language items with the function of adverbial. The second attempts to reclassify the adverbials investigated in part one and explore all positions open to such types of adverbial.

A careful investigation of the literature on Arabic syntax reveals that studies which have undertaken to examine the problem of the adverbial have been sparse. Where it has been considered, it has generally merited only a few sentences, and it is doubtful whether all mentions in the literature consulted would amount to more than a few pages. Such scantiness of references to adverbials is not surprising when we know that references to their placement have been non-existent. Thus, Arabic adverbials in general, and their positions in particular, have not been made the subject of an exhaustive investigation. This is one of the challenges that led to the present investigation of adverbial placement. This chapter will make use of the data provided by Arab grammarians as well as by Arabists for identifying adverbial positions. In addition a number of heuristic examples have been selected for the purposes of illustration together with a large body of citations elicited from the two newspapers and the Qur'an which are part of the corpus of this study.

6.1 THE TERM ADVERBIAL IN ARABIC

Orthodox Arab grammarians recognise only three parts of speech: noun ([madrasa] 'school', [walad] 'boy'); verb ([yaktubu] 'write', [dahaba] 'went') and particle ([min] 'from', [huna] 'here'). This tripartite division subsumes other items assuming different functions in relation to their normal positions in the sentence and to the diacritics they bear, which signifies case. Particles, for example, include

prepositions ([ila] 'to', [bayna] 'between'); adverbials ([huna] 'here', [qablu] 'before'); and conjunctions ([?anna] 'that', [li] 'in order that',...etc.).[1] It can be said that those grammarians do not classify adverbials as a separate part of speech, nor does any other Arab grammarian except a few who intend to modernize the early grammarians' division by incorporating it when they categorise certain items of adverbials as a discrete part of speech. [2] Generally speaking, according to many grammarians, Arabic has no real class of adverbials corresponding to the English ones. It is true that English far exceeds Arabic in type of words labelled as adverbials. But this does not mean that Arabic is incapable of expressing the wide spectrum of meanings and functions assumed by items equivalent to adverbials. On the contrary, Arabic allows a great deal of flexibility and pliability in expressing, with profundity and ease, most functions and meanings that adverbials yield.[3] In principle, adverbials, according to those grammarians, are mainly realised by single nominals, or what they call 'true' adverbials like [huna] 'here'; [?amsi] 'yesterday'; [faqaT] 'only'; and by nouns and adjectives in the accusative case on the grounds of the function they fulfil.

The prime discrepancy between these two types of realisation is that the first sort (true adverbs) have absolutely no inflections in that they never change their final vowel irrespective of how they are used in the sentence. Those nouns or adjectives used adverbially show inflections which mostly depend on their functions in the sentence. A

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[1] See Sibawaihi (1316:2); Ibn Hisham (1969:2-3); Ibn Aqil (1964:3).

[2] See Alsaaqi (1977:261)

[3] Ferguson, C. A. (1959:77) confirms Arabic pliability when he states "a real pride is felt in... and in the ability of Arabic to provide just the right word for any concept, abstract or concrete."

contrast between sentences (1,2) and (3,4) will highlight the
line of demarcation between these two types:

    (1) [waSala ^{C}aliyyun masaa?an.]

        ((Arrived Ali evening))

        'Ali arrived in the evening.'

    (2) [kaana masaa?an jamiilan.]

        ((Was evening beautiful))

        'It was a beautiful evening.'

    (3) [yatakalamu ?axi fi lhaatifi l?aana.]

        ((Speaking brother my on telephone now))

        'My brother is speaking on the telephone now.'

    (4) [l?aana waqta nnawmi.]

        ((Now time sleep))

        'Now it is bedtime.'

As is well known, Arabic is a highly inflected language
where grammatical relationships are expressed by changing the
internal structure of the words-typically by the use of the
inflectional endings which in turn express simultaneously
several grammatical meanings. Such case forms are important in
defining what function a sentence constituent has. What is
relevant here is the employment of case to authenticate the
invariability of the first type of adverbial realisation
mentioned above. More precisely, genitive case is assigned to
most Arabic words when preceded by a preposition involving a
change in their final vowel, usually [Damma] 'short vowel u',
into [kasra] 'short vowel i'. However, true adverbials, for
example [qablu] 'before', as Arab grammarians assert, retain
their final vowel even when preceded by a preposition. So we
get paradigm like

    (5) [^{C}aada zaydun min safarihi mubakkiran.]

        ((came back Zaid from journey his earlier))

        'Zaid came back from his journey earlier.'

    (6) [lillahi ?al?mru min qablu wa min ba^{C}du.]

        ((for God the command from before and from after))

'Allah's is the command before and after.'

(7) [sami^{C}tu lhikaayta min qablu.]

((heard I the tale from before))

'I heard the tale before.'

(8) [WaSala ?axi qabla Tuluu^{C}i ššammsi.]

((arrived he brother my before rise the sun))

'My brother arrived before sunrise.'

(9) [sayuǧaadir ?axi ba^{C}da yawmayni.]

((will leave brother my after two days))

'My brother will arrive after two days.'

To recapitulate, the term 'adverbial' in Arabic is the accusative which is called by Arab grammarians [?aZZarfu], literally 'the vessel' or [?almaf^{C}uulu fihi]. Arab grammarians term the adverbial 'the vessel' on account of its function: it encompasses the notion of time or place expressed by the action of the verb. Therefore, they recognise only two classes of adverbial: place and time.[4] They also describe it as [?almaf^{C}uulu fihi] because the noun is the object of the explicit or, sometimes, implicit preposition [fi] 'in', otherwise it is an ordinary noun.[5] Sentences (10) and (12) show the contrast between the two uses. In (10)

(10) [banaytu ddaara]

((built I the house))

'I built the house'

[ddaara] 'the house' is undoubtedly a noun since it is the object of the verb, that is, it is not acceptable to say:

(11) ?[banaytu fi dddaari.]

((built I in the house))

?'I built in the house.'

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[4] See al-Labadi M.S.N. (1980:142).
It is the paramount contribution of this study to establish other various adverbial classes: to find as many language items conveying the meanings and functions of adverbials as possible.

[5] See Ibn Aqil (1964:587); Al-Ghalaayiini (1972,part 3:44)

In (12)

    (12) [sakantu ddaara.]

       ((lived in the house))

       'I lived in the house.'

it is an adverbial (a locative adverbial) since it is not the object of the verb [sakana] 'live', but the object of a covert preposition [fii] 'in'. Thus, the sentence would sound quite acceptable if a preposition is used overtly as in (13)

    (13) [sakantu fi ddaari.]

       ((lived I in the house))

       'I lived in the house.'

In this respect, Arab grammarians specify the verbs that behave similarly to [sakana] 'dwell; live' which contribute to render the meaning of adverbial. Such verbs are [nazala] 'dwell, lodge' [daxala] 'enter'; [dahaba] 'go'. [6]

It can be concluded from the above discussion that Arab grammarians stress that the adverbial should imply the preposition [fi]. They distinguish between two kinds of nouns, that of time and that of place, which do not always fall in the realm of adverbial. They cite examples like

    (14) [?inna naxaafu min rabina yawman qamTariira.]

                                Q:al'nsaan;10

      'Indeed we fear from our Lord an excessively

       gloomy day.'

    (15) [llaahu ya^{C}lamu haytu yaj^{C}al risaalatahu.]

      'Allah knows where HE reveals his message.'

where [yawman] 'day' and [haytu] function as the object of the sentence because they could not imply the preposition [fi] 'in' and more importantly they do not conceive the action of the verb. Therefore, Arab grammarians categorise these nouns as the object of the sentence. This suggests that sentence (14) indicates that they are afraid of the day itself and does

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[6]See al-Razi (686 H.: 186)

not in any way mean that their fear occurs in that day. The
semantics of (15) does not imply that revelation of his
message was delivered in that place but it implies that God
Himself knows the right place where his message is to be
revealed.[7]

The insistence on the implication of the preposition [fi]
also manifests itself in early Arab grammarians' rejection of
locatives in (16) and (17) as adverbials

> (16) [tawajjahtu makkata]
>
> > ((went towards I Mecca))
> >
> > 'I went towards Mecca'
>
> (17) [dahabtu ššaama]
>
> > ((went I Syria]
> >
> > 'I went to Syria'

on the basis that these definite place names, as they call
them, disallow the inclusion of the preposition [fi]
consecutively.[8] If these verbs of (16) and (17) cooccur with
other locatives, the inclusion of the preposition [fi] is
mandatory. That is why sentences (18) and (20) sound
completely meaningful whereas (19) and (21) do not

> (18) [tawajjahtu ila lsuuqi]
>
> > ((went towards I to the market))
> >
> > 'I went towards the market'
>
> (19) * [tawajjahtu ssuuqa]
>
> (20) [dahabtu ila nnahri]
>
> > ((went I to the river))
> >
> > 'I went to the river'
>
> (21) * [dahabtu nnahra]

A counter view is demonstrated by Hasan (1968, part 11:154-55)
who sees the locatives used in (16) and (17) as adverbials.

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[7] See Abdu'llah, A. (1983:68-69)

[8] Ibn Aqil (1964:579).
It is worth mentioning that such examples are very few and
idiomatically used, usually in classical Arabic.

Such a view is applauded by the researcher since these 'nouns' can convey the sense of adverbiality: they clearly designate the place where the action takes place.

6.2 MORPHOLOGICAL AND SEMANTIC CRITERIA (MARKERS)

It behoves this study to set out the criteria whereby language items functioning as adverbials are distinguished. These criteria deploy morphological as well as semantic devices to identify various adverbial classes.[9] These newly-defined adverbials are ultimately classified on the basis of the function they perform.[10]

What follows are the most common types of realisation:

1. The chief means employed is a noun or an adjective in the accusative and with nunation. Such nouns and adjectives are categorised on the basis of their semantic implications. True, semantics is an elusive criterion whose basis is often misleading, but it is inevitably involved in the delineation of adverbial classifications, which divide into the following types:

a. words like [faj?atan] 'suddenly'; [^{c}amdan] 'deliberately'; [sarii^{c}an] 'quickly' [musri^{c}an] 'hurriedly; [maaśiyan] 'on foot' are used to express the manner of how an action is (was) done or say something about the subject of the sentence.[11]Examples:

    (22) [?ixtafaa lliSSu <u>faj?atan</u>.]

        ((disappeared the thief suddenly))

        'The thief disappeared <u>suddenly</u>.'

---

[9]The syntactic criteria are quite sporadic, a fact which increases the complexity of gathering such language items which assume similar adverbial function.

[10]It is no surprise if we do not find a one-to-one correspondence between English adverbials and Arabic adverbials.

[11]These words and others will be classified in the second part of the present chapter and according to the mode of classification adopted by this study where position and function correlate to give the proper interpretation of the adverbial concerned.

(23) [fa^{C}alahu $\underline{^C}$amdan.]

    ((did he it deliberately))

    'He did it <u>deliberately</u>.'

(24) [jaa?a musri$\underline{^C}$an.]

    ((came he quickly))

    'He came <u>quickly</u>.'

(25) [ḏahaba zaydun maaŝiyan ila lmadrasati.]

    ((went Zaid walking to the school))

    'Zaid went to school on foot.'

b. frequency interpretation can be conveyed by such words as [?aḥyaanan] 'sometimes'; [daa?iman] 'always'; [miraran] 'frequently'; [kaṯiiran] 'frequently'. Here are some examples:

(26) [yazuuruna muhammadun ?aḥyaanan.]

    ((visits us Muhammed sometimes))

    'Muhammed <u>sometimes</u> visits us.'

(27) [?aŝtari haajaati daa?iman min haaḏa ssuuqi.]

    ((buy I things my always from this the market))

    'I <u>always</u> buy my things from this market.'

(28) [yazuuruna ^{C}aliyyun naadiran.]

    ((visits us Ali rarely))

    'Ali <u>rarely</u> visits us.'

(29) [ŝaahattu haaḏa rrajula miraran.]

    ((saw I this man frequently (often)))

    'I <u>frequently</u> saw this man.'

(30) [faiḏaa quDiyat Salaa fintaŝiru filarDi wabtagu

    min faDli llaah waḏkuru llaaha kaṯiiran

    la^{C}allakum taflahuun]   Q: ljum'ah 10

    'Then when prayer is performed, disperse abroad

    in the land, and seek the munificence of God.

    And remember God frequently that perhaps you may

    thrive'

c. temporal adverbials can be expressed by words like [masaa?an] 'evening'; [mubakkiran] 'early'; [Tawiilan] 'a long while'. Examples:

(31) [waSalnaa masaa?an.]

  ((arrived we evening))

  'We arrived in the evening.'

(32) [jaa?a lmudiiru mubakkiran.]

  ((came the manager early))

  'The manager came early.'

(33) [Samata Tawiilan.]

  ((became he silent long))

  'He kept silent a long while.'

d. locative notion can be rendered by using words like [yamiinan] 'right'; [yasaaran] 'left'...etc. Below are illustrative examples:

(34) [taffaraqa nnaasu yamiinan wa yasaaran.]

  ((dispersed the people right and left))

  'people dispersed right and left.'

(35) [jalastu šarqiiyya ddaari.]

  ((sat I eastern the house))

  'I sat east of the house.'

e. words like [katiiran] 'much'; [tamaaman] 'completely'; [jiddan] 'very' can serve the function of degree adverbials. Examples:

(36) [yatakallamu nazaarun katiiran.]

  ((talks Nazar much))

  'Nazar talks much.'

(37) [?akmaltu Subġa ddaari tamaaman.]

  ((finished I painting the house completely))

  'I completely finished painting the house.'

(38) [ta?ammalltu fi l?ammri jiddan.]

  ((contemplated I in the matter deeply))

  'I contemplated the matter deeply.'

2. Definite nouns of time in the accusative such as [?alyawma] 'today'; [?allaylata] 'tonight'; [?assaa^{c}ata] 'at this time', 'now' are also used adverbially. The definite article has the force of a demonstrative.[12]Examples:

(39) [saʔannhi ^Camali l̠yawma.]

    ((will I finish work my today))

    'I will finish my work today.'

(40) [tajri lmubaaratu ssaa^Cata.]

    ((going on the match now))

    'The match is going on today.'

These nouns can appear in [iDaafa] 'annexation' construction with the word [kulla] 'every, all' and they together convey the concept of adverbial. It is noted that [kulla] with an indefinite noun can be translated 'every'; with a definite noun 'all' or 'the whole':[13]

(41) [ʔadɦbu ila biriTaanya kulla sanatin.]

    ((I go to Britain every year))

    'I go to Britain every year.'

(42) [ʔištagala ʔal^Caamilu kulla l̠yawmi.]

    ((worked the worker all the day))

    'The worker worked the whole day.'

3. The words [kulla] 'every, all' in 2 and [ba^CD] 'some'; [jamii^C] 'all' function as adverbials when annexed to nouns expressing place and time. [14] Here are some examples:

(43) [baḥattu ^Canka kulla makaanin.]

    ((looked I for you every where))

    'I looked for you every where.'

(44) [tal^Cabu rula ššiTranja ba^CDa lʔaḥyaani.]

    ((plays Rula the chess sometimes))

    'Rula sometimes plays chess.'

The word [kulla] 'all' sometimes modifies an object which is derived from the same verb and hence acts as a degree adverbial, e.g.:

(45) [fariḥa kulla lfaraḥi.] [15]

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[12] See Abboud et al (1983:459)

[13] See Abboud (1983:328)

[14] See Ibn Aqil (1964:part 1:588-89)

((rejoiced I all joy))

'I rejoiced <u>greatly</u>.'

(46) [ʔa<u>h</u>tarimuhu <u>kulla</u> lʔi<u>h</u>tiraami.]

((I respect him all respect))

'I respect him <u>very</u> <u>much</u>.'

4. Adverbials can also be realised by certain noun phrases or sentences (or quasi-sentences):

(47) [saʔaštari sayyaaratan š̌šahra lqaadima.]

((will buy I a car the month next))

'I will buy a car <u>next</u> <u>month</u>.'

(48) [jaaʔati lmu^callimattu ta<u>Dh</u>aku.]

((came she the teacher she laughs))

'The teacher came <u>laughing</u> (as she was laughing).'

5. The function of many adverbial categories can be performed by using prepositional phrases. [16]

(49) [tatakallamu haa<u>d</u>ihi lbintu <u>biʔadabin</u>.]

((speaks this girl in politeness))

'This girl speaks <u>politely</u>.'

(50) [haa<u>d</u>a ma ʔariidahu <u>biDDabTi</u>.]

((this what I want exactly))

'This what I want <u>exactly</u>.'

Words like [qablu] 'before'; [ba^cdu] 'after' are distinguished by Arab grammarians as adverbials followed by a genitive construct. These adverbs seem to be similar to prepositions. They have some features in common, for example, they are followed by nouns which are inflected with a short vowel [i] in the last syllable. They can also be combined with pronominal suffixes as in the following examples:

(51) [ʔalmudarrisu bayna Tulaabihi.]

((the teacher among students his))

'The teacher is among his students.'

---

[15]According to the classification of this study [kulla] and its head serve as verb modifying adverbial.

[16]See Bateson (1967:44)

(52) [rakaDtu ba^{c}dahu.]

((ran I after him))

'I ran after him.'

However, their sentential function as adverbials is revealed in 53-54:

(53) [sayugaadiru ʔabi ila bagdaada ba^{c}da yawmayni.]

((will leave father my for Baghdad after two

days))

'My father will leave for Baghdad in two days.'

(54) [waSala zaydun ila lmadiinati qabla Tuluu^{c}i

ššamsi.]

((arrived Zaid to the city before rise the sun))

'Zaid arrived to the city before the sunrise.'

These two words, as has been mentioned on p.178, can function as adverbials on their own, a situation in which they are always in the nominative case.

6. Arab grammarians consider words like [fawqa] 'above'; [tahta] 'under'; [xaarija] 'outside'; [xalfa] 'behind'; [ʔamaama] 'in front of' adverbials, though these words are hard to consider as adverbials when they are alone. Context clarifies their adverbial meaning. Sentences (55,57) are compared with (56,58):

(55) ?[jalastu ʔamaama]

((sat I in front of))

?'I sat in front of'

(56) [jalastu ʔamaama ddaari.]

((sat I in front of the house))

'I sat in front of the house.'

(57) ?[ʔalʔaTfaalu yal^{c}abuuna xaarija]

((the children play (are playing) outside))

'The children are playing outside.'

(58) [ʔalʔaTfaalu yal^{c}abuuna xaarija lbayti.]

((the children are playing outside the house))

'The children are playing outside the house.'

From what has preceded, it can be claimed that the suffix [-an], or sometimes [-a], is conjugated in nouns or adjectives to form words semantically equivalent to English adverbials; yet such words require a sentence context to be identified as adverbials. Consider [Sabaahan] 'morning' in the following sentences where it is an adverbial in the first, a nominal in the second:

(59) [?anjaztu ^Camali Sabaahan.]

((finished I work my morning))

'I finished my work in the morning.'

(60) [kaana Sabaahan jamiilan.]

((was it morning beautiful))

'It was a beautiful morning.'

In like manner, [yamiina] 'right' is a locative adverbial in (61), but a nominal in (62)

(61) [?almašyu yamiina TTariiqi.]

((walking right the road))

'Walking is (must be) on the right side of the road.'

(62) [xud yamiina TTariiqi.][17]

((take right the road))

'Take the right side of the road.'

7. The use of the verbal noun, or what is called in Arabic [?almaf^Cuuli lmuTlaq], may function as an adverbial modifier in a sentence, very commonly expressing intensification.[18] In such a construction, the verb is followed by its own verbal noun and mainly serves as a VMA. It is in the accusative case and indefinite, unless it is in an [iDaafa] 'annexation'

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[17] It is worthy of mention that [yamiina] 'right' could fall in the realm of adverbiality if the sentence verb [xud] has the meaning of [sr] 'walk' or [?ilzam] 'adhere'.

[18] [?almaf^Cuuli lmuTlaq] is translated differently by Arabists or Arab scholars. Some call it the accusative object; others translate it as the cognate accusative (object). The latter translation is more appropriate here since the verbal noun is cognate with the verb of the sentence

construction. The verbal noun may occur alone or may itself be modified by an adjective, e.g.

(63) [Dahika Dihkan]

((laughed he a laughing))

'He laughed a laugh'.

(64) [Dahika Dihkan haadi?an.]

((laughed he a laugh calm))

'He laughed calmly.'

This modifying adjective can do the verb modification by itself especially when the cognate accusative is omitted and understood overtly,[19] e.g.

(65) [Dahika haadi?an.]

((laughed he calmly))

'He laughed calmly.'

(66) [jaraa sarii^can.]

((ran he swiftly))

'He ran swiftly.'

(67) [?uhibuhu katiiran.]

((I like him much))

'I like him much.'

The cognate accusative can also be modified by another noun in an [iDaafa] 'annexation' construction:

(68) [qaatala qitaala l?abbTaali.]

((fought he fighting of heroes))

'He fought like heroes.'

8. The cognate construction in 7 can be used to specify the number of times that an action takes place; it then functions as a VMA:

(69) [Darabahu Darbatan.]

((hit he him a hitting))

'He hit him one struck (once).'

(70) [Darabahu Darbatayni.]

---

[19] Such a modifier is called by Arab grammarians 'the cognate accusative substitute'.

((hit he him two strucks))

'He hit him twice.'

Such a construction is sometimes substituted for or preceded by a numeral. Sentences (71, 72 and 73) show this respectively:

(71) [zurtu lmat̲h̲afa marratayni.]

((visited I the museum two times))

'I visited the museum twice.'

(72) [zurtu lmat̲h̲afa t̲alaat̲a ziyaaraatin.]

((visited I the museum three visits))

'I visited the museum three times.'

(73) [zurtu lmat̲h̲afa t̲alaat̲a marraatin.]

((visited I the museum three times))

'I visited the museum three times.'

9. Certain Arabic verbs can be used to render semantically what is equivalent to an adverbial in English.[20] Here are some illustrative examples:

(74) [ʔah̲sana kitaabatahu.]

((well he wrote it))

'He wrote it well.'

(75) [kaada ʔan yaqaᶜa min ljabali.]

((almost that he fell from the mountain))

'He almost fell from the mountain.'

(76) [maakittu ʔaraahu.]

((rarely saw I him))

'I rarely saw him.'

(77) [ᶜaada yalᶜabu bilmaaʔi.]

((came back he playing with the water))

'He started playing with water again.'

(78) [saʔaškuruka Taalama huyyiitu.]

((will I thank you so long as I live))

'I shall be grateful to you as long as I live.'

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[20] See Haywood (1962:426); Tritton (1970:117)

Sentences (75) and (76) point out that the verb [kaada], which means basically 'to be on the point of'; 'to be about to (do something)', can serve two different types of adverbial function. It renders the meaning of 'almost' when used with [?an] clause or with an indicative verb. It is translated 'rarely or scarcely' when prefixed with the particle 'maa'.

10. The use of [haal] construction or what is called 'circumstantial state' can serve as an adverbial modifier. It is so called as it describes the condition or attendant circumstances surrounding its head at the time of the event in question. It can thus be used to express what corresponds to manner adverbials or sometimes temporals in English. The [haal] construction may be a sentence, an adjective, or participle or noun phrase, and often indefinite. It may, however, be defined by a genitive construct, but is never found preceded by the definite article. Examples of the [haal] in the form of adjective or participle were cited on pp 174, 181. What follows are examples where the [haal] construction appears as a sentence and a noun phrase respectively:

(79) [raji^{C}a ila lbayti <u>wa</u> <u>huwa</u> <u>mubtasimu</u>.]

((returned he to the house and he smiling))

'He returned home <u>smiling</u> (<u>as</u> <u>he</u> <u>was</u> <u>smiling</u>)'[21]

(80) [xaraja rrajulu mina lqaa^{C}ati <u>munakkasa</u> <u>rra?si</u>.]

((went out the man from the hall the bowing the head))

'The man went out from the hall <u>with</u> <u>his</u> <u>head</u> <u>bowed</u>.'

(81) *[xaraja rrajulu mina lqaa^{C}ati <u>?almunakkasa</u> <u>rra?si</u>.]

((went out the man from the hall the bowing the

---

[21]The particle [wa] 'while' and the independent pronoun are often omitted. The residue must then be put in the accusative case
    [raji^{C}a ila lbayti mubtasiman.]
    'He returned home smiling (as he was smiling).'

head))

'The man went out of the hall <u>with</u> <u>his</u> <u>head</u>
<u>bowed</u>.'

It is worth noting that the [<u>h</u>aal] construction in the form of
a sentence is usually introduced by a subordinating conjuction
[wa] 'while'. In this respect the structure of the [<u>h</u>aal]
clause contributes to the classification of the type of
adverbial. First, it serves as manner adverbial when it has
anaphoric relation to the main clause either in the presence
of an independent pronoun which agrees with the modified noun
in gender and number or in the presence of active participle
which emerges from the deletion of the particle [wa] and the
independent pronoun. This active participle should be in the
accusative and indefinite.[22] Sentence (82) contains the
particle plus the independent pronoun while (83) has undergone
the process of deletion of the particle [wa] and the
independent pronoun:

(82) [waSalati lwaziiratu ila lʔijtimaa^{c}i <u>wa</u> <u>hiya</u>
ta<u>h</u>milu <u>h</u>aqiiba.]

((arrived she the minister she to the meeting

while she was carrying a bag))

'The lady minister arrived at the meeting <u>carrying</u>
<u>a</u> <u>bag</u>.'

(83) [waSalati lwaziiratu ila lʔIjtimaa^{c}i <u>h</u>aamilatan
<u>h</u>aqiiba.]

((arrived she the minister she to the meeting

carrying a bag))

'The lady minister arrived at the meeting <u>carrying</u>
<u>a</u> <u>bag</u>.'

Second, it expresses time rather than manner when no such
coreferentiality can be recognised. This can be exemplified in
(84) and (85)

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[22] The emergence of the active participle occurs when the
[<u>h</u>aal] clause is a verbal sentence.

(84) [waSala xaaliduni ddaara <u>wa</u> <u>nnaasu</u> <u>niyaamun</u>.]

((arrived Khalid the house and the people

sleeping))

'Khalid arrived at the house <u>when</u> <u>the</u> <u>people</u> <u>were</u>

<u>sleeping</u>.'

(85) [jaa?at hindu <u>wa</u> <u>ššamsu</u> <u>Taali^{c}atun</u>.]

((came Hind while the sun (was) shining))

'Hind came <u>while</u> <u>the</u> <u>sun</u> <u>was</u> <u>shining</u>.'

11. A number of particles in Arabic can be employed to express different adverbial functions, very commonly intensification. These particles like [la];[23] [?inna] 'indeed', 'certainly'; [?innama] 'only'; [laasiyama] 'especially' emphasize the speaker's certainty that what is said in a sentence is true. Intensification can also be assumed by certain words like [muTlaqan] absolutely; [hatman] 'decidedly', definitely, inevitably'; [?abadan] 'for ever'; [wahda] 'alone'.[24] Below are some examples:

(86) [<u>?inna</u> llaaha ^{c}alaa kulli šay?in qadirun.]

((indeed God over every thing powerful))

'God is <u>indeed</u> powerful over everything.'

(87) [a?inna <u>lamab^{c}utuuna</u> ?]

((will we certainly be resurrected ?))

'Will we <u>certainly</u> be resurrected ?'

(88) [rakiba ssayyaarata <u>wahdahu</u>.]

((got in he the car alone))

'He got in the car <u>alone</u>.'

12. This item concludes the description of what Arab grammarians identify as true adverbs. In their classification

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[23] The particle [la] intensifies the truth value of a statement- a function quite adequately rendered with 'certainly'; 'assuredly'

[24] This is not the only way of expressing intensification. It can also be fulfilled by words immanent in the different realizations mentioned in this study.

indeclinable adverbs are either

a. in the nominative case like [haytu] 'where'; [qaTTu] 'never'. Examples

  (89) [sa?adhabu ila haytu ?araaha.]

    ((will I go to where I see her))

    'I will go where I can see her.'

or

b. in the accusative case like [tamma] or [tammata] 'there'; [?al?aana] 'now', e.g.

  (90) [yadrusu TTullaabu l?aana.]

    ((are studying the students now))

    'The students are studying now.'

or

c. in the genitive like [?amsi] 'yesterday'

  (91) [saafara lfariiqu ila SSiini ?amsi.]

    ((travelled the team yesterday to China))

    'The team travelled to China yesterday.'

The afore-mentioned subcategories cited on the previous pages and other expressions of similar meaning will constitute the adverbial data in Arabic to be contrasted with the English data so far accumulated in this study. Thus far the adverbial in Arabic has been identified and what remains is to explore positions that different types of adverbial readily occupy. The next chapter will investigate what avenues open for the types of adverbial set out here.

CHAPTER SIX PART 11: ADVERBIAL POSITIONS IN ARABIC

6.3 INTRODUCTION

Arab grammarians set out a wide range of terms denoting the way people speak. Sibawaihi, who is renowned for his insightful treatment of language phenomena, can be considered the first who imprints Arabic grammar with principles which govern the relationships of sentence constituents. His book [Alkitaab] 'the book' is regarded as a basic core of Arabic grammar.

Inspired by the idea that Arabic is the sacred language of the holy Quran, Sibawaihi, like his contemporaries, applies a fairly large body of ethical terminology to grammar. Among those terminologies, he employs the two notions of [manzila] 'status' and [mawDi^c] 'function' which furnish the criteria for his usage of analogical reasoning [qiyas]. By [mawDi^c] ((literally 'place')), sibawaihi means [mawDi^c fi lkalaam] 'place in speech' which is intended to be understood as a linguistic form. He cites the example of [kam] which has two places [mawDi^{c}ayni], one interrogative (How much...) and the other predicative (How many...) [1]On the basis of this concept, Sibawaihi and his successors designate the different parts of speech which are mostly classified by their possible functions and particularly by their formal contrasts.

Sibawaihi views language as social behaviour and consequently uses criteria of correctness as [hasan] 'good'; [qabiih] 'bad'; [mustaqiim] 'right' and [muhaal] 'wrong'. These terms are classified in the light of the presence or absence of communication. The first two terms are structural forms on whose features strings of words are evaluated. The other two are intimately related to social situation where the speaker and listener attain their ultimate aim: communication.

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[1]Sibawaihi (1316:291)

For that Sibawaihi cites examples like

(1) [ʔataytuka ʔamsi wa saʔaʔtiika ġadan.]

((I came you yesterday and shall I come you

tomorrow))

'I came yesterday and I will come tomorrow.'

which are definitely correct but if their adverbials exchange positions, they will turn out to be ungrammatical as they lack a sense of communication. He further offers other examples like (2) which are syntactically correct but not semantically:

(2) [hamaltu jjabala wa šaribtu maaʔa lbahri.]

((carried I the mountain and drank I water the

sea))

'I carried the mountain and drank the sea water.'[2]

In compliance with these evaluation criteria Sibawaihi introduces the principle of [^{C}amal] 'grammatical effect' which bifurcates into [^{C}aamil] 'grammatically affecting' and [ma^{C}muul fiihi] 'grammatically affected'. To use simple terminology, the latter two will be labelled 'regent' and 'regimen' respectively. The effect of [^{C}aamil] 'regent' is significant in the ordering of sentence constituents the validity of which Arab grammarians confirm when they state: [kulla ma^{C}muulin labudda lahu min ^{C}aamil] 'every regimen must have a regent'; [al^{C}aamil labudda ʔan yastawfia ma^{C}muulah alxaSSa bihi] 'The regent must accord with his special regimen' and [laa yajtami^{C}u ^{C}aamilaani ^{C}alaa ma^{C}muulin waahidin] 'There cannot be two regents to one regimen'[3]

The application of [^{C}aamil] is an area of dispute between two groups of Arab grammarians. The first group believe that the regent is so effective that it governs the positions of words in a sentence and accordingly diacritics are elaborate marks upon their functions in the sentence. This group argues

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[2]See Sibawaihi (1316:8)

[3]See Id, Muhammed (1973:235)

that it is the verb which necessitates the use of the three
diacritics [Damma, fatha, and kasrah] on the subject, object,
the preposition and noun respectively. Sentence(3) where the
three diacritics are underlined illustrates the above argument

(3) [fataha rrajulu albaaba bi lmiftaahi.]

((opened the man the door with the key))

'The man opened the door with the key.'

The second group adopt quite a different practice. They
view the regent as some force outside the sentence nucleus:
not contained in itself (the sentence) but as an external
force: the speaker. That is, the speaker acts as a real regent
and words are indeed merely sounds which cannot incorporate
the regent. The advocates of this opinion like Ibn Jinni and
Ibn MaDi[c] Al Qurtubi argue that verbs like [Daraba] perform
nothing in the sentence and their components- consider the
same example [Da ra ba]- are simply sounds chosen by the
regent (the speaker) to govern the following sentence
constituents.[4]

This line of discussion will not be pursued any further
as it is beyond the scope of the present study. The aim of the
above contention is to give a rough idea of how Arab
grammarians view the conditions that operate to determine the
positions of sentence components.

6.4 FACTORS INFLUENCING ADVERBIAL POSITIONS IN ARABIC

Most of what was said in chapter two about the
influential factors which collaborated in conditioning the
choice of English adverbial positions is also true of Arabic.
In addition to such factors as realizational; verb type;
sentence structure; idiosyncratic predilection of speaker(s)/
writer(s); the specific genre of the text and the others
mentioned in chapter two, Modern Standard Arabic (MSA)
exhibits a further factor when it is, in many cases, inclined

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[4]See Id, Muhammed (1973:235)

to flavour its expressions with those of classical Arabic.[5]
Indigenous Arabic speakers quite often tend, in many cases, to
cite, in their speech or writing, examples from Classical
Arabic.[6]

Different contributions made by these kinds of factors
were detailed in chapter two. But, since use can be made of
most of these factors, it is desirable, for practical reasons,
to reconsider some of them in outline.

6.4.1 MORPHOLOGICAL REALISATION

The ordering of adverbials seems to depend more on the
factor of length. Clauses tend to follow single-word
adverbials or phrasal adverbials. A permutation of such forms
of adverbial is also possible, presumably affected, as
mentioned above, by factors of eloquence. Sentence (4)
contains adverbials in order: adverbial, adverbial phrase,
adverbial clause

(4) [saafara TTuulaabu <u>Sabaahan</u> <u>ila</u> <u>šimaali</u> <u>lwaTani</u>

<u>lilmušaaraka</u> <u>bilmu^caskari</u> <u>lkašfi</u>.]

((Travelled the students morning to the north of

the home to participate in the camp scout))

'The students travelled <u>to</u> <u>the</u> <u>north</u> <u>in</u> <u>the</u>

<u>morning</u> <u>to</u> <u>participate</u> <u>in</u> <u>the</u> <u>scout</u> <u>camp</u>.'

The order of the adverbials in (4) is the most natural one.
However, these adverbials can interchange positions or even be
preposed to other positions, most probably initial but at the
cost of sentence acceptability. Sentence (4) will turn out
less acceptable if the adverbial clause is moved up to initial

---

[5] Classical Arabic is the language of the Holy Quran and the
great ancient Arab poets. It is famous of its vast literary
tradition, its richness in vocabulary and systematic
grammatical structures. Classical Arabic, which is considered
to be the ultimate perfection of language, is highly ornate in
rhetoric and more complicated in structure than MSA which is
different in stylistic and lexical aspects. MSA is the variety
that is nowadays used for most writing and for all formal
speech situations. See Parkinson (1981:25); elYasin
(1985:110).

[6] See Ferguson (1959:75:82)

position as in (5):

(5) [lilmušaaraka bilmu^caskari lkašfi saafara

TTulaabu Sabaahan ila šimaali lwaTani.]

'To participate in the scout camp the students

travelled to the north in the morning.'

In this respect, MSA imposes a degree of restriction on the occurrence of clauses. Adverbial clauses implying a condition are exclusively positioned in initial position as in:

(6) [waqtama tazuuruni ?ukrimka.]

((Whenever you visit me, I honour you))

'Whenever you visit me I (shall) honour you.'

Final position is the only place where the [haal] clause, preceded by the manner particle [wa] 'while', is accommodated.

(7) [waSalat rula wa nnaasu niyaamun.]

((Arrived Rula and the people were sleeping))

'Rula arrived while people were sleeping.'

6.4.2 VERB TYPE

Arab grammarians clearly specify the relationship between their classificatory adverbials and the verb of the sentence. They point out that temporal adverbials like [yawman] 'a day' absorb the whole action of the verb or part of it. This, of course, depends on the type of the verb. The action of verbs like [sirtu] 'walked' is wholly conceived by a temporal adverbial such as [yawman] . That is 'the walking' in (8) occurred in the whole day: twenty-four hours.

(8) [sirtu yamman.]

((Walked I one day))

'I walked a day.'

With verbs like [tahajjada] 'voluntary prayer', temporal adverbials can only show a partial absorption of the action as in

(9) [tahajattu ?arba^ca layaalin.]

'I performed night prayer for four nights.'

It is possible to see the semantic difference between (8) and

position as in (5):

(5) [lilmušaaraka bilmuᶜaskari lkašfi saafara

TTulaabu Sabaahan ila šimaali lwaTani.]

'To participate in the scout camp the students

travelled to the north in the morning.'

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(9) [tahajattu ?arbaᶜa layaalin.]

'I performed night prayer for four nights.'

It is possible to see the semantic difference between (8) and

(9) by the fact that (8) can serve as a response to a question beginning with [kam...?] 'How long...?' whereas (9) would be a proper response to a question introduced by [mata...?] 'When...?'.

From this perspective, though it is narrow, the discussion can be prolonged to see what a crucial part the type of verb plays in defining the type of adverbial it readily goes with. This part can be of bilateral effect: semantic and syntactic. Semantically, there are certain features available in the type of verb which allow their congruence with the adverbials and hence qualify their cooccurrence. On the other hand, other features disallow such cooccurrence and make the adverbial (position) undesirable or impossible. The latter type of feature, which is responsible for the absence of consistency between the verb and the adverbial, renders the sentence awkward. Sentence (10), for example, is deviant due to the incompatibility between non-durative verbs and temporal adverbials (durative)

(10) *[waSala rrajulu ḥatta ssaa^{C}ati ssaadisati.]

((Arrived the man until the hour the sixth))

*'The man arrived until six o'clock'[7]

In more detail, its unacceptability stems from the fact that the duration of an instantaneous event cannot be specified because the action does not indicate a span of time. Conversely, the sentence reading turns out to be acceptable if the non-durative verb is replaced by a durative one as in (11), or the durative adverbial is replaced by a non-durative one as in (12)

(11) [baqiya rrajulu ḥatta ssaa^{C}ati ssaadisati.]

((Stayed the man until the hour the sixth]

'The man stayed until six o'clock.'

(12) [waSala rrajulu fi ssaa^{C}ati ssaadisati.]

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[7]The examples of incorrect strings are translated correspondingly into incorrect English

((Arrived the man at the hour the sixth))

'The man arrived at six o'clock.'

The same semantic selectional restrictions can be held between manner adverbials, sometimes degree adverbials, and a feature (± stative) of the verb. Manner or degree adverbials are incompatible with stative verbs. Thus, the unacceptability of sentences (13) and (14) can be attributed to the inability of the manner adverbial to describe the manner of the action or of the degree adverbial to add any intensification to the verb [tadawwaqa] 'taste' :

> (13) *[ra?a TTaalibu lkitaaba baTii?an / ^{C}amdan.]
>
> ((Saw the student the book slowly / deliberately))
>
> *'The student saw the book slowly / deliberately.'
>
> (14) *[tadawwagat šada TTa^{C}aama tamaaman / biDDabTi.]
>
> ((Tasted Shatha the food completely / exactly))
>
> *'Shatha tasted the food completely / exactly.'

Syntactically, the compatibility shown between certain types of verb and adverbials is determined, to a certain extent, by the number of steps in the hierarchy of their constituent structure. That is, most adverbials modifying the verb or verb phrase of the sentence normally appear to the left of the verb. A representative example is (15) where the dependence relationship between the verb and the following adverbial is obvious. Any disassociation between such an adverbial and the verb results either in awkward statements or a change in meaning

> (15a) [?intaSara l^{C}iraaqu ^{C}alaa ?a^{C}daa?ihi siyaasiyyan
>
> wa ^{C}askariyyan.]
>
> ((has triumphed the Iraq over enemies his
>
> politically and militarily))
>
> 'Iraq has triumphed over his enemies politically
>
> and militarily.'
>
> (15b) ?[siyaasiyyan wa ^{C}askariyyan ?intaSara l^{C}iraaqu
>
> ^{C}alaa ?a^{C}daa?ihi.]

` Politically and militarily, Iraq has triumphed over his enemies'

(15c) [ʔintaSara siyaasiyyan wa ᶜaskariyyan lᶜiraaqu ᶜalaa ʔaᶜdaaʔihi.]

'Iraq has politically and militarily triumphed over his enemies.'

Sentence (16) manifests a stronger relationship between the verb and the following adverbial, a case in which the dislocation of the adverbial renders the sentence clumsy or unacceptable

(16a) [ʔinna zaydan yalᶜabu fi lhadiqati]

((Certainly Zaid is playing in the garden))

'certainly Zaid is playing in the garden'

(16b) ? [ʔinna zaydan fi lhadiqati yalᶜabu]

? 'Certainly Zaid is in the garden playing'

(16c) * [ʔinna fi lhadiqati zaydan yalᶜabu]

* 'Certainly in the garden Zaid is playing'

(16d) * [fi lhadiqati ʔinna zaydan yalᶜabu]

* 'In the garden certainly Zaid is playing'

The unacceptability of (16c and 16d) can be further justified by the fact that no element can precede or separate [ʔinna] from its subject.[8]

One might go so far as to say that the semantics of the same adverbial can be rendered differently according to the type of verb it collocates with. For instance, the adverbial [marratan ʔuxra] or [taaniyatan] 'again' suggests a repetition of the action of the verb when used with such verbs as [yaftahu] 'open'; [yaduqqu] 'ring'; [yaDribu] 'beat' whereas no repetition is involved in verbs like [yaksiru] 'break'; [yumazziqu] 'tear up'. Sentences (17) and (18) have iterative readings while (20) and (21) do not:

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[8]See Ibn Aqil (1964,part 1:349). A mention should be made that some other orthodox Arab grammarians permit an adverbial to interpose between [ʔinna] and its subject.

(17) [daqqat yasaminu jjarasa <u>marratan ?uxra</u>.]

((rang Yasmin the bell again))

'Yasmin rang the bell <u>again</u>.'

(18) [fata<u>h</u>a ?a<u>h</u>madu š<u>š</u>ubbaaka <u>t</u>aaniyatan.]

((opened Ahmed the window again.))

'Ahmed opened the window <u>again</u>.'

(20) [kasara lwaladu SSa<u>h</u>na <u>marratan ?uxra</u>.]

((broke the boy the plate again))

'The boy broke the plate <u>again</u>.'

(21) [mazaqat lbintu SSuurata <u>t</u>aaniyatan.]

((tore up the girl the photo again))

'The girl tore up the photo <u>again</u>'

6.4.3 CONTEXT

Contextualization as a determining factor is supported by early Arab grammarians like Khalil and Sibawaihi. Khalil points out that the speaker is impelled to complete the sentence, especially an equational sentence, once he has aroused the expectations of the listener. That is, its communicative meaning is determined by the speaker and the listener in addition to other subsidiary factors: the situation they are in; their needs; the inherent motive of speech. Put simply, it is inadmissible to commence an equational sentence with an undefined subject or with anything that the listener and the speaker know nothing about, e.g.

(22) *[rajulu fi ddaari.]

((a man in the house))

*'A man is in the house.'

Sibawaihi's view coincides with Khalil's when he confirms that the listener is the only one who determines the rightness of an utterance.[9] It is worth mentioning that Sibawaihi's book [lkitaab] often invokes 'context of situation' as an overriding factor affecting the grammaticality of an

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[9]See Sibawaihi (1316:214); Id, M (1973:278)

expression.[10]   To   illustrate,   some   predicates   sound
ungrammatical because of the lack of a proper context. Going
through sentences (23) and (24), which are less than fully
acceptable, the reader or the listener expects something to be
added to them in order to convey a full meaning

(23) ?[waDa^Cat layla nnuquuda]

((put Layla the money))

?'Layla put the money'

(24) ?[^Caaša hasan]

((lived Hasan))

?'Hasan lived'

Their   well-formedness   can   be   improved   by   inserting   an
appropriate type of adverbial which is directly suggested by
their   verbs.   So,   they   require   location,   duration   and
intensification respectively

(25) [waDa^Cat layla nnuquuda ^Calaa rraffi.]

((put layla the money on the shelf))

'Layla put the money on the shelf'

(26) [^Caaša hasan fi ssab^Ciinaati.]

((lived Hasan in 1970's))

'Hasan lived in 1970's.'

This item can conclude that early Arab grammarians draw
attention to the paramount importance of contextual factors as
being influential in promoting the communicative situation.

6.4.4 INTONATION

It is well known that intonation has an important role in
indicating and specifying the meaning of the category to which
the expression belongs. It is the intonation (stress) which
makes a word or part of a word prominent in order to give
special intensity to its meaning or to show that it is in
contrast with other words. In this respect, Jones (1962:145)
points out that

One function of stress is to give emphasis to

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[10]See Carter (1973:149)

words. This is a use of stress in the sentence, strong stress being employed to make a word or part of a word stand out in order to give special intensity to its meaning or to show that it is in contrast with something. It is probable that this use of stress is to be found to a certain extent in stressless languages as well as in stress languages.

Thus, the stress on the adverbial [alyawma] 'today' in (27) imparts importance to it and in turn makes the speaker express his concern about the day of the event

.

(27) [gaDiba ʔabi lamma ᶜalima ʔanni dahabtu lyawma

ila bayti ᶜammi.]

((got angry father my when knew he that went I

today to house uncle my.]

'My father got angry when he knew that I went

today to my uncle's house.'

That is to say: my father had no objection if I went to my uncle's house any time, but not today, which exasperated him.

More evidence of the importance of the role of intonation in influencing the choice of the adverbial position can be found in the fact that variation in stress position often creates variation in sentence interpretation. An example for this point is sentence (28) where the emphatically stressed words are italicized. It demonstrates how far the stress affects the sentence meaning. The sentences confined in braces are paraphrases of (28) whose meaning varies as a result of the shift in the stress position:

(28a) [ʔakalat sanaaʔu *lhalwa* ʔayDan.]

((ate she Sanaa the sweets, too))

'Sanaa ate the sweets, too.'

{Sanaa ate other things as well as the sweets}

(28b) [ʔakalat *sanaaʔu* lhalwa ʔayDan]

((ate she Sanaa the sweets, too))

'Sanaa ate the sweets, too'

{Sanaa as well as somebody else ate the sweets}

(28c) [*ʔakalat* sanaaʔu lhalwa ʔayDan]

((ate she Sanaa the sweets, too))

'Sanaa ate the sweets, too.'

{Sanaa did other things besides eating the sweets}

The above versions do not illustrate the same contrast in meaning if the adverbial [ʔayDan] 'too' is dropped. In such a case, the word carrying the main stress has more emphasis but is not necessarily being contrasted with other words. The sentence at (28d), in which the verb [ʔakalat] is stressed, is an example where attention centers on the action of the verb, which is forcibly accentuated:

(28d) [*ʔakalat* sanaaʔu l<u>h</u>alwa.]

((ate Sanaa the sweets))

'Sanaa ate the sweets.'

However, the same semantic contrast in the above versions can be obtained as a result of shift of the adverbial position. This being the case, a conclusion can be reached that the gradation of position creates gradation of meaning when there are no interfering factors, say for example, intonation. Versions of sentence (29) below have the same corresponding paraphrases as those in (28) and in the same alphabetical order:

(29a) [ʔakalat sanaaʔu l<u>h</u>alwa <u>ʔayDan</u>.]

((ate she Sanaa the sweets, too))

'Sanaa ate the sweets, <u>too</u>.'

(29b) [ʔakalat sanaaʔu <u>ʔayDan</u> l<u>h</u>alwa]

'Sanaa, too ate the sweets.'

(29c) [ʔakalat <u>ʔayDan</u> sanaaʔu l<u>h</u>alwa]

'Sanaa ate the sweets, <u>too</u>'

6.4.5 <u>SENTENCE STRUCTURE</u>

Arabic sentences are constructed so that their constituents are arrayed in adherence to the general basic principles of grammar. Though these principles generally grant a word freedom to wander in the sentence, they in many cases restrict such freedom. Such a type of restriction arises from

the effect of syntactic rules which organize contextual relations among the sentential elements. Representatives of the application of these rules are cited below to see to what extent the adverbial movement is hampered.

The adverbial, in the form of a prepositional phrase, in Arabic sentences containing one of the particles that resemble the verb (?inna and its sisters), is restricted to final position when functioning as the predicate of the sentence, e.g.[11]

(30) [?inna ^caliyyan <u>fi</u> <u>ddaari</u>.]

((Ali in the house]

'Ali is <u>in the house</u>.'

(31) displays another syntactic features employed by these particles. The adverbial is restricted to medial position when functioning as the predicate of [?inna] or (one of its sisters) provided that the subject carries the referential pronoun of the object of the preposition.[12]

(31) [la^calla <u>fi</u> <u>ddaari</u> Saahiba<u>ha</u>]

((perhaps in the house its owner))

' Perhaps, the house owner is <u>in</u>'.

An adverbial is also restricted to medial position when it is used as a predicate preceded by [?innamma] 'only' as in (32)

(32) [?innamma <u>fi</u> <u>ddaari</u> zaydun.]

((only in the house Zaid))

'There is only Zaid <u>in the house</u>.'

Apart from the above rules, the complexity of sentence structure generally makes the adverbial gravitate to the end of the sentence, e.g.

(33) [yab<u>ha</u><u>t</u>u rrajulu ^cani lkitaabi lla<u>di</u> š̌taraahu

?amsi.]

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[11]These particles resemble the verb in that they must be followed either by a noun in the accusative, or by an attached pronoun which is grammatically considered to be in the accusative. See Haywood (1962:145)

[12]See Ibn Aqil (1964:399)

((is looking the man for the book which bought it
yesterday))

'The man is looking for the book which he bought
yesterday.'

The discussion of the factors already investigated showed that nonlinguistic factors as well as linguistic ones affected the choice of adverbial position. Some of these factors comprise those of the social context, and the style the speaker or the writer is inclined to use. Also, the discussion revealed that the effect of these factors varied considerably from one factor to another. In sum, the interplay of these factors eventually influence the position selected.

Before sketching a systematic plan for adverbial positions in Arabic, two issues need to be discussed: sentence type and word order.

6.5 SENTENCE TYPE

Arabic sentence structure has been traditionally classified into two major kinds: [ʔaljumlatu lismiyyah] 'nominal sentence' and [ʔaljumlatu lfi^{c}liya] 'verbal sentence'. This bifurcation was based on the formal criteria which had previously been devised by Arab grammarians, namely the [fi^{c}l] 'verb', and [ism] 'noun'. This formally-based classification was intended to determine the nature of a sentence by examining which of the two the sentence commences with. Accordingly, a nominal sentence begins with either a noun, a pronoun or a demonstrative as in (34) (35) (36) respectively

(34) [ʔaTTabiibaatu ya^{c}malna]

((The women doctors work))

'The women doctors work'

(35) [ʔanta Taalibun dakiyyun]

((You student clever))

'You are a clever student'

(36) [haada kitaabuka]

((This book your))

'This is your book'

A nominal sentence could be devoid of a verb and hence termed as an equational sentence. It is of two components: [mubtada?] 'a topic' and [xabar] literally 'predicate'; 'a comment', e.g.

(37) [?aljawwu laTiifun]

((The weather fine))

'The weather is fine'

The other type of sentence construction, which is verbal, usually begins with a verb, commonly before the subject, e.g.

(38) [yadhabu zaydun ila lmadrasati kulla yawmin]

((goes Zaid to the school everyday))

'Zaid goes to school everyday'

(39) [katabat rula ddarsa bi^{c}inaayatin]

((wrote Rula the lesson in carefulness))

'Rula wrote the lesson carefully'

Some Arab grammarians have not been satisfied with the above classification and called for new means by which the Arabic sentence should be reclassified. Therefore according to those scholars, sentences could be classified regarding their nature or type as follows:

a. verbal, in which the predicate occurs as a verb.

b. nominal, where the predicate occurs as a noun.

c. adverbial, where the predicate appears as a quasi sentence [sibh jumla] 'an adverbial or preposition followed by a noun'[13]

After this brief survey of Arabic sentence types, a question may be raised: what sentence types are going to be followed throughout this chapter. The answer is two types will be followed: The first, most preferably, is of the verbal sentence irrespective of the verb location and the second of the nominal (the equational) where no verb exists. The reason

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[13]See Ibn Hisham (1969:367); al-Makhzumi (1966:86-87) ; Abu al-Makarim (1978:27-33)

behind this choice is that these two types are the most common ones in any Arabic text.

6.6 WORD ORDER

A perusal of a fairly large text in Arabic reveals that a variety of word orders are encountered comparatively frequently. Such a variety includes word orders like VSO, SVO, VOS, SOV ; nonetheless, the order VSO is taken to be the basic one. Languages which admit more than one order in their sentences are assumed to have one basic word order, in the words of Greenberg (1966:76) "The vast majority of languages have several variant orders but a single dominant one."
The evidence that warrants the order VSO being at least primus inter pares is that it is the most common one which can initiate a discourse. It is also the sentence that answers invariably questions about general states of affairs like 'What happened?'[14]

One may ask how Arabic can distinguish one constituent from another in such profuse permutations? The solution is the implementation of case assignments and factors of context. This kind of solution is also seen by al-Makhzumi when he states that what distinguishes Arabic from some other languages is that an Arabic word carries along something that indicates its parsing status. A word, in consequence, has the freedom of occupying any position in a sentence.[15] This contrasts with some languages in which the syntactic value of a word is determined by its specific position in the sentence. Any change in that specific position of the word would entail a change in its syntactic function.[16]The following two examples, the first of which is English and the second is

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[14]See Bakir (1979:13); Parkinson (1981:25)

[15]An Arab scholar (aljazirah- Saudi Arabic newspaper-23/3/1989; 8/5) argues that the feature of the mobility of Arabic word order can be associated with the nomadic life that earlier Arabs used to. The nomadic Bedouins liked to wander in search of living so that they inclined their words to wander as well.

Arabic, portray the contrast concerning the word order of the two languages under study. In sentences

(40) The young boy helped the man

(41) The man helped the young boy

the first shows that it was 'the boy' who afforded the help and 'the man' being helped because 'the young boy' precedes the verb 'help' and the word 'the man' follows it. In the second sentence the roles of the 'young boy' and 'the man' with regards the act of helping are switched. Thus, it is the word order which provides us with the information and indicates who did what.

As for Arabic, components of a sentence, suppose, with five elements, say, verb; subject; two objects and a prepositional phrase, are largely permuted and consequently a huge number of permutations are obtainable, all of which are roughly synonymous. In the interests of space only some of these permutations will be listed:

> (42.1) [?a^{c}Ta zaydun rrajula lkitaaba fi nnaadi]
>
> ((gave Zaid the man the book in the club))
>
> 'Zaid gave the man the book in the club'
>
> (42.2) [?a^{c}Ta zaydun rrajula fi naadi lkitaaba]
>
> (42.3) [?a^{c}ta zaydun fi naadi rrajula lkitaaba]
>
> (42.4) [?a^{c}ta fi naadi zaydun rrajula lkitaaba]
>
> (42.5) [fi naadi ?a^{c}ta zaydun rrajula lkitaaba]
>
> (42.6) [?a^{c}ta zaydun lkitaaba rrajula fi naadi]
>
> (42.7) [?a^{c}ta lkitaaba zaydun rrajula fi naadi]
>
> (42.8) [lkitaaba ?a^{c}ta zaydun rrajula fi naadi]
>
> (42.9) [?a^{c}ta rrajula zaydun lkataaba fi naadi]
>
> (42.10) [rrajula ?a^{c}ta zaydun lkitaaba fi naadi]
>
> (42.11) [zaydun ?a^{c}ta rrajula lkitaaba fi naadi]
>
> (42.12) [zaydun rrajula ?a^{c}ta lkitaaba fi naadi]
>
> (42.13) [zaydun rrajula lkitaaba ?a^{c}ta fi naadi]

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[16]See al-Makhzumi (1986:87)

(42.14) [zaydun rrajula lkittaba fi naadi ?a^{c}ta]

Only one permutation exhibits a case of overlap: wherever the prepositional phrase [fi naadi] 'in the club' immediately follows the object NP [rrajula] 'the man'. It has the possibility of two interpretations: the first refers to the place of the man rather than the action involved; the second reading indicates the location where the action took place: in the club.

What emerges from the above plethora of versions at (42) is that [?i^{c}raab] 'parsing; case markers' is a conspicuous characteristic of Arabic language. It is especially of interest to say that [?i^{c}raab] preserves the inherent features of each constituent when more than one word order is used. Though [?i^{c}raab] gives sentence constituents a considerable deal of freedom, it systematizes the commutations of the constituents in such a way that each of them could retain its function no matter where it is likely to move. Support for the role of [?i^{c}raab] is advanced by Sibawaihi when he comments on the following sentence whose NPs retain their vowel signs wherever they are placed:

(43) [Daraba ^{c}abdullaahi zaydan]

((hit Abdul Allah Zaid))

'Abdul Allah hit Zaid'

He says that if you advance the object and postpose the subject, the performance would be the same as before (the permutation). In so doing, you actually want to say what you have said first (earlier).[17]

The discussion about the flexibility of Arabic word order may be impeded by the existence of examples where no overt case markers are exhibited. In sentences

(44) [da^{c}a musa ^{c}iisa.]

((invited Musa Isa))

---

[17]The text is originally in Arabic. See Sibawaihi (1316:34)

'Musa invited Isa.'

(45) [da^{C}at muna šada]

   ((invited Muna Shatha))

   'Muna invited Shatha'

the absence of morphological or semantic clues as to which NPs are subjects and which are objects necessitates the sentence following the order VSO to obviate any misconstrual. However, such examples are few and can not be generalized. In the wider perspective, Arabic tolerates word order variation so long as there is morphological and/or semantic information available to follow such variation. Sentences (46) and (47) whose first pair contains morphological markings suffixed to the verb and whose second pair incorporates a semantic criterion which defines the agents 'Maha'; 'Isa' allow either VSO or VOS[18]

   (46a) [da^{C}a musa šada]

      ((invited Musa Shatha))

      'Musa invited Shatha'

   (46b) [da^{C}at musa šada]

      ((invited Musa Shatha))

      'Musa invited Shatha'

   (47a) [ʔakalat maha halwa]

      ((ate-she Maha sweets))

      'Maha ate sweets'

   (47b) [ʔakala halwa ^{C}iisa]

      ((Ate Isa sweets))

      'Isa ate sweets'

   Now, in view of the fact that an Arabic word can wander in the sentence, it can be said that an adverbial in Arabic, more than any other word, has a satellite status orbiting in the sentence environment.[19] Such high mobility, unlike that of

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[18]In such an argument, it is dealt with probabilities rather with absolutes, and the likelihood of these examples will be affected by, among other factors, the level of formality

[19]See Abdu 'llah, A. (1983:18)

English, leads to complicated and significant problems. The adverbial, in consequence, has not been given the attention it deserves as a linguistic element in general and with regard to its placement in particular. So, it is the task of the present study to trace positions accessible to different types of adverbial and then classify them in a way parallel to that followed for English material. The coming section provides definitions for all possible positions that are occupied by the exponents of the three classes identified.

6.7 POSITIONAL TERMS

6.7.1 INITIAL POSITION

This position can be defined as a position standing at the very beginning of the sentence whatever its type: nominal or verbal as in

(48) [ǧadan sayusaafiru rra?isu.]

((tomorrow will travel the president))

'The president will travel tomorrow. '

(49) [hunaa lhayaatu Sa^{c}batun.]

((here the life difficult))

'Here, life is difficult.'

It is believed that an adverbial may be shifted around depending on the meaning intended, but as a matter of fact placing an adverbial in sentence initial position depends on the importance given to it by the speaker (writer). This conforms with the principle that one of the means that Arabic employs to show focus on a particular element is to place it in an initial position. That is, the word which commences the sentence carries the main interest of the speaker (writer).

6.7.2 MEDIAL POSITION

Medial position has many variants. The distribution of an adverbial in this position will coincide with the number of sentence constituents it modifies. As a matter of fact, adverbials which appear in medial position are normally accommodated to the left of their heads, thus there is no need

to divide this positions into further positions. As for AMAs, in fact, Arab grammarians do not distinguish clearly whether there are any verbs that could function as auxiliaries. However, one verb, viz. [yakuunu, kaana] `be, was' can assume the function of an auxiliary, e.g.

    (50) [yakuunu zaydun qad rahala fi SSabaahi]

          ((will be Zaid have left in the morning))

          `Zaid will have left by the morning'

Other particles [sa-; sawfa; qad] are rendered by English auxiliaries, but they are in fact inseparable from the verb of which each is a part.[20]

Sentences (51, 52, 53, 54,) should be compared with the decidedly awkward sentences at (51a, 52a, 53a, 54a,) in which the intervening adverbial between the particle and the verb constitutes a breach to the Arabic grammatical rules.[21]

    (51) [sayaqra?u faarisun fi lmaktabati.]

          ((will read Faris in the library]

          `Faris will read in the library.'

    (52) [sawfa ya?tii ?axii haalan]

          ((will come brother my immediately))

          `My brother will come immediately.'

    (53) [qad yanhi ?ahmaduni l^{c}amala tamaaman.]

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[20]The particles [sa-] and [sawfa] have the same function, but they are structurally different. The former is a bound form that it is prefixed to the imperfect indicative while the latter is a free form that precedes the imperfect indicative. These forms have the function of expressing futurity which can also be expressed by the imperfect devoid of these forms but with temporal adverbials in the sentence referring to the future. These two particles also exhibit different structural behaviour. While [sawfa] can be preceded by the emphatic particle [la-], [sa-] can not. Examples:
    [lasawfa yafuuzu lmu?minu]
  *[lasayafuuzu lmu?minu]
   `The believer will certainly win'
See Cantarino (1975, part 1:75-77)
Regarding [qad], it may be isolated from the verb by only an oath, e.g.
    [qad wallahi ?ahsanta]
   `By God, you have done well'
See Ibn Hisham (1969:171-174)

[21]See Ibn Hisham (ibid.)

((may finish Ahmed the work completely))

'Ahmed may finish the work <u>completely</u>.'

(54) [qad zaarani ?aḥmadun <u>fi</u> <u>ssaa^{C}ati</u> <u>lxaamisati</u>.]

((has visited me Ahmed at the hour the fifth))

'Ahmed has visited me <u>at</u> <u>five</u> <u>o'clock</u>.'

(51a) *[<u>safilmaktabati</u> yaqra?u faarisun]

(52a) *[sawfa <u>ḥaalan</u> ya?tii ?axi]

(53a) *[qad <u>tamaaman</u> yanhi ?aḥmaduni l^{C}amala]

(54a) *[qad <u>fi</u> <u>ssaa^{C}ati</u> <u>lxaamisati</u> zaarani ?aḥmadun]

What can be inferred from the above sentences is that it is impossible for an adverbial to appear immediately after the particles [sa-] [sawfa] and [qad]. Thus, due to the terseness of auxiliaries in Arabic and to the unlikelihood of adverbials appearing after these particles, the classification of this study eludes the subclass of auxiliary modifying adverbials as a member of class 11.

6.7.3 FINAL POSITION

In this position an adverbial is placed sentence-final irrespective of the sentence type.

6.8 CLASSIFICATION

In awareness of the many problems emanating from the heterogeneity and high mobility of the adverbial, this section tries to slot different expressions corresponding to English adverbials into the three classes specified by the classification of this study. Function and position, which share a considerable degree of correlation, are still the basic classification criteria. The application of the proposed classification is subject to two caveats: first, the divisions of the classification do not necessarily operate seriatim, as the two languages under study do not manifest the different types of adverbial in one-to-one fashion; second, the pressure of the word order for Arabic demonstrates a high tolerance of word order variation. Such a pressure may seem rather perverse within the terms of the classification.

Chapter four presented two principles: hierarchy and
comitation which deserve further examination of their
implications for Arabic. The hierarchy principle frequently
conflicts with adverbial ability to move freely in the
sentence. It could be assumed that adverbial ordering is
subject, to a certain extent, to the user's discretion since
no stringent rules imposed by Arabic specify how consecutive
adverbials should appear. However, this difficulty can be
alleviated by invoking the other principle: comitation,
whereby the head and its associate adverbial form one semantic
unit. In sentence (55), for example, the appearance of the
adverbial [maaŠiyan] 'on foot' before the other adverbials is
virtually the product of collaboration of the two principles.

(55) [dahaba zaydun maaŠiyan lyawma ila lmadrasati.]

((went he Zaid walking today to the school))

'Zaid went to school on foot today.'

With regard to the principle of comitation what Jurjaani
says about his convention [alnaZm] 'harmonization' comes close
to defining its property. Sentence constituents, under the
influence of [alnaZm] 'harmonization', display cohesive
relationship in such a way that they are consistent with each
other in their ordinary environments. To make this explicit,
consider the following sentence

(56) ?[sakana zayduni ddaara sarii^{C}an.]

((dwelled Zaid the house quickly))

?'Zaid dwelled the house quickly.'

which is grammatically correct according to the rules of
Arabic grammar. But, it is not fully acceptable to learned
native speakers since no consistency exists between the verb
[sakana] and the adverbial [sarii^{C}an].[22]

More concrete evidence, in this respect, has been

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[22]One may argue, under artificial circumstances, that the
sentence sounds well on the plea that Zaid was in a hurry in
dwelling the house because of external forces, say, threat.

brought forward by Ibn Hisham who states that [ḥaal]
constructions are seen as part of the sentence because they
are essential to the meaning of the verb. They are like
objects whose inclusion makes the sentence quite meaningful.
Therefore, they are conveniently placed close to the verb,
usually after it. The example shown in (57) can best serve
this point.[23]

(57) [naama TTiflu haadi?an Tuula lyawmi.]

((Slept the baby quietly the whole day))

'The baby slept quietly the whole day.'

In a similar vein, Hassan, being aware of the rhetorical
arts of [^{C}ilm alma^{C}aani],[24]employs the celebrated expression:
"[likulli kalimatin ma^{C}a Saaḥibatihaa maqaamun]" 'every word
in the sentence has its consistent relation with the other.'[25]
This expression focuses on how sentence consistuents are
systematically structured.
The above discipline has been elaborated by Arab grammarians
who are concerned with [?uSuul alfiqh] 'jurisprudence'.

Pursuit of such a discussion would take this study far
afield from its prime concern. So what needs to be done is to
return to the base and see what happens to the classification
adopted when applied to Arabic.

6.8.1 SENTENCE-MODIFYING ADVERBIALS

Apparently, the function of members of this class is to
modify the whole sentence and they are seen as sentence
equivalents. This is a case where the example of [?inna] is
germane. Its function is recognized by Arab grammarians when
they confirm that it pertains to the sentence as a whole.
Sibawaihi points out that the sentence [?inna zaydan

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[23]Ibn Hisham (1963:235)

[24]This kind of art mixes linguistic concepts with non
linguistic ones, but its centerpiece is the social interaction
of the participating components: the speaker, the listener,
the inherent motive of speech.

[25]Hassan (1974:20-28)

muntaliqun] 'Zaid is surely departing' is construed as [ʔinna
tawkidun liqawlihi zaydun muntaliqun] 'To modify the meaning
that Zaid is departing.'[26]

Ibn Ya'ish gives a similar definition: [ʔinna litaʔkidi
ljumlati] 'ʔinna serves to emphasize the sentence' [27]Ibn
Ya'ish adduces this sentence explaining the function of
[ʔinna]: [kaʔannahu fi hukmi lmukarrari nahwa zaydun qaimun
zaydun qaimun] 'as if one repeated the sentence.' [28]

This functionally-based adverbial may be preceded by
another functionally identical adverbial like [fi lwaaqi^{c}i
ʔanna] 'it is a fact...', [haqqan ʔanna] 'truly (actually)
'that...', [yaqinan ʔanna] 'undoubtedly'. In such a context,
the function of [ʔinna] as an adverbial is suppressed and it
can thus be rendered as 'that' – complementizer – or left
untranslated. Examples:

(58) [haqqan ʔanna l^{c}ilaaqaata baynana fi tahassunin
mustamirrin.]

'Truly (that) the relations among us is in a
continuous progress.'

Other particles like [la-] can be classified as pertaining to
the factual status of what is said in the sentence, e.g.

(59) [lalmawtu xayrun min hayatin ^{c}ala ǵamdin.]

'Surely, death is preferable to a life in
obscurity.'

(60) [laqad ʔa^{c}Taynaahum lkatiira.]

'We have indeed given them quite a lot'

As far as position is concerned, SMAs may appear in many
places in the sentence, however initial position is their

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[26]Sibawaihi (1316:part 11:19)

[27]Ibn Ya'ish (n.d.: 3-4)

[28]There is another particle called [ʔnn almuxaffafa]
'lighter'. This functionally identical particle differs from
[ʔinna] in several respects among which are: a. it is devoid
of all emphasizing force, b. it allows verb initial word order
and leaves the subject in the nominative case. See Bloch
(1986:102)

favourite habitat:

(61) [?inna lladiina aamanu wa ^Camilu SSaalihati lahum

jannaatu nna^Ciimi.]   Q: Luqmaan; 8

'Surely those who believe and do righteous deeds

shall have the gardens of felicity.' [29]

(62) [?inna llaaha ^Cala kulli šay?in qadiirun.]

((Indeed God over every thing powerful))

' God is indeed powerful over everything.'

(63) [^Cajaban ?anna lfataata qad taġayyarat katiiran]

((Surprisingly, that the girl has changed a lot))

'Surprisingly, the girl has changed a lot.'

(64) [bibaSaTa šadiida jiddan, hiina taSuluni da^Cwa

rasmiyah, fa'ana ?ahDaru lmahrajaanaat

walhaflaat]   Qu: 6/10/1989; 7/3 [30]

'Quite simply, when an official invitation

arrives, I will attend the festivals and

parties'

(65) [fi^Clan qad ji?tu muta?axiran]

Qu: 7/10/1989; 6/1

'Indeed, I have come late.'

(66) [haqqan.. ?anna duruusa harb ?uktuubar ?aktaru min

?an tuhSa]   Ar: 4/10/1989; 3/6

'Actually, the lessons of October War are more

than calculable.'

Final position is not uncommon for members of SMAs, but medial
less frequent:

(67) [qala rabbi inni da^Cawtu qawmi laylan wa

nahaaran.]   Q: Noah; 5

'He said, My Lord I have called my people night

and day.'

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[29]All translations of Qur'anic verses are taken from Khatib
(1986).

[30]For the interest of simplicity and space no literal
translations of newspapers examples are given as these
examples are too many and long.

(68) [...?anna ayya taswiya fi haada l?itijaah satabua

duuna šakkin bilfašali.]   Qu: 6/10/1989; 3/1

' Any settlement in this direction will,

underlineundoubtedly, fail.'

(69) [bal humu lyawma mustaslimuna]

Q: alSaafaat 'The Rangers'; 26

'Yet this day they are in full submission'

(70) [inni la ataTala^C lyawma ila ijraa' intixaabaat

au ila iqaamat hukuuma Daiqa] Qu: 2/10/1989;10/1

'I am not looking forward today to having

elections and forming a non coalition

government.'

(71) [wainnaha gadan sawfa taškuruhu ^Cala rrajuli

lladi ixtaarahu lahaa.] Ar: 6/10/1989; 9/1

'And she tomorrow will thank him for the man he

chose for her.'

(72) [sa?aštari baytan ššahra lqaadima.]

((will I buy a house the month the next))

'I will buy a house next month.'

(73) [sa?aštari ššahra lqaadima baytan.]

'I will buy, next month, a house.'

(74) [?argabu fi ssafari ma^Caka Saraahatan.]

((I like in travelling with you, frankly))

'I like to travel with you, frankly.'

(75) [?argabu Saraahatan fi ssafari ma^Caka]

'I like, frankly, to travel with you.'

It is worthwhile mentioning that intonation and rhythm come
into play to prop up [Saraahatan] in medial and final
positions in order to make the sentence more acceptable.

An example of [?inna] in the medial position is cited by
Bloch(1986).

(76) [laa uqimu bidaari ddulli inna walaa aati

ilalgadri]

'I shall not dwell in the abode of disgrace,

indeed (not) nor shall I commit an act of
treachery'

It should be mentioned here that a detailed discussion of
[ʔinna] is advanced by Bloch. With essentially the same
function of [ʔinna], he assigns two uses: progressive and
regressive. Progressive use is intended to confirm the
immediately following sentence. In regressive use, he assumes
that confirmation of the facticity of the sentence is made
either by the same speaker or by another.[31]

A fact that needs to be reemphasized here is that Arabic,
in spite of the flexibility of its word order, imposes
grammatical rules to restrict word movement in the sentence.
Any violation of these rules will render the sentence
ill-formed. The predominance of these rules will be apparent
in the sections to follow. As for SMAs, a set of grammatical
rules operates to restrict definite exponents of them to
appearing only in sentence-initial position. The
functionally-based adverbials like [ġayru šakkin]
'undoubtedly' and [Zannan minni] 'assumingly' provided by Asbr
and Junaydi are examples of this point:[32]

(77) [ġayru šakkin ʔanna lʔustaada qadiirun.]

((Undoubtedly, the professor is qualified))

'Undoubtedly, the professor is qualified.'

(78) [Zannan minni ʔannaka masruurun.]

((Thinking from me you happy.))

'Assumingly you are happy.'

Asbr and Junaydi mention that these adverbials exemplified in
(77) and (78) are forms of the cognate object. They cite
another example with [haqqan] which, they confirm, is also
restricted to sentence-initial position. But probing of some
native speakers' intuitions suggests that [haqqan] can be

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[31]For examples see Bloch (1986:105-115)

[32]See Asbr and Junaydi (1981:955)

acceptable in other position, preferably final:

(79a) [ḥaqqan ʔanna lkitaaba mumti^{c}un.]

((Really, the book is enjoyable.))

'Really, the book is enjoyable.'

(79b) [ʔinna lkitaaba mumti^{c}un ḥaqqan.]

'The book is enjoyable, really.'

Other examples which confine occurrence to sentence-initial position are below:

a. the adverbial functioning particles [rubba] or [rubbamaa] 'perhaps' [33]

(80) [rubba rajulin yusaa^{c}iduna]

((Perhaps a man helps us]

'Perhaps, a man helps us.'

(81) [rubbamaa yusaafiru zaydun ġadan.]

((Perhaps, will travel Zaid tomorrow))

'Perhaps, Zaid will travel tomorrow.'

b. an adverbial occurring between [ʔamma] and [fa][34]

(82) [ʔamma lyawma faʔinni musaafirun.]

((As today certainly I leaving))

'As for today, I am leaving.'

c. [ʔinnamaa] (a combination of ʔinna and maa) meaning 'only' limits the word or clause at the end of the sentence it introduces, e.g.:

(83) [ʔinnamaa SSadaqaatu lilfuqaraaʔi.]

((Only the alms for the poor))

'Alms are only for the poor.'

Shifting [ʔinnamaa] to a sentence-medial position necessitates the occurrence after it of a pronoun that refers to the subject and agrees with it in gender and number as in (84):

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[33][rubba] in Arabic is labelled as a preposition. See Ibn Hisham (1969:136); Hasan (part 2; 1968:482-485); Asbr and Junaydi (1981:500)

[34]The functional [ʔamma] is placed before the first element of the nominal sentence to mark it as emphatically contrasted with some other entity. See Ibn Hisham (1969:58)

(84) [?aSSadaqaatu ?inammaa hiya lilfuqaraa?i.]

((Alms only it for the poor.))

'Alms are only for the poor.

Under the influence of another set of grammatical rules, initial position becomes, in certain contexts, impossible and is thus preempted by medial and final position. Consider versions at (85) of which c is deviant:

(85a) [yaa saariqan ?ahla ddaari llaylata.]

((O, the robber the owners the house tonight.))

'O, the robber of the house owner tonight.'

(85b) [yaa saariqan llaylata ?ahla ddaari.]

((O, the robber tonight the owners the house.))

'O, the robber of the house owner tonight.'

(85c) ?[llaylata yaa saariqa ?ahla ddaari.]

((Tonight O the robber the owners the house.))

'Tonight O, the robber of the house owner.'

The deviance of (85c) follows from the fact that the vocative has the priority to commence a sentence and is unlikely to be preceded by any element, otherwise it would be redundant.

6.8.2 CLAUSE-ELEMENT MODIFYING ADVERBIALS

This class is divided into three subclasses which are:

6.8.2.1 SUBJECT-MODIFYING ADVERBIALS

Adverbials modifying the subject of the sentence favour a position to the left of it. Other positions are also possible but not as frequent as the initial position, e.g.:

(86) [fatabasama Daḥikan min qawlihaa wa qaala rabbi uzi^{c}ni ?an aškuraka ni^{c}matika...] Q: the ant; 19

'He smiled laughing at her words and said, 'My Lord sustain me that I may be thankful to your favour'

(87) [wiḍa tutla ^{c}alayhi ?ayaatuna walla mustakbirran..] Q: Luqmaan; 8

'And when our verses are recited to him, he turns

away <u>with</u> <u>haughtiness</u>...'

(88) [wai<u>d</u>kur rabbaka fi nafsika <u>taDaru^Can</u> wa

xiifatan...]   Q: al'Araaf 'The Ramparts'; 205

'And commend your Lord within yourself,

<u>imploringly</u>, and with awe..'

(89) [istaqbalana rrajulu <u>haašša</u>n <u>baašša</u>n tasbiquhu

kalimaati ttar<u>h</u>ib.]   Qu: 6/10/1989; 5/1

'The man received us <u>joyfully</u> and <u>happily</u> with

words of welcome.'

(90) [wa?ana <u>šaxSiyan</u> kamuwaTin wa Sa<u>h</u>afi ?axtalifu

ma^Ca ssiyaasa l?amniyah.] Ar: 5/10/1989; 6/1

'And I <u>personally</u> as a citizen and journalist

have a different opinion concerning the national

security.'

(91) [qaala <u>mubtasiman</u> yudaari <u>h</u>airatahu.]

Qu: 6/10/1989; 5/1

'He said <u>smiling</u> concealing his embarrassment.'

(92) [qadima rrajulu <u>raakiban</u>.]

((came the man riding))

'The man came <u>riding</u>.'

(93) [farra lliSSu <u>musri^Can</u>.]

((fled the thief hurriedly))

'The thief <u>hurriedly</u> fled.'

(94) [qadimat lbintu <u>taD</u><u>h</u>aku.]

((came the girl laughing.))

'The girl came <u>laughing</u>.'

(95) [^Caaša <u>h</u>asan <u>sa^Ciidan</u>.]

((lived Hasan happily))

'Hasan lived <u>happily</u>.'

In certain contexts, specific cooccurrence restrictions
make any syntactic position for SUBMAs other than their
canonical one impossible. Representative of these are contexts
where the [<u>h</u>aal] construction occurs after a verb expressing
surprise or wonder as in

(96) [maa ?ahsana zaydan Daahikan.]

((How did well Zaid laughing))

'How nice Zaid looks when laughing.'[35]

(97) [maa ?ajmala l?insaana ^CaTuufan.]

((How did beautiful man kind))

'How nice man is when kind.'

It is unacceptable to say

(96a) *[Daahikan maa ?ahsana zaydan.]

*'Laughing how nice Zaid looks.'

(96b) *[maa Daahikan ?ahsana zaydan.]

*'How laughing nice looks Zaid.'

(96c) *[maa ?ahsana Daahikan zaydan.]

*'How nice laughing Zaid looks.'

In like manner (97) gives unacceptable alternatives.[36]

Also, the meaning of the SUBMA, usually in a dual form, which modifies simultaneously the subject and object of the sentence, will be distorted if placed in a position other than its favourite one. This is clearly shown in the versions of sentence (98) when compared with (97):

(97) [?ahmadun laqiituhu Daahikayni / raakibayani.]

((Ahmed met we (two) both laughing / riding.))

'Ahmed we (two) met while laughing / riding.'

(98a) *[Daahikayani / raakibayani ?ahmadun

laqiituhu.]

(98b) *[?ahmadun Daahikayni / raakibayni laqiituhu.]

In some other contexts, the adverbial can allegedly be interpreted ambiguously in a sense that it either modifies the subject or object of the sentence as in

(99) [ra?aa muhammadun ^Caliyyan Daahikan.]

((Saw Muhammedun Ali laughing))

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[35]Sibawaihi (1316:37) mentions in his book [alkitaab] that Khalil (his teacher), in commenting on sentences like (96), says: "It is as though you say that something caused Zaid to becoming laughing".

[36]See Ibn Aqil (1964:647)

'Muhammed saw Ali <u>laughing</u>.'

If such an interpretation is acknowledged, the sentence ambiguity can be resolved by shifting the adverbial to a place immediately left of the subject or, less preferably, to the beginning of the sentence. In such a case the adverbial has only a subject-oriented reading. But what about this sentence

    (100) [šaahattu l?amiira yamuutu <u>Sabiyyan</u>.] [37]

        ((Witnessed I the prince die as a boy.))

        'I witnessed the prince die <u>as a boy</u>.'

in which the overlap is more subtle than it is in sentence (99)? Is it possible to follow the same technique and prepose the adverbial to the left of the subject? By doing so, the sentence would be stylistically infelicitous. Then how is such an ambiguity resolved? It can be done morphologically: the adverbial is converted into a phrase which clearly denotes the constituent it modifies. The phrase in (101a) functions as a subject modifying adverbial whereas in (101b) it is an object modifying adverbial:

    (101a) [šaahattu l?miira yamuutu wa?anna <u>Sabiyyun</u>.]

        ((Witnessed I the prince die and I a boy.))

        'I witnessed the prince die <u>while</u> <u>I</u> <u>was</u> <u>a</u> <u>boy</u>.'

    (101b) [šaahattu l?miira yamuutu <u>wahuwa</u> <u>Sabiyyun</u>.] [38]

        ((Witnessed I the prince die and he a boy.))

        'I witnessed the prince die <u>while</u> <u>he</u> <u>was</u> <u>a</u> <u>boy</u>.'

Before departing from this section, a note needs to be made that in certain contexts two adverbials, one of which is a SUBMA and the other usually locative, may cooccur in one sentence. In this respect, the type of verb affects the ordering of these adverbials. If the verb of the sentence

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[37]This sentence raised a controversy that some speakers found it unambiguous arguing that the [haal] 'the adverbial' belongs only to the object since it is adjacent to it.

[38]In a similar vein Beeston (1970:95) argues about the conversion of circumstantial clauses.

requires an adverbial to complement its meaning, it favours this type of adverbial being accommodated, under the influence of the comitation principle, in its vicinity to the exclusion of any intervening adverbial. Thus, the SUBMA in (102) is dislodged from its favourite place and preempted by the VMA [ila lqaa^{C}ati] 'to the hall'

> (102) [daxala lmudiiru <u>ila</u> <u>lqaa^{C}ati</u> <u>musri^{C}an</u>.]
>
> ((entered the manager to the hall hurriedly))
>
> 'The manager <u>hurriedly</u> entered <u>the hall</u>.'

6.8.2.2 VERB-MODIFYING ADVERBIALS

The freedom of word order allows VMAs, like other types, to be interspersed in the sentence. However, final position is the most frequent. Initial and medial positions show equal degrees of acceptability unless other functions, say, for example, emphasis or cases of prominence, are required.

> (103) [fajaa?athu ihdaahuma tamši ^{C}ala <u>stihyaa?in</u>
>
> qaalat ?inna ?abi yad^{C}uuka liyujziyaka ajra
>
> masaqayta lana]   Q: The stories; 25
>
> 'Then one of them came to him <u>bashfully</u> and
>
> said, "Truly my father invites you to reward
>
> you with payment for your watering (our flocks)
>
> for us'
>
> (104) [hunaalika ubtuliya lmu'minuuna wa zulzilu
>
> zilzaalan <u>šadiidan</u>] Q: The confederate clans;11
>
> 'There the believers were tried, and shaken
>
> <u>tremendously</u>.'
>
> (105) [numati^{C}uhum <u>qaliilan</u> <u>t</u>umma naDTarruhum ila
>
> ^{C}a<u>d</u>aabin galiiZin]   Q: luqmaan; 24
>
> 'We let them revel <u>a little</u>, then we shall force
>
> them to a grim chastisement'
>
> (106) [<u>t</u>umma inni da^{C}awtuhum <u>jihaaran</u>]   Q: Noah; 8
>
> 'Then I called them <u>openly</u>'
>
> (107) [farama lkitaaba ila larDi <u>bihanqin</u>]
>
> Qu: 6/10/1989; 2/8

'He threw the book to the ground <u>resentfully</u>'

(108) [sarat l?umuuru <u>bisur^Catin baTii?atin jiddan</u>]

Qu: 5/10/1989; 10/1

'The things moved <u>very slowly.</u>'

(109) [laakin rra?is buš wa lmas?uluun fi idaaratihi

nafu <u>bišida</u> wijuud ^Cilaaqa bayyna l?inqilaab wa

lidaara l?amrikiyah.]   Ar: 5/10/1989; 4/6

'But the president Bush and the responsible in

his administration <u>strongly</u> negated the

relationship between the coup d'état and the

American administration.'

(110a) [?ixtafaa lkalbu <u>faj?atan.</u>]

((disappeared the dog suddenly.))

'The dog disappeared <u>suddenly.</u>'

(110b) [<u>faj?atan</u> ?ixtafa lkalbu.]

'<u>Suddenly</u> the dog disappeared.'

(110c) [?ixtafa <u>faj?atan</u> lkalbu.]

'The dog <u>suddenly</u> disappeared.'

(111) [taffaraqa nnaasu <u>yamiinan</u> <u>wa</u> <u>yasaaran.</u>]

((dispersed the people right and left.))

'People dispersed <u>right</u> <u>and</u> <u>left.</u>'

(112) [yatakallamu nezaarun <u>katiiran.</u>]

((talks Nazar much.))

'Nazar talks <u>much.</u>'

(113) [saara lwaladu sayra <u>l^Cuqalaa?i.</u>]

((walked the boy walking of the wise.))

'The boy walked <u>like</u> <u>the</u> <u>wise</u> <u>do.</u>'

(114) [takalama lqaa?idu <u>biSaraahatin.</u>]

((talked the leader in frankness.))

'The leader talked <u>frankly.</u>'

Now it is worthwhile to look at the following sentence

(115) [?a^Ctaqidu ?anna lfataata kasarat ššubaaka

<u>C</u>amdan.]

((I believe that the girl broke the window

deliberately.))

'I believe that the girl broke the window

deliberately.'

which shows that initial position is impossible for [^{C}amdan] 'deliberately' due to two reasons: the first is semantic: that the adverbial [^{C}amdan] 'deliberately' is incongruous with verbs like [ya?^{C}taqid] 'believe'. The second reason is syntactic in that the adverbial can only be preposed to the head of the clause it modifies.

This type of adverbial also exhibits sharp limitations in its occurrence in the sentence. Certain sentence constituents impose specific restrictions to delimit its position to a final one, after the verb. The following sentences are conditionally constructed where the influence of a specific constituent on the adverbial in question is explained:

a. after a verb preceded by [lau lmaSdariya][39]

    (116) [yawaddu ?ahadahum lau yu^{C}ammaru ?alfa sanatin.]

        ((wishes one of them to live thousand years.))

        'Each desires that he might be spared for a

        thousand years.'

b. after a verb governed by the particle [la] denoting an oath:

    (117) [la?usaafiranna ġadan.]

        ((surely, I will leave tomorrow.]

        ' Surely, I will leave tomorrow.'

c. in sentences where the functionally-based adverbial 'the cognate object' intensifies the meaning of the verb.[40]

    (118) [fariha farahan šadiidan.]

        ((rejoiced he rejoice greatly.))

---

[39][lau lmaSdariya] is used to introduce a clause equivalent to infinitive.

[40]For more information about this kind of adverbial, see part 1 item 7.

'He rejoiced <u>greatly</u>.'

(119) [naama TTiflu <u>nawman</u> <u>^Camiiqan</u>.]

((slept the child sleeping soundly.))

'The child slept <u>soundly</u>.'

(120) [Samata <u>Samtan</u> <u>Tawiilan</u>.]

((kept he silent silence long.))

'He kept silent for <u>a</u> <u>long</u> <u>time</u>.'

d. in sentences where the adverbial occurs as the predicate of [?nn]

(121) [?an tusaafira <u>yawma</u> <u>jum^Cati</u> ?amrun Sa^Cbun.]

((for you to travel day Friday a matter

difficult.))

'For you to travel <u>on</u> <u>Friday</u> is a difficult

matter.'

6.8.2.3 OBJECT-MODIFYING ADVERBIALS

Members of this class are completely restricted to final position. Their restriction to this position can possibly be accounted for by the fact that they are used predicatively or by the influence of other sentence constituents. Sentences (a) below provide accounts of the predicative use where the adverbial qualifies the object and is taken as a permanent state. Therefore, other positions are refused than that immediately after the object:

(122) [wahuwa lla<u>d</u>i ja^Cala lakum layla <u>libaasan</u>

wanawma <u>subaatan</u> waja^Cala lnahaara <u>nuššuuran</u>]

Q: alfurqan; 46

'And it is He who has made the night <u>as a garment</u>

for you, and sleep <u>for rest</u>; and He made the day

<u>for raising up</u>.'

(123a) [da^Cawtu llaaha <u>samii^Can</u>.]

((invoked I Allah hearing.))

'I invoked God <u>to</u> <u>hear</u> <u>me</u>.'

(123b) *[<u>samii^Can</u> da^Cawtu llaaha.]

((Hearing I invoked God.))

*'To hear me I invoked God'

(123c) *[da^Cawtu samii^Can llaaha.]

((I invoked hearing, God.))

'I invoked God to hear me'

(124a) [qara?tu lkitaaba mufaSalan.]

((Read I the book in detail.))

' I read the book in detail.'

(124b) *[mufaSalan qara?tu lkitaaba.]

*'In detail, I read the book.'

(124c) *[qara?tu mufaSalan lkitaaba.]

*'I read in detail the book.'

(125a) [yuhibu nezaarun tanawula ssamaki xaarija

lbayti.]

((Likes Nazar to have the fish outside the

house.))

'Nazar likes to have fish outside (the house).'

(125b) *[xaarija lbayti yuhibu nezaarun tanawula

ssamaki.]

*'Outside the house Nazar likes to have fish.'

(125c) *[yuhibu xaarija lbayti nezaarun tanaawula

ssamaki.'

The syntactic accounts which debar the adverbial from appearing in any other position than final are as follows:

a. in sentence (126) the adverbial [ma^Ca] used in the sense of 'together' or 'both' appears nunated as [ma^Can]: [41]

(126) [šariba zaydun ššaaya wa lhaliiba ma^Can.]

((drank Zaid the tea and the milk together.))

'Zaid drank both tea and milk.'

(126) can be assigned two interpretations: the first involves

---

[41]The status of [ma^Ca] is an issue of dispute among Arab grammarians. Some grammarians consider [ma^Ca] a noun, relying on the fact that it can be nunated and preceded by a preposition as Sibawaihi cites [dahabtu min ma^Cahu]. Others see [ma^Ca] [haal] in certain contexts and an adverbial in others. See ⁻Ibn Hisham (1969:333-334); Asbr and Junaydi (1981:871).

separation matching the meaning that Zaid drank tea, and then he drank the milk, possibly he took a break between the two drinks. The second reading implies combination, which corresponds to the concept that the tea and milk are perhaps poured into one cup. The two assumptions can be realized by the following two abstract trees. The first relates to the former interpretation while the second represents the latter

a.

Zaid drank tea   and   Zaid drank milk

b.

Zaid   drank tea and milk
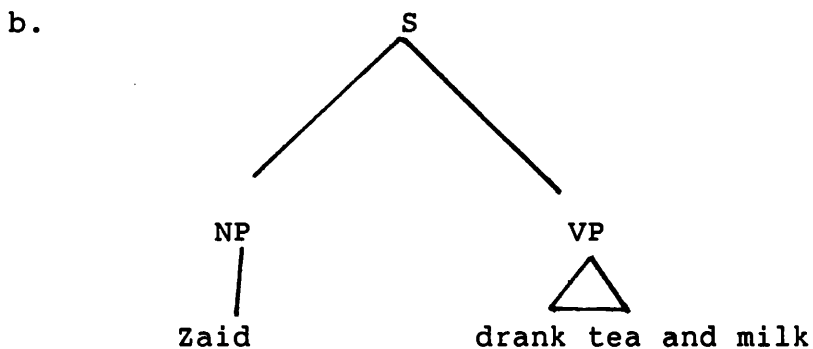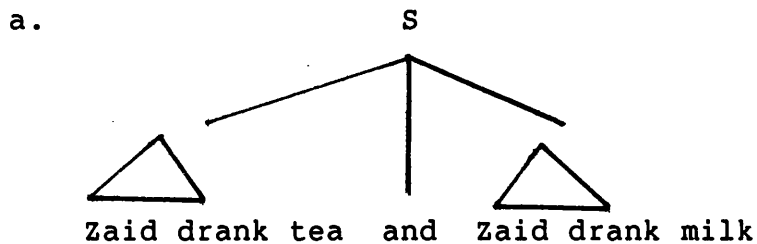
b. in sentences where the adverbial qualifies the object governed by a preposition usually [bi] 'by'. Arab grammarians call this kind of object [Sahibi lhaal] 'subject of state', i.e. subject or object of the action to which the [haal] 'the adverbial' refers . Examples:

(127) [marartu bihindin jaalisatan.] [42]

---

[42]There is no consensus among Arab grammarians regarding the occurrence of [haal] when the subject of state [Saahibi lhaal] is prefixed with a preposition. Some say that it is admissible to place the [haal] before its head [Saahibi lhaal]. Others reject this privilege in that the [haal] should follow its
(Footnote continued)

((passed I by Hind sitting))

'I passed by Hind <u>sitting</u>.'

c. in sentences in which the head of the adverbial [Saa<u>h</u>ibi

l<u>h</u>aal] is in a genitive construct as in:

(128) [?a^Cjabani šaklu nnijuumi <u>waaDahatan</u>.]

    ((admired I the sight of the stars shining

      clearly.))

    'I admired the sight of the stars <u>when</u> <u>shining</u>

    <u>clearly</u>.'

6.8.3 VERB PHRASE-MODIFYING ADVERBIALS

Exponents of this class favour final position. Initial

position is quite acceptable, medial infrequent.

(129) [.. <u>h</u>ay<u>t</u>u yuSari<u>h</u>u bia'raa'hi <u>bišikklin</u> <u>^Calani</u> wa

    <u>waaDih</u>.]   Qu: 2/10/1989; 10/8

    'Where he declared his opinions <u>publicly</u> and

    <u>clearly</u>.'

(130) [zurtu lmu<u>th</u>afa <u>talaata</u> ziyaaraatin.]

    ((visited I the museum three visits.))

    'I visited the museum <u>three times</u>.'

(131) [qara?a nabiiluni lkitaaba <u>fi lǵurfati</u>]

    ((read he Nabiil the book in the room.))

    'Nabiil read the book <u>in the room</u>.'

(132) [mu<u>h</u>ammadun kataba wajibahu <u>bi^Cinaayatin</u>.]

    ((Muhammed wrote homework his in carefulness.))

    'Muhammed wrote his homework <u>carefully</u>.'

(133) [min huna, fainna nataa?j ijtimaa^Caat majlis

    nnuwwab labnaani fi Taaif saufa ta^Ckisu <u>biwuDuuh</u>

    nawaayaa wa raǵabaat jjihaat allati tamluku

    miftaah Sinaa^Cati lqaraar.]   QU: 4/10/1989; 11/1

    'From here, the results of the assembly of the

    Lebanese Parliament in Taif will reflect

---

[42](continued)
head. The researcher concurs with the opinion of the latter
group since moving the [haal] to the left of its head makes
the sentence nonsensical. See Hasan (1968:355).

distinctly the intentions and wishes of the
groups who are in key decision making
positions.'

It is worth mentioning that VPMAs functioning as obligatory elements required to complement the sentence meaning are more conveniently placed in the final position. Other positions seem far less acceptable

(134) [waDa^cat selma lkitaaba ^cala lminDadati]

((put-she Selma the book on the table))

'Selma put the book on the table'

The functions of the adverbials classified in the above sections can also be represented graphically. The same graphic schematization which reflected the function of English adverbials in chapter four can be applied to illustrate the function assumed by Arabic adverbials. The sentence [lihusni lhazZ wajattuka fi lwaqti lmunaasibi] 'Fortunately, I found you in time' will serve as an example:

[lihusni lhaZZ] 'Fortunately'

A

B ————————————————————— C

[wajattuka fi lwaqti lmunaasibi]

'I met you in time'
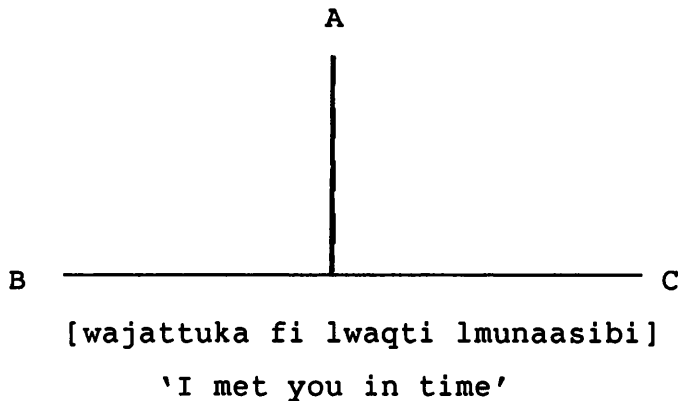
The function of other adverbials of the residual two classes can be exposed by the same figure (figure 2) used in chapter four (p122). The following four sentences, the first of which contains a SUBMA, the second VMA, the third and the fourth an OBJMA and VPMA respectively are attempted:

[musri^can] 'hurriedly'
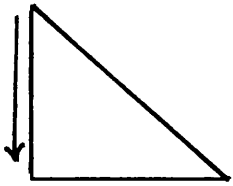
[bisuur^catin] 'quickly'

[muhammedun]   [jaa?a]
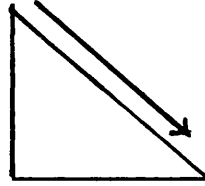
[zaydun]   [waSala]

[mufaSalan] 'in detail'

[bi^cinaayatin] 'carefully'
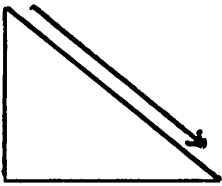
[qara?tu]   [lkitaaba]
'I read'   'the book'
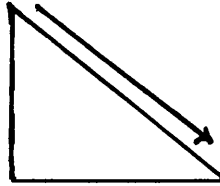
[zaydun]   [kataba ddarsa]
'Zaid'   'wrote the lesson'

6.9   ADVERBIALS IN OTHER SENTENCE TYPES

Regarding adverbial positions in sentence types other than affirmatives, there have not been enough examples of their behaviour in such types to allow extensive generalizations; at times, some examples point to the conclusions that adverbials, whatever their types, tend to appear in their favourite positions or gravitate to the end of the sentence. The coming sections present a brief description of adverbial positional behaviour in negatives, interrogatives and imperatives:

6.9.1   SENTENCE-MODIFYING ADVERBIALS IN NEGATIVES

Apart from those members which can be negated independently of the sentence like [gayru sakkin] 'undoubtedly', SMAs do not behave similarly in relation to the scope of negation. This of course depends on the kind of relationship held between them and the main clause: whether it is intrinsic or extrinsic. The behaviour of SMAs such as [^caadatan] 'usually' support the conclusion that they are normally outside the scope of negation of the clause they

modify due to their peripherality to the sentence. The fact that (135) can be paraphrased roughly as (136) is a clear illustration of this issue.

(135) [la ʔatanaawalu ssukkara fi ššaay ᶜaadatan.]

((no I have the sugar in the tea usually))

'I do not have sugar in my tea, usually.'

(136) [ʔataanaawlu ššaaya biduuni ssukkari ᶜaadatan.]

((I have the tea without the sugar usually))

'I have my tea without sugar, usually.'

It is noted that the negative particle [la] in (135) negates the proposition of having sugar but not the adverbial. On the assumption that the negation negates the lower VP, the deep structure of (135) may be seen as follows:
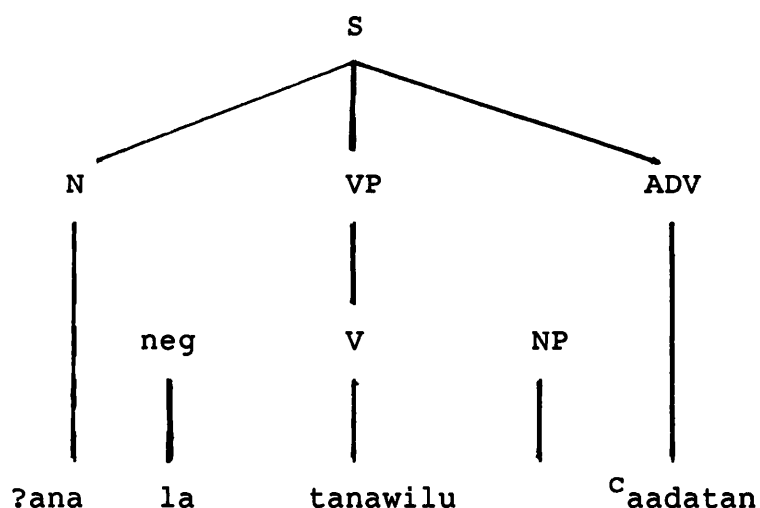
suukkara fi ššaay

Other members are involved in the scope of negation and in this case the negation does not refer to the verb of the main sentence but it does to the adverbial.

[ġadan] 'tomorrow' in (137) is taken as an instance of this point:

(137) [lan yusaafira ʔaxi ġadan.]

((will not travel brother my tomorrow))

'My brother will not travel tomorrow.'

The assumption that the negation denies only the time of the

event can be borne out by the paraphrase displayed in (138)

    (138) [sayusaafiru ʔaxi walaakin laysa ǧadan.]

        ((will travel brother my but not tomorrow))

        'My brother will travel but not tomorrow.)

The claim that [ǧadan] 'tomorrow' is within the scope of negation may be represented in the following abstract tree which shows that negatives usually negate the uppermost VP


```
                        S
                      / | \
                     /  |  \
                   Neg  NP   VP
                    |   |   /\
                    |   |  /  \
                    |   |  V   ADV
                    |   |  /    \
                   lan ʔaxi yusaafira  gadan
```
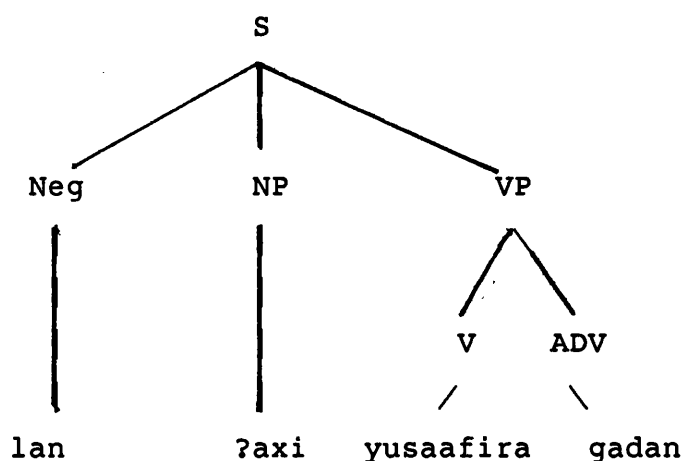
6.9.2   SENTENCE-MODIFYING ADVERBIALS IN INTERROGATIVES AND IMPERATIVES

    Exponents of this class normally appear at the end of the sentence following the axiom that question words and imperative elements have the priority to initiate the sentence. It should be mentioned that there are some members, especially those which are restricted to initial position, which do not occur in interrogatives and imperatives (compare English counterparts pp. 94-98). However, the members which readily occur in interrogatives normally occupy final position. Medial position is less frequent, initial position dubious. Examples:

    (139a) [ʔatuḥibu l^{c}amala fi haadi lmadiinati <u>fi^{c}lan</u> ?]

        ((Do you like the work in this city really?))

        'Do you like working in this city, <u>really</u>?'

    (139b) [ʔatuḥibu l^{c}amala <u>fi^{c}lan</u> fi haadi lmadiinati ?]

((Do you like the work really in this city?))

'Do you <u>really</u> like working in this city?'

(139c) [?atuhibu <u>fi^Clan</u> l^Camala fi haa<u>d</u>i lmadiinati ?)

((Do you like really the work in this city?))

'Do you <u>really</u> like working in this city?'

(139d) ?[<u>fi^Clan</u> ?atuhibu l^Camala fi haa<u>d</u>i lmadiinati ?]

((Really do you like working in this city?))

?'<u>Really</u>, do you like working in this city?'

SMAs which occur with imperatives behave virtually in the same way as they do with interrogatives in that they naturally appear in final position. Medial position also comes next in acceptability. Initial position is regarded as rare.

(140) [?ijlis <u>huna</u>.]

((Sit here))

'Sit <u>here</u>.'

(141a) [naffi<u>d</u> l?ammra <u>lyawma</u>.]

((Carry out the matter today.))

'Carry out the matter <u>today</u>.'

(141b) [naffi<u>d</u> <u>lyawma</u> l?ammra.]

((Carry out today the matter))

'Carry out the matter <u>today</u>.'

6.9.3 CLAUSE-ELEMENT MODIFYING ADVERBIALS IN NEGATIVES, INTERROGATIVES AND IMPERATIVES

6.9.3.1 SUBJECT-MODIFYING ADVERBIALS IN NEGATIVES

Some exponents of this class are marginally acceptable in negative sentences owing to their inability to specify the denying truth value and they must therefore be viewed as superfluous. The adverbials [musri^Can] 'hurriedly' and [muxliSan] 'sincerely' in (142) and (143) do not in any way affect the sentence negation:

(142) ?[lam yafar llliSSu <u>musri^Can</u>.]

((Did not flee the thief hurriedly))

?'The thief did not flee <u>hurriedly</u>.'

(143) ?[lam yad^Cu ramzi DDayyfa <u>muxliSan</u>.]

((Did not invite Ramzi the guest sincerely))

?'Ramzi <u>sincerely</u> did not invite the guest.'

Other exponents readily appear in negatives as they are normally the focus of negation in a negative sentence. They, therefore, follow clause negation as in (144) whose corresponding paraphrase supports this point:

(144) [lam ya?ti l?ustaa<u>d</u>u ila SSaffi <u>mubtasiman.</u>]

((Did not come the professor to the class

smiling))

'The professor did not come to class <u>smiling.</u>'

(144a) [?ataa l?ustaa<u>d</u>u ila SSaffi walakinhu laysa

mubtasiman.]

'The professor came to the class not <u>smiling.</u>'

6.9.3.2 SUBJECT-MODIFYING ADVERBIALS IN INTERROGATIVES

AND IMPERATIVES

As has been mentioned above about the priority of question words and imperative elements in appearing initially, SUBMAs in interrogatives and imperatives normally stand in their position to the left of their head or sometimes in final position. Initial position is uncomfortable for them in such sentences. Sentences (145) and (146) illustrate both possibilities in these two sentence types:

(145a) [hal takalamta <u>ššaxSSiyan</u> fi lmu?tamari ?]

((Did speak you personally in the conference))

'Did you <u>personally</u> speak in the conference?'

(145b) [hal takalamta fi lmu?tamari <u>ššaxSSiyan</u> ?]

((Did speak you in the conference personally))

'Did you speak in the conference <u>personally?</u>'

(146a) [takalam <u>haadi?an</u> ma^{c}a nnaasi.]

((Speak calmly to people))

'Speak <u>calmly</u> to people.'

(146b) [takalam ma^{c}a nnaasi <u>haadi?an.</u>]

((Speak to people calmly))

'Speak to people <u>calmly.</u>'

6.9.3.3 VERB-MODIFYING ADVERBIALS IN NEGATIVES

Members of this subclass virtually lie in the scope of negation. They, therefore, attract negation and are its sole focus:

(147) [wala tuSa^{cc}ir xaddaka llinaasi wala tamŝi fi

ʔarDi marahan ... .]   Q: Luqmaan; 18

'And turn not your check in scorn toward people,

and walk not in the land struttingly... .]

(148) [lan tadhab selma bilqiTTaari.]

((will not go Selma by train))

'Selma will not go by train.'

(149) [lam tumTiru ssamaaʔu biğazaaratin.]

((Did not the sky heavily))

'It did not rain heavily.'

The above sentences can be paraphrased affirmatively to validate the claim that the negation falls only on the adverbial. (150) bears the paraphrase of (148); while (151) is the paraphrase of (149):

(150) [tadhabu selma biTTaaʔirati.]

((will go Selma by plane))

'Selma will go by plane.'

(151) [ʔamTarat ssamaaʔu qaliilan.]

((Rained the sky a little))

'It rained a little.'

In addition, adverbials like [qaTTu] 'never' and [ʔabadan] 'never' are normally used with negative sentences. They follow their verbs in perfect as in:

(152) [maa raʔaytahu qaTTu.]

((have seen him never))

'I have never seen.'

(153) [lam ʔusaafir ila xaariji lbaladi ʔabadan.][43]

---

[43][ʔabadan] can be used with affirmative sentences meaning 'for ever'
[yasiiruna ila nnaSri ʔabadan]
(Footnote continued)

((have not travelled I to outside the country
never))

'I have <u>never</u> travelled abroad.'

6.9.3.4 <u>VERB-MODIFYING ADVERBIALS IN INTERROGATIVES AND</u>
<u>IMPERATIVES</u>

In interrogative sentences VMAs are exclusively accommodated in final position. Shifting the adverbial to other positions will result in unacceptable sequences. In imperatives, VMAs are also accommodated, in the first place, in final position, but initial position, though rather less acceptable, is another habitat. Medial position is quite uncommon. Sentences (154) and (155) display all the possibilities mentioned above:

(154a) [hal ^{C}aaša <u>h</u>asan <u>Tawiilan</u> ?]

((Did Hasan live long))

'Did Hasan live <u>long</u>?'

(154b) *[<u>Tawiilan</u> hal ^{C}aaša <u>h</u>asan ?]

((Long did live Hasan))

*'<u>Long</u> did Hasan live?'

(154c) *[hal <u>Tawiilan</u> ^{C}aaša <u>h</u>asan ?]

((Did long live Hasan))

*'Did <u>long</u> Hasan live?'

(155a) [naaqiš lmawDuu^{C}a <u>bihiduu?in</u>.]

((Discuss the matter in quietness))

'Discuss the matter <u>quietly</u>.'

(155b) ?[naaqiš <u>bihiduu?in</u> lmawDuu^{C}a.]

((Discuss in quietness the matter))

'Discuss <u>quietly</u> the matter.'

(155c) [<u>bihiduu?in</u> naaqiš lmawDuu^{C}a.]

((In quietness discuss the matter))

'<u>Quietly</u> discuss the matter.'

6.9.3.5 <u>OBJECT-MODIFYING ADVERBIALS IN NEGATIVES,</u>

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[43] (continued)
'They <u>always</u> proceed towards victory.'

INTERROGATIVES AND IMPERATIVES

Object modifying adverbials behave in exactly the same way as VMAs do in the three sentence types. Below are examples illustrating that final position, i.e. to the left of the object, is the most natural. Initial and medial positions are awkward. Sentence (156) which can be paraphrased as in (157) is an illustration in favour of the adverbial involvement in negation:

(156) [lam yaqra? TTaalibu lkitaaba mufaSalan.]

((Did not read the student the book in detail))

'The student did not read the book in detail.'

(157) [qara?a TTaalibu lkitaaba mujazan.]

((Read the student the book in brief))

'The student read the book in brief.'

The same adverbial exemplified in (156) can be cited here to show that final position is the only acceptable one for OBJMAs in interrogatives and imperatives:

(158a) [hal qara?ta lkitaaba mufaSalan ?]

((Did read you the book in detail))

'Did you read the book in detail?'

(158b) *[mufaSalan hal qara?ta lkitaaba ?]

((In detail did read you the book))

?'In detail did you read the book?'

(158c) *[hal mufaSalan qara?ta lkitaaba ?]

((Did in detail read you the book))

*'Did in detail you read the book?'

(159a) [?iqra? lkitaaba mufaSalan.]

((Read the book in detail))

'Read the book in detail.'

(159b) *[mufaSalan ?iqra? lkitaaba]

((In detail read the book))

*'In detail read the book.'

(159c) *[?iqra? mufaSalani lkitaaba.]

((Read in detail the book))

*'Read in detail the book.'

6.10 VERB PHRASE-MODIFYING ADVERBIALS IN NEGATIVES, INTERROGATIVES AND IMPERATIVES

Members of this class do not radically differ in their behaviour from other members of the other classes. In negatives they are inside the scope of negation. A look at sentences (160;161) enables us to infer that the sentence negation does not deny the event of writing the work or of exercising pressures but the way they have been done:

(160) [lam yaktub TTaalibu lwaajiba bi^{C}inaayatin.]

((Did not write the student the homework

carefully))

'The student did not write the homework

carefully.'

(161) [fainna litihaad ssufyaati la yargab fi

mumaarasati DDuguuT jihaaran ^{C}ala l?anZima

mmuhaafiDa.]   Qu: 6/10/1989; 2/1

'The Soviet Union does not wish to exercising

pressures openly upon the conservative regimes.'

In interrogatives and imperatives VPMAs are normally found in final position. Initial position fluctuates in its acceptability in both sentence types. In interrogatives it is refused while in imperatives it is rather clumsy. Medial position, after the verb, is open for VPMAs in both types but not as frequent as final position. Sentences (162) and (163) display the occurrence of the adverbial in interrogatives and imperatives respectively:

(162a) [hal kataba zaydun rrisaalata bidiqqatin ?]

((Did wrote Zaid the letter accurately))

'Did Zaid write the letter accurately?'

(162b) [hal kataba bidiqqatin zaydun rrisaalata ?]

((Did wrote accurately Zaid the letter))

'Did Zaid write the letter accurately?'

(162c) *[bidiqqatin hal kataba zaydun rrisaalata ?]

((Accurately did wrote Zaid the letter))

*'Accurately did Zaid write the letter?'

(163a) [?uktub waajibaka bi^Cinaayatin.]

((Write homework your carefully))

'Write your homework carefully.'

(163b) [?uktub bi^Cinaayatin waajibaka.]

((Write carefully your homework))

'Write your homework carefully.'

(163c) ?[bi^Cinaayatin ?uktub waajibaka.]

((Carefully write your homework))

?'Carefully write your homework.'

6.11 ADVERBIALS USED CONSECUTIVELY

It is argued that when more than one adverbial in Arabic is used consecutively, their order is so flexible that they can permute fairly freely with each other. This seems to be a matter of stylistic preference or of idiosyncratic predilection. It is true to a certain extent that Arabic native speakers are not quite willing to cluster adverbials (modifiers) in one sentence. If they should do so, they avail themselves of the privilege of word order flexibility and vary adverbial positions. The interchangeability of such positions results, presumably, from the fact that no grammatical rules have been set up for adverbials to appear in a series. However, this section tries to arrange members of the three classes of the classification in accordance with the two principles of hierarchy and comitation. The examples to be cited, though they are few, show that some members of the same class can cooccur in one sentence with the proviso that they are not of the same semantic class. If used they produce an unacceptable sentence as in:

(164) *[qara?tu lkitaba mufaSalan kalimatan kalima.]

((Read I the book in detail word by word))

*'I read the book in detail word by word.'

(165) *[mina lmuhtamali qad masaqa lwaladu lkitaaba

jaliyyan ^camdan.]

((Probably has torn up the boy the book
    evidently deliberately))

*'Probably the boy torn up the book evidently
    deliberately.]

(166) *[^caadatan ya^cuudu l?abu ila lbayti mubakkiran
    mirraran.]

((Usually returns the father to the house early
    frequently.]

*'Usually the father returns to the house early
    frequently.'

The above sentences would appear in their correct sequences
when one of these adverbials is dropped. They would look like

(167) [qara?tu lkitaaba kalimatan kalima.]

((Read I the book word by word))

'I read the book word by word.'

(168) [mina lmuhtamali qad masaqa lwaladu lkitaaba
    ^camdan.]

((Probably has torn up the boy the book
    deliberately))

'Probably, the boy has torn up the book
    deliberately.'

(169) [^caadatan ya^cuudu l?abu ila lbaiti mubakkiran.]

((Usually returns the father to the house early))

'Usually, the father returns to the house early.'

Now it is worth considering examples where two adverbials of
the same group can appear in succession:

(170) [habaTa TTayyaaru haadi?an mubtasiman.]

((landed the pilot quietly smiling))

'The pilot landed quietly and smiling.'

(171) [faintafaDa rrajulu ġaDiban haaniqan wa ?axada
    yuhajumuni bala rahma.]   Qu: 5/10/1989; 7/8

'The man burst out angrily and resentfully and
    began attacking me with no mercy.'

(172) [tumTir ssamaaʔu hunaa <u>Sabaaha</u> <u>masaaʔa</u>.]

((Rained the sky here morning evening))

'It rained here <u>every</u> <u>morning</u> <u>and</u> <u>evening</u>.'

The appearance of the adverbials in (172) in this form gives the sentence the meaning that it rains every morning and every evening. But if they are used genitively, i.e. they are in [ʔalʔiDaafa] 'the annexation construction', they would arguably make the sentence have a different meaning. Sentence (173)

(173) [tumTir ssamaaʔu huna <u>Sabaaha</u> <u>masaaʔin</u>.]

((Rained the sky here morning evening))

'It rained here <u>every</u> <u>morning</u> <u>and</u> <u>evening</u>.'

raises a controversy among Arab grammarians in that some say that the meaning remains intact while others opine that the meaning would be different. The advocate of the latter opinion claim that the meaning is confined to the first adverbial. [44] In some instances, the same adverbial is reduplicated for the sake of emphasis. Such a reduplication is called 'verbal corroboration'. Examples:

(174) [<u>ʔalyawma</u> <u>ʔalyawma</u> yaSilu ʔaxi.]

((Today today will arrive brother my))

'<u>Today</u> <u>today</u> my brother will arrive.'

(175) [huwa jaari <u>bayta</u> <u>bayta</u>.]

((he neighbour house house))

'He is my <u>next</u> <u>door</u> <u>neighbour</u>.'

Members of different classes may enter into contextual cooccurrence. The order in which they appear is not always random but often governed by certain conventions. They are arrayed in a hierarchy of modification in which SMAs follow other adverbials in final position:

(176) [wayantaqilu nnaasu <u>bihuriyatin</u> <u>fi</u> <u>lqudsi</u>.]

Qu: 3/10/1989; 5/5

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[44] al SSuyuuti (n.d. part 1 :196-198)

'The people are moving <u>freely</u> <u>in Jerusalem</u>.'

(177) [yusaafiru mu<u>h</u>aafiZ lbank lmarkazi lamriki <u>ila</u>

<u>mausku</u> <u>fibidaayati</u> l?sbuu<u>^Ca</u> <u>lmuqbili</u>...]

Qu: 5/10/1989; 9/1

'The Governor of the American Central Bank

travels <u>to</u> <u>Moscow</u> <u>early</u> <u>next</u> <u>week</u>.'

(178) [intaqalat asraabu jjaraadi <u>bisur^Catin</u> <u>ila</u> <u>lyemen</u>

<u>yawma</u> <u>?amsi</u>.]   Qu: 6/10/1989; 9/1

'The swarm of locusts moved <u>swiftly</u> <u>to</u> <u>Yemen</u>

<u>yesterday</u>.'

The order of the adverbials displayed in the above sentences reveals that each adverbial is positioned to the left of its head. Such order, for instance in (178), renders the interpretation that [<u>yawma</u> <u>?amsi</u>] 'yesterday' comes higher in the hierarchy of modification as it modifies the whole sentence [intaqalat asraabu jjaraadi <u>bisur^Catin</u> <u>ila</u> <u>lyemen</u>]. The adverbial [<u>ila</u> <u>lyemen</u>] is to the left of the sentence it modifies: [intaqalat asraabu jjaraadi <u>bisur^Catin</u>] and [<u>bisur^Catin</u>] is to the left of its head [intaqalat asraabu jjaraadi]. The assumption that [yawma ?amsi] 'yesterday, is higher in the hierarchy of modification may be suggested by the greater felicity of [kaana yawma ?amsi ^Cindamaa intaqalat asraabu jjaraadi <u>bisur^Catin</u> <u>ila</u> <u>lyemen</u>] 'It was yesterday when the swarm of locusts moved <u>swiftly</u> <u>to</u> <u>Yemen</u>' when compared with ?[kaana ila lyemen (^Cindamaa) intaqalat asraabu jjaraadi <u>bisur^Catin</u> yawma ?amsi] 'It was to Yemen (when) the swarm of locusts moved <u>swiftly</u> <u>yesterday</u>.'

   Though that distinction is fine, it is not a straightforward one. It embraces three conflicts: the first is between the normal position and the relative length of the adverbials in that single word adverbials usually precede longer ones as in

(179) [yaSilu zaydun <u>Sabaahan</u> <u>ila</u> <u>lqaahirati</u>.]

((Will arrive Zaid morning to the Cairo))

'Zaid will arrive <u>in</u> <u>the</u> <u>morning</u> <u>to</u> <u>Cairo</u>.'

The second conflict is the pressure of word order to make adverbials interchange positions. The last one is that adverbials suggested by the verb meaning follow immediately their verbs preceding other adverbial types, e.g.

(180) [?istamarra l̲h̲aflu <u>ͨašra</u> <u>saaͨatin</u> <u>fi</u>

<u>madiinatina</u>.]

((Lasted the party ten hours in city our))

'The festival lasted <u>ten</u> <u>hours</u> <u>in</u> <u>our</u> <u>city</u>.'

However, it is not necessary to dispense with that handy way of placing each adverbial to the left of its head as it gives a clearer illustration of the situation.

It is worth noting that the successive order of the adverbials given above has been related to post verbal elements. Adverbials can theoretically cluster at initial or medial positions yet the sentence would be quite implausible to native speakers. The Arabic data in hand provide no good examples where adverbials appear successively in these positions. Therefore, there is no need to create artificial examples.

6.12 CONCLUSION

A quick glance at the adverbial typology presented in the foregoing chapter leads to a conclusion that other adverbial classes than those recognised by Arab Grammarians could be identified in a variety of ways which leaves no doubt that they exist in the language and in the minds of speakers. The agglomeration of words which has been brought under this label suggested once more how heterogeneous it is. This of course discredits this class and makes it notoriously difficult to define. At all events, this chapter set out those language items which can assume adverbial function. These adverbially-identified categories showed that morphology was the prominent characteristic they share. They have been distinguished on the basis of their structural make-up and

hence have been allocated to the type they represented. The difference in type was in general signalled by the form of these adverbials themselves. For instance the two classificatory adverbials [musri^{C}an] 'hurriedly' and [sarii^{C}an] 'quickly' could be assigned to two different classes. The former was identified as a SUBMA while the latter was designated as a VMA. Semantics served as an expedient to allocate adverbials of a similar form to the type to which each pertained. This was shown when dealing with forms like [faj?atan] 'suddenly' and [miraaran] 'frequently', the first of which denoted the manner of how an action was done, while the second referred to the time at which the proposition of the sentence was expressed. As for classification, the chapter tried to make the adopted criteria coincide in order to avoid inconsistency. Adverbials have been classified on the grounds of their function, i.e. what sentence constituent(s) they incorporate in their modification. On the basis of such an account, positions have been defined, taking into consideration the number of steps in a hierarchy of modification. As far as position is concerned, the examples cited throughout the chapter revealed that an adverbial is so mercurial that it would float freely, with few exceptions, into various possible positions. This was not always true of all kinds of sentences. Sentence type, whether it is imperative, interrogative, or negative played a part in determining the suitability of adverbials for being accommodated in the sentence concerned. However, the mobility of the adverbial was fostered by the variety of word orders that Arabic tolerates. Such a variety in Arabic word order was substantiated by citing many exemplifying sentences where words, contrary to English, were liable to commute positions with no resulting change in their syntactic positions. In this respect, the role of case markers was crucial in designating the word function. To avoid the welter of confusion threatened

by this kind of variation, adverbials of different types were apportioned to the identifiable classes and on the same basis: adverbial function. Members of these identifiable classes were comfortably positioned to the left of their heads. Other positions varied in their acceptability. Alternatively, apart from those adverbials which showed sharp limitation in their occurrence, initial position was a step nearer to acceptability than other possible positions, presumably because some purpose, like emphasis, for example, was intended to be achieved. Most of these adverbials were omissible without impairing the meaning of the sentence. On the other hand, some of these adverbials were essential to keeping the sentence syntactically and semantically well-formed. They were essential in the sense that they were inherently suggested by the verb. Yet one may argue that the precedings are mere speculations and need a pragmatic device to attest their implications. This is what the next chapter provides: an investigation which examines native speakers' judgements.

CHAPTER SEVEN: <u>ARABIC QUESTIONNAIRE</u>

7.1 <u>DESIGN</u>

The questionnaire for Arabic adverbial positions implied the same goals and techniques followed in the questionnaire administered to the English material (chapter 5). The adverbials classified by this study were also distributed randomly to elicit all possible positions accessible for them. The appearance of most types of adverbial either individually or consecutively in different places in the various sentence structures was examined. The reason for the exclusion of some types is that their inclusion would make the questionnaire less realistic because of their cumbersomeness in certain sentence structures. Anyway, each variant with a given item was rated on the same acceptability scale (a five point scale) that was used for the English questionnaire. The variables on that scale ranged from normal (1) to abnormal (5) which, for statistical purposes, were given the same numerical grades (cf. p130). The clear difference between the two questionnaires is the number of sentences. Whereas it was eighty sentence blocks for the English questionnaire, it was only fifty for Arabic with an average of five variants. The fewer sentence blocks for the Arabic questionnaire can be accounted for by two reasons:

1. The adverbials in Arabic are much less recognised than English ones, which are well recognised.

2. These adverbials are newly classified compared with English where there is a large number of generally accepted

items. Therefore, it is difficult or perhaps controversial to create as substantial a list of these newly categorised adverbials as that of English.

Subjects were informed about the aim of this questionnaire and asked to evaluate the acceptability of its sentences instantly: according to their immediate reaction. They were also given the directions for ticking off the box which strongly matched their choice. They were requested to be more patient when answering the questionnaire.

7.2 Subjects

Fifty subjects representing ten Arab countries participated in this study. All of them were postgraduate students doing research in different specializations. They were randomly chosen, taking into account their willingness to respond to the questionnaire. It might be argued that the subjects might be influenced by regional varieties in their assessment of adverbial acceptability. Such an argument is so weak that many reasons militate against it. The most important reason is that MSA enjoys greater prestige than does any other regional variety. Furthermore, these varieties have not ever been the medium of instruction or of written works,[1] a fact which confirms that MSA has been and still prevails as the medium of instruction in which those informants were educated. All of the data were computed utilizing the same statistical technique used for the English material.

7.3 RESULTS

It was noted that some variants, though very few, were left unmarked. This is presumably because subjects experienced discomfort in responding to the large number of

sentences at hand. Another note is registered that subjects might have been influenced by the range of word order that Arabic offers and perhaps saw most of these sentences as virtually synonymous. At the extreme, they might have been reluctant to categorise the items in question as adverbials. Thus, some of them were, in some cases, hesitant over what variable to choose specifically between the first two: more acceptable (normal) or less acceptable (fairly normal). This kind of uncertainty was also shown as none of the variants was completely rejected even when it was ungrammatical.

Sentence complexity had an effect on subjects' choices in that the more constituents the sentence contained the farther away the adverbial was placed. In other words, subjects placed the adverbial examined at the end of the sentence wherever they were confronted with longer sentences. Furthermore, they were not expected to be utterly free from the effects of fatigue or lapses of interest. These psychological factors explain any random responses given by subjects. However, aside from these problems, subjects' responses were clear enough to construct an illustration for positions of different types of Arabic adverbials. Let us go through the results and see how the respondents reacted towards each class of adverbials classified by this study:

7.4 SENTENCE-MODIFYING ADVERBIALS

7.4.1 SENTENCE-MODIFYING ADVERBIALS IN DECLARATIVES

Though it was said that an adverbial in Arabic can appear anywhere in the sentence, the results indicate that subjects' responses denied this mobility. A fairly large

proportion did not allow the adverbial examined in certain positions, mainly between the verb and subject of the sentence or between the subject and object of the sentence. So far as position is concerned, subjects agreed that the exponents of SMAs favour initial position; however, their responses varied from one item to another. The reason for this can be attributed to the adverbial itself or to another factor: sentence complexity. The inherent properties of the adverbial investigated were, in general, responsible for the differences in the acceptability means. That is, the adverbial which carried the speaker's central attention scored lower means than other adverbials did. The adverbial [^{c}ajaban] 'surprisingly', which showed limitation in its occurrence, can be taken as a good example of this point. In the following five tables 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5 the analysed data for SMAs in declarative sentences are relayed in exactly the same way as shown in the tables of chapter five. Positions, for the sake of space, are numbered in a condensed sentence which appears just above the table concerned.

Table 1

$-\frac{1}{-}$?inna$\frac{2}{-}$--1^{c}ilaaqaati$\frac{3}{-}$--baynana-$\frac{4}{-}$-fi taḥassunin

mustamirrin-$\frac{5}{-}$- (ḥaqqan)
The relations among us are in continuous progress (Actually)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	1.480	32	12	6			
2	4.680	1	1	1	7	40	
3	3.347	5	8	12	13	11	1
4	2.380	12	17	13	6	2	
5	2.440	16	12	10	8	4	

Table 2

$-\underline{1}-$ttamma$-\underline{2}-$zzawaaju$-\underline{3}-$bayna$-\underline{4}-$lxaTiibayni (ʔaxiiran)
The marriage was held between the two fiances (At last)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	1.200	41	8	1			
2	1.940	16	26	4	3	1	
3	2.360	14	13	14	9		
4	2.180	16	16	11	7		

Table 3

$-\underline{1}-$yazuuru$-\underline{2}-$qaysun$-\underline{3}-$bayta$-\underline{4}-$^{c}ammihi $-\underline{5}-$ (ʔaḥyaanan)
Qays visits his uncle's house (occasionally)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	1.860	13	31	6			
2	3.160	1	7	28	11	3	
3	2.820	5	16	13	15	1	
4	4.700		2	1	5	42	
5	1.200	42	6	2			

Table 4

$-\underline{1}-$sawfa$-\underline{2}-$yabdaʔu$-\underline{3}-$rrajulu$-\underline{4}-$l^{c}amala$-\underline{5}-$ (qariiban)
The man will start work (soon)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	1.620	15	19	6			
2	4.320	1	1	6	15	27	
3	3.580	3	6	11	19	11	
4	2.860	2	15	22	10	1	
5	1.280	39	10	1			

---

[1]Though some parts of written works, especially novels and plays, were recorded in a local form of Arabic.

Table 5

$-\frac{1}{}-$ʔinna lfataata$-\frac{2}{}-$qad$-\frac{3}{}-$tağayyrat$-\frac{4}{}-$kaṯiiran$-\frac{5}{}-$ (^{C}ajaban)
The girl has changed much (surprisingly)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	1.400	37	9	2	1	1	
2	3.020	2	15	20	6	7	
3	4.820			2	5	43	
4	4.140	1	3	3	24	19	
5	3.180	5	14	10	9	12	

The above tables vividly reveal that subjects' responses to the exponents of SMAs did not hold constant. This is reflected in the means scored by the three adverbials [ḥaqqan] 'actually', [ʔaxiiran] 'at last', and [^{C}ajaban] 'surprisingly' of tables 1, 2, and 5 which have registered the lowest acceptability values of 1.480, 1.200, 1.400 respectively for initial position and next in acceptability was scored by final position. Whereas the other two adverbials [ʔaḥyaanan] 'sometimes', and [qariiban] 'soon' have scored higher values 1.860, 1.620 for initial position and lower acceptability means 1.200, 1.280 were allocated to final position. The adverbial [^{C}ajaban] had a different distributionary scale in that it was rejected in all positions except the initial one. The contrast in subjects' responses was probably due to the two factors already mentioned: the adverbial itself and the sentence structure. What is of relevance here is that [^{C}ajaban], which was allowed only in initial position, internalized the two factors. Its semantic trait made the subjects allow it in initial position (37 for normal variable and 9 for fairly normal) and reject other positions. It might be said that

these inadmissible positions for [^{C}ajaban] would possibly
have turned out to be acceptable if prosodic information
were available like a pause at final position and/or a
volume rise at some variants of medial position.

The effect of sentence structure on the subjects'
responses was obvious. In simpler sentences, the adverbial
had more freedom in appearing in most places while longer
sentences imposed restrictions on the adverbial movement.
What is crucial here is the existence of [?inna] that helped
the adverbials [ḥaqqan] and [^{C}ajaban] (of tables 1 and 5)
predispose initial position. More needs to be added about
[^{C}ajaban] in that its sentence contains another adverbial
[katiiran] 'much', which might increase the subjects' unease
about accepting it in other positions. As for other
adverbials, this type of effect varies. Whereas the
positions occupied by [?axiiran] (table 2) range from being
normal to fairly normal, those of [?aḥyaanan] and [qariiban]
of tables 3 and 4 show a slightly different range of
acceptability. They have recorded lower means (1.200)
(1.280) for final position than they have for initial
position (1.860) (1.620). In addition to the factor of
sentence structure, this is, presumably, attributed to the
adverbial semantic implication. Subjects might have
considered those adverbials which denoted time specification
peripheral to the sentence structure and hence relegated
them to the end of the sentence. With regard to medial
position , it does not always seem a comfortable place for
most SMAs. To this end, it was rated from being rare to
being abnormal, with the exception of the sentence of
[?axiiran] 'at last' and one variant of [ḥaqqan] 'actually'

on which the two factors mentioned above were effective. Indeed, the proportion of subjects refusing the adverbial [ʔahyaanan] 'sometimes' of table 3 in positions 2, and 3 is roughly the same as that for [qariiban] of table 4 in positions 3 and 4. The slight difference in means between position 3 of table 3 and position 4 of table 4 is related to morphological reasons: the object of the sentence displayed in table 3 is a two word object while that of the sentence of table 4 is of one word. This might increase the difficulty about the acceptability of that position. Table 4 also shows the adverbial was hardly ever given a position immediately after the particle [sawfa] which is considered a part of the verb.

7.4.2 SENTENCE-MODIFYING ADVERBIALS IN NEGATIVES

The results clearly indicate that the majority of subjects favoured initial position for SMAs in negatives. Final position was viewed the next acceptable. But the responses for medial position fluctuated owing to the form of the adverbial. To illustrate this, the two sentences of the questionnaire together with the number of responses each position scored are displayed in tables (6) and (7):

Table 6

$-\frac{1}{-}$-laa-$\frac{2}{-}$-ʔatanaawalu-$\frac{3}{-}$-ssukara-$\frac{4}{-}$-ma^{c}a ššaayi-$\frac{5}{-}$ (^{c}aadatan)
I do not have sugar in tea. (usually)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	1.571	30	11	7	1		1
2	4.720	1		1	8	40	
3	2.388	10	20	10	8	1	1
4	2.280	12	18	14	6		
5	1.660	27	15	6	2		

Table 7

-$\frac{1}{-}$-lam-$\frac{2}{-}$-tuxbirka-$\frac{3}{-}$-hinduni-$\frac{4}{-}$-lbušra-$\frac{5}{-}$- (^{c}an ġayri qaSdin)
Hind did not tell you the good news (unintentionally)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	2.122	18	19	2	8	2	1
2	4.920				4	46	
3	3.340		8	24	11	7	
4	3.300	6	4	13	23	4	
5	2.140	21	13	7	6	3	

A glance at the above two tables indicates that the degree of subjects' reactions towards the two adverbials, though they are used in virtually similar environments, was strikingly different. Subjects expressed their dissatisfaction with the adverbial [^{c}an ġaÝri qaSdin] 'unintentionally' in almost all possible positions especially medial position: 84% for the position immediately after the verb; 80% between the subject and object of the sentence and 100% for the position immediately after the negative particle, whereas they accepted, though slightly differently, the adverbial [^{c}aadatan] 'usually' in all positions except one: after the negative particle. We can presume that the double negatives found in the sentence of table (7), besides the longer adverbial, might provoke subjects' distaste.

7.4.3 SENTENCE-MODIFYING ADVERBIALS IN INTERROGATIVES

The results for the interrogative sentences with SMAs show that subjects complied with what was mentioned earlier of the priority of question words to initiate a sentence. Thus far we can generally see that final position registered

the highest acceptable responses, medial position was less acceptable, initial position was rare. This does not hold true of all the sentences examined. Subjects were at variance with the above priority for the sentence where the adverbial [Saraahatan] 'frankly' of table (10) was used. Those (41) who accommodated [Saraahatan] in initial position, presumably, conceived the sufficient force it had that helped it appear in that position. Such force carries the speaker's comment, not his attitude, on the style and form of what he is saying. Tables 8, 9, 10 display the means and the number of responses given to each position where the adverbials [fi^{C}lan] 'really', [?alyawma] 'today' and [Saraahatan] 'frankly' are placed:

Table 8

$-\frac{1}{-}$?atuhibu$-\frac{2}{-}$l^{C}amala$-\frac{3}{-}$fi haadi lmadiinati$-\frac{4}{-}$?(fi^{C}lan)
Do you like working in this city ? (Really)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	3.180	2	10	20	13	5	
2	1.720	24	18	6	2		
3	2.200	17	18	6	6	3	
4	1.380	36	9	5			

Table 9

$-\frac{1}{-}$hal$-\frac{2}{-}$yuftatahu$-\frac{3}{-}$lma^{C}riDu$-\frac{4}{-}$? (?alyawma)
Is the exhibition open ? (Today)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	3.060	6	11	13	14	6	
2	2.620	5	20	17	4	4	
3	2.460	9	21	10	8	2	
4	1.100	46	3	1			

Table 10

[-_1_-hal-_2_-ʔanta-_3_-raaDin-_4_-^{c}an ^{c}amalika ljadiidi-_5_- ?]
[Saraahatan]
Are you satisfied with your new work ?(Frankly)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	1.800	20	21	7	2		
2	3.560	3	6	14	14	13	
3	3.160	10	7	8	15	10	
4	2.460	9	20	13	5	3	
5	1.900	25	13	6	4	2	

The same graphical technique used for English material to plot these positions in a diagram is used here. Scatterplot A1 (appendix 1) summarizes the positions discussed above. It illustrates that beyond the tolerance of Arabic word order there are some kinds of restrictions being imposed to ration adverbial movement in the sentence. Despite these restrictions which emanate from the influential factors discussed earlier (chapter six), the line of normality shows that there are many places open for SMAs.

7.5 CLAUSE-ELEMENT MODIFYING ADVERBIALS

7.5.1 SUBJECT-MODIFYING ADVERBIALS

7.5.1.1 SUBJECT-MODIFYING ADVERBIALS IN DECLARATIVES

The results for the sentences with SUBMAs indicate that subjects might be influenced by the general belief that modifiers should properly cluster at the end of the sentence. This is clear when most of the participants preferred final position to the position immediately after the subject of the sentence. In this respect, the type of the verb was dominant in affecting the subjects' choices and clearly made them unwilling to separate the verb from its complement

(cf comitation principle). The extent of this factor was more patent in the sentence with the verb [daxala] 'entered' of table 12 whose requirement for complement was stronger than the other verbs of tables 11 and 13. To this end, it is noted that thirty-three informants disallowed the adverbial [musri^{C}an] 'hurriedly' in the position immediately after the subject. This conforms with what was stated in the previous chapter, that adverbials which are essentially required by the meaning of the verb should precede other adverbials.

Other positions, namely initial and medial, after the verb were seen as rare or dubious. Tables 11, 12, 13 show that the differences in the scores of acceptability were brought about by the variation of subjects' responses which were distributed over almost all positions. This points to the subjects' uncertainty over the acceptability or rejection of these positions.

Table 11

-$\frac{1}{}$-waSala-$\frac{2}{}$-TTayyaar-$\frac{3}{}$-ila lmaTaari-$\frac{4}{}$- (saaliman)
The pilot arrived to the airport. (Safely)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	3.320	1	7	21	17	4	
2	4.040	1	5	8	13	23	
3	1.540	23	27				
4	1.160	42	8				

Table 12

-$\frac{1}{}$-daxala-$\frac{2}{}$-lmudiiru-$\frac{3}{}$-lqaa^{C}ata-$\frac{4}{}$- (musri^{C}an)
The manager entered the hall (hurriedly)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	2.560	5	22	15	6	2	
2	3.140	1	11	23	10	5	
3	3.180	6	11	13	8	12	
4	1.180	44	5			1	

Table 13

-[1]-yadhabu-[2]-nabiilun-[3]-ila lmadrasati-[4]- (maašiyan)
Nabiil goes to school. (on foot)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	2.540	4	26	10	9	1	
2	2.880	4	9	27	9	1	
3	1.980	19	17	10	4		
4	1.160	44	5		1		

What emerges from the above tables is that their results show a symmetrical relationship. Tables 11 and 13 have somewhat corresponding positions. Position 4 of the two tables scored the same acceptability mean: 1.160. Position 3, though it has no exactly corresponding figure, was seen as fairly normal. Positions 1 and 2 have different values. Although the adverbials of the same tables in position 1 were given different responses for their acceptability, they were still seen as rare in that position. Position 2 was the only one which was viewed differently: it is rare in the sentence of table 13, dubious in the sentence of table 11. In conclusion, it appears from the above three tables that the form had an effect on the respondents' choices in the sense that [maašiyan] would indicate a pronunciation rhyming with [saaliman]. Therefore, subjects treated [musri[c]an] 'hurriedly' differently from [saaliman] 'safely' and [maašiyan] 'on foot' which were treated almost similarly.

As was mentioned earlier, SUBMAs can appear in the form of a sentence. For such a sentence, the results reveal that there is a high level of agreement that position after the subject was the only one seen as normal. There was no common

agreement about the acceptability of other positions as shown in table 14:

Table 14

$-\frac{1}{-}$jaa?ati$-\frac{2}{-}$lmu^{C}alimatu$-\frac{3}{-}$ (taDhaku)
The teacher came. (laughing)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	3.060	1	20	11	11	7	
2	3.280	2	13	17	5	13	
3	1.040	48	2				

7.5.1.2 SUBJECT-MODIFYING ADVERBIALS IN OTHER SENTENCE TYPES

The results for the sentences, other than declaratives, with SUBMAs illustrate that subjects did not conform fully to the priority of the position immediately after the subject which was set by this study for such type of adverbial. They inverted this priority when they regarded final position as normal and the position immediately after the subject of the sentence as fairly normal as they did in many cases for declaratives. Approximately the same factor whose effect led the informants to accommodate the adverbial in declaratives late in the sentence worked here as well: Modifiers as peripheral to the sentence structure gravitate to the end of the sentence. Other positions are either rare or dubious. Table 15 shows the distribution of the means together with the responses given for the negative sentence with [mubtasiman] 'smiling':

Table 15

$-\underline{1}-$lam$-\underline{2}-$ya?ati$-\underline{3}-$l?usstaadu$-\underline{4}-$ila lqaa^{c}ati$-\underline{5}-$(mubtasiman)
The professor did not come to the theatre (smiling)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	3.900	1	5	7	22	15	
2	4.880			2	2	46	
3	3.240	2	10	18	14	6	
4	1.960	17	23	6	3	1	
5	1.320	36	12	2			

For SUBMAs in interrogative sentences, the following tables (16, 17, 18) clearly display acceptability ratings for sentences with [šaxSiyan] 'personally', [raakiDatan] 'running' and [Daahikan] 'laughing' where final position is considered as normal, medial position after the subject as fairly normal. Initial position and other variants of medial position are either rare or dubious

Table 16

$-\underline{1}-$hal$-\underline{2}-$takalamta$-\underline{3}-$fi lmu?tamari$-\underline{4}-$? (šaxSiyan)
Did you speak in the conference ? (Personally)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	3.000	4	14	16	10	6	
2	3.020	3	14	15	15	3	
3	1.700	29	11	7	2	1	
4	1.240	39	10	1			

Table 17

$-\underline{1}$-hal-$\underline{2}$-jaaʔati-$\underline{3}$-lTaalibatu-$\underline{4}$-ila   lmadras$\overset{5}{\text{a}}$ti---   ?
(raakiDatan)
Did the (she) student come to school? (running)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	3.860		2	15	21	12	
2	3.300	3	12	12	13	10	
3	3.082	2	12	20	10	5	1
4	1.520	29	16	5			
5	1.220	42	6	1	1		

Table 18

$-\underline{1}$-ʔaraʔata-$\underline{2}$-haada mu^{c}alima-$\underline{3}$-fi SSaffi-$\underline{4}$- ? (Daahikan)
Do you see this teacher in the class? (laughing)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	4.200		5	5	15	25	
2	3.340	1	13	14	12	10	
3	1.580	30	14	3	3		
4	1.640	27	16	5	2		

A quick glance at the above three tables indicates that they have something in common, which is the closeness of the means for unpreferred positions as well as of the means for preferable positions. Such an indication mirrors the fact that strings of words in a sentence do not appear haphazardly but are governed by what is called 'common sense'.

The results for SUBMAs in imperative sentences reveal that respondents reacted more positively to this sentence type as there is a clear acceptance for all positions. This is presumably because of the sentence structure which was so simple that it produced more acceptability values, yet the position to the left of the subject scored more degrees of acceptability as displayed in table 19:

Table 19

$-\frac{1}{-}$takalam$-\frac{2}{-}$ma^{c}a nnaasi$-\frac{3}{-}$. (haadi?an)
Speak to people. (Quietly)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	2.440	4	24	19	2	1	
2	1.860	24	13	10	2	1	
3	1.180	42	7	1			

7.5.2 VERB-MODIFYING ADVERBIALS

7.5.2.1 VERB-MODIFYING ADVERBIALS IN DECLARATIVES

The sizable positive responses towards the sentences with VMAs confirm that informants complied with the expectations of this study in that this type of adverbial can appear in most positions, favouring the final one. Non-compliances were registered for positions where the adverbial came between the verb and subject of the sentence or between the subject and object of the sentence. The means and responses in tables 20, 21, 22, 23, 24 give a clear picture of subjects' reactions towards the sentences with [daa?iman] 'always', [Damman šadiidan] 'fervently', [bidiqqatin] 'precisely', [min qablu] 'before', and [sarii^{c}an] 'quickly' which in total provide good evidence to the above discussion.

Table 20

$-\frac{1}{-}$?aštari$-\frac{2}{-}$haajaati$-\frac{3}{-}$min haada lmaxzani$-\frac{4}{-}$ (daa?iman)
I buy my things from this shop (always)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	2.100	19	14	10			
2	2.300	8	26	7	7	2	
3	1.520	29	16	5			
4	2.120	20	13	10	5	2	

Table 21

$-\underline{1}-$Dammat$-\underline{2}-$lʔummu$-\underline{3}-$bintahaa$-\underline{4}-$ila   Sadrihaa$\underline{5}---$ (Damman sadiidan)

The mother embraced her daughter (fervently)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	3.520	3	7	14	13	13	
2	3.540	2	3	22	12	11	
3	3.220	1	12	17	15	5	
4	1.940	14	26	9	1		
5	1.240	39	10	1			

Table 22

$-\underline{1}-$ya^{c}rifu$-\underline{2}-$rraʔiisu$-\underline{3}-$xuTuurata lmawqifi$-\underline{4}-$ (bidiqqatin)

The president knows the critical situation (precisely)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	2.380	4	28	13	5		
2	2.920	6	11	17	13	3	
3	1.820	18	25	5	2		
4	1.260	40	8	1	1		

Table 23

$-\underline{1}-$sami^{c}a$-\underline{2}-$muSTafa$-\underline{3}-$lhikaayata$-\underline{4}-$ (min qablu)

Mustafa heard the tale (before)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	2.540	5	23	14	7	1	
2	3.020	1	14	10	18	2	
3	2.520	5	23	14	7	1	
4	1.160	45	2	3			

Table 24

$-\underline{1}-$jara$-\underline{2}-$lʔarnabu$-\underline{3}-$ (sarii^{c}an)

The rabbit ran (quickly)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	2.280	2	35	10	3		
2	3.200	1	12	20	10	7	
3	1.020	49	1				

Tables 21 and 23 have distributionary scales of responses
which are different from those of tables 21 and 24. This
difference is the consequence of the special environments in
which the two sentences of tables 21 and 23 were used. The
sentence of table 21 whose adverbial is derived from the
same verb together with the adjective operates as a VMA.
Such a composite needs to be placed to the left of its head:
the verb. The sentence of table 23 has the adverbial [qablu]
which manifests some kind of idiosyncratic predilection
which places it sentence finally.

In compound sentences, VMAs were accommodated in the
same position offered to them in the above tables. The
results for such sentences show that subjects decidedly
chose the position for the adverbial examined next to its
associate verb. Any position near the other verb which had
no semantic collocation with the adverbial was held in
disfavour by the majority of informants. Those (34%) who
allowed [^{c}amdan] 'deliberately' in initial position might
have intended to place more emphasis on it and hence make it
more prominent. The position between the verb and the object
was dubiously rated on the assumption that any element
separating the verb and its object would decrease sentence
acceptability. Those (58%) who rated position 3 (immediately
after the subject) as fairly normal might relate its
modification tendency to the subject of the sentence. The
means of table 25 reflect the above discussion:

Table 25

$-\frac{1}{c}$-Ɂa^{c}taqidu-$\frac{2}{}$-Ɂanna lfataata-$\frac{3}{}$-kasarati-$\frac{4}{}$-ššubbaaka-$\frac{5}{}$-(^{c}amdan)

I believe that the girl broke the window (deliberately)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	3.220	1	16	13	11	9	
2	3.880	1	5	10	17	17	
3	2.460	4	25	16	4	1	
4	3.660	1	5	17	14	13	
5	1.040	49		1			

7.5.2.2 VERB-MODIFYING ADVERBIALS IN OTHER SENTENCE TYPES

As for VMAs in negatives, the results show that they were primarily allowed in final position but they also were placed in another position: after the verb which was considered as fairly normal. Initial position was seen as rare. Table 26 displays the means and the number of responses given to each position occupied by the adverbial [muTlaqan] 'absolutely'

Table 26

$-\frac{1}{}$-laa-$\frac{2}{}$-Ɂuwaafiqu-$\frac{3}{}$-^{c}alaa Ɂiqtiraahika-$\frac{4}{}$- (muTlaqan)

I do not agree to your proposal (absolutely)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	2.551	6	20	14	8	1	1
2	4.880			1	4	45	
3	1.760	22	21	4	3		
4	1.160	43	6	1			

In imperative sentences with VMAs, final position was also chosen as normal. Initial position was seen as fairly normal, medial rare or dubious. Table 27 and 28 display the means for the sentences [Ɂudkuru llaaha katiiran] 'remember

God much' and [naaqiš lmauDuu^{C}a bihiduu?in] 'Discuss the

matter quietly' where [ka_tiiran] 'much' and [bihiduu?in]

'quietly' operate as VMAs:

Table 27

-$\frac{1}{-}$-?udkuru-$\frac{2}{-}$-llaaha-$\frac{3}{-}$- (ka_tiiran)
Remember God (much)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	2.420	3	29	13	4	1	
2	3.540	11	17	6	16		
3	1.020	49	1				

Table 28

-$\frac{1}{-}$-naaqiš-$\frac{2}{-}$-lmauDuu^{C}a-$\frac{3}{-}$- (bihiduu?in)
Discuss the matter (quietly)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	2.420	3	30	12	3	2	
2	3.020	3	12	21	9	5	
3	1.120	46	3		1		

With regard to VMAs in interrogative sentences, they were

not incorporated in the questionnaire sentences since they

are not very commonly used.

7.5.3 OBJECT-MODIFYING ADVERBIALS

7.5.3.1 OBJECT-MODIFYING ADVERBIALS IN DECLARATIVES

The results indicate that there is almost universal

acceptance of final position as the most natural position

for such types of adverbial. However, many positive response

patterns, for some adverbials, were allocated to initial

position bringing it to a level of normality. Those

informants who housed OBJMAs at initial position did so as

they, presumably, intended to emphasize the adverbial.

Medial position ranges from being rare to being abnormal.
The above information is summed up in tables 29, 31, and 32:

Table 29

$-^{1}-$da^{c}awtu$-^{2}-$llaaha$-^{3}-$ (samii^{c}an)
I invoked God (hearing (me))

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	2.480	7	24	12	2	5	
2	3.600	1	11	10	13	15	
3	1.100	47	2	1			

Table 30

$-^{1}-$qara?at$-^{2}-$šafaa?u$-^{3}-$lkitaaba$-^{4}-$ (mufaSSalan)
Shafa read the book (in detail)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	2.340	6	26	13	5		
2	3.300	3	6	22	11	8	
3	3.320	2	14	8	18	8	
4	1.080	47	2	1			

Table 31

$-^{1}-$?a^{c}jabani$-^{2}-$šaklu$-^{3}-$nijuumi$-^{4}-$ (waaDihatan)
I admired the sight of the stars (shining clearly)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	3.400		15	10	15	10	
2	3.720	2	5	12	17	14	
3	4.720		2	2	4	42	
4	1.220	42	7			1	

Table 32

-$\frac{1}{-}$-šariba-$\frac{2}{-}$-rrajulu-$\frac{3}{-}$-ššaaya wa lhaliiba-$\frac{4}{-}$- (ma^{c}an)
The man drank the tea and milk (together)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	3.180	2	12	8	11	7	
2	4.000		6	11	10	23	
3	3.100	4	16	9	13	8	
4	1.120	46	3		1		

We can contrast the means for initial position of tables 31 and 32 with those given to the same position in tables 29 and 30. This clear difference between these means could be brought about by the sentence structure: the sentences of tables 31 and 32 have a two word object which in turn made subjects dissatisfied with initial position.

7.5.3.2 OBJECT-MODIFYING ADVERBIALS IN OTHER SENTENCE TYPES:

Subjects conformed to the expectations made by this study in that OBJMAs in other sentence types behave in the same way as they do in declarative sentences. Thus all subjects agreed that final position immediately after the object was the only position that this type of adverbial could appear in. Other positions fluctuated between rareness and dubiousness as shown in tables 33 and 34 which display the results for the adverbials modifying the object in interrogative and imperative sentences respectively:

Table 33

-$\frac{1}{}$-hal-$\frac{2}{}$-tahibu-$\frac{3}{}$-TTa^{c}aama-$\frac{4}{}$- (ḥaaran)
Do you like food (hot)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	4.400		1	7	13	29	
2	3.620	9	15	12	14		
3	4.180		4	8	13	25	
4	1.020	49	1				

Table 34

-$\frac{1}{}$-ʔiqraʔ-$\frac{2}{}$-ddarsa-$\frac{3}{}$- (kaamilan)
Read the lesson (in full)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	2.680	3	21	19	3	4	
2	3.440	2	11	13	11	13	
3	1.000	50					

Scatterplot A2 (appendix 1) supports the above argument that Arabic native speakers were reluctant to accommodate the adverbial in any place in the sentence in spite of the freedom of Arabic word order. With awareness of the fact that Arabic sets no strict rules to prevent the adverbial from appearing in many places, they, apparently intuitively, bar these positions because presumably they favoured the position of the adverbials close to their head(s). That is, members of CEMAs favour positions in the vicinity of the word they modify. The line of normality helps to conclude that factors of influence (chapter six) were effective enough to render all positions in one sentence normal, for example (19 and 20), or to allow only one position in another (12, 23).

7.6 VERB PHRASE-MODIFYING ADVERBIALS

7.6.1 VERB PHRASE-MODIFYING ADVERBIALS IN DECLARATIVES

Let us first look at tables 35, 36 and 37 which display the results for VPMAs in declarative sentences:

Table 35

-$\frac{1}{}$-mazzaqa-$\frac{2}{}$-lwaladu-$\frac{3}{}$-lkurraasa-$\frac{4}{}$- (sahwan)
The boy tore up the booklet (unintentionally)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	2.755	5	21	10	7	6	1
2	3.633	4	19	17	9		1
3	3.000	3	21	8	9	9	
4	1.000	50					

Table 36

[-$\frac{1}{}$-yuhibbu-$\frac{2}{}$-nezaaru-$\frac{3}{}$-tanaawla-$\frac{4}{}$-ssamakki-$\frac{5}{}$-][xaarija lbaiti]
Nazar likes to have fish (outside the house)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	2.760	1	24	14	8	3	
2	4.440	1	1	1	19	28	
3	3.440		8	19	16	7	
4	4.660		2	4	3	41	
5	1.140	44	5	1			

Table 37

-$\frac{1}{}$-kaaɲati-$\frac{2}{}$-lmu^{c}allimatu-$\frac{3}{}$-taktibu-$\frac{4}{}$-rrisaalata-$\frac{5}{}$-
(bisur^{c}atin)
The teacher was writing the letter (quickly)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	2.440	6	23	15	5	1	
2	3.700		7	14	16	13	
3	2.720	6	14	20	8	2	
4	3.360		17	10	11	12	
5	1.100	46	3	1			

Now it has become clear that these results illustrate that there is a considerable degree of agreement between what has been postulated in this study and the subjects' responses. Such an agreement is reflected in the high proportion of responses given to final position as it was the informants' prime choice. Medial position was considered as rare. Initial position is a case where opinions varied. That is, subjects found the adverbials examined in this position as rare except [bisur^{c}atin] which scored rather more responses rendering it fairly normal in this position. Those whose responses caused the difference in means for the three adverbials in initial position might have been aware, depending on their intuition, of the restrictive environments in which these adverbials were used. This difference can presumably be ascribed to two factors: realisational and syntactical. The former allows adverbial phrases to sit easily in initial position (table 37) slightly more than it does with single-word adverbials (table 35). The latter factor embodies syntactic restrictions which indicate that the adverbial [xaarija lbaiti] 'outside the house' was used predicatively and thus restricted to final position.

7.6.2 VERB PHRASE-MODIFYING ADVERBIALS IN OTHER SENTENCE

TYPES

. Also, the results reveal that there is a match between the subjects' responses towards other types of sentences with VPMAs and the way this study handled such type of adverbial. These results show that final position was chosen as normal and other positions, exclusive of initial position

in imperatives, were placed at the boundary between rareness and dubiousness. The adverbial at initial position in imperative sentences registered the acceptability mean of 2.100 (table 40) due to the simple structure of such sentences which allows an adverbial to move rather comfortably among their elements. Tables 38, 39, and 40 display the means and responses of how VPMAs behaved in negative, interrogative and imperative sentences of the questionnaire:

Table 38

$-\frac{1}{}-$lam-$\frac{2}{}-$yunjiz-$\frac{3}{}-$rrajulu-$\frac{4}{}-$l^{C}amala-$\frac{5}{}-$ (bi?itqaanin)
The man did not finish the work (precisely)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	3.653		6	10	28	5	1
2	4.920				4	46	
3	2.700	1	24	16	7	2	
4	2.780	3	16	21	9	1	
5	1.020	49	1				

Table 39

$-\frac{1}{}-$hal-$\frac{2}{}-$kataba-$\frac{3}{}-$zaydun-$\frac{4}{}-$rrisaalata-$\frac{5}{}-$?(bi^{C}inaayatin)
Did Zaid write the letter ? (carefully)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	3.776	1	4	14	16	14	1
2	3.600	1	9	10	19	11	
3	2.940	1	17	19	10	3	
4	2.600	5	23	10	11	1	
5	1.080	47	2	1			

Table 40

$---\frac{1}{}$?uktub-$\frac{2}{}-$wajibaka-$\frac{3}{}-$ (bi^{C}inaayatin)
Write your homework (carefully)

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	2.100	6	34	9	1		
2	2.540	9	15	17	8	1	
3	1.020	49	1				

What was said above about members of VPMAs was graphically represented in scatterplot A3 (appendix 1). This plot reconsolidates the above discussion which showed that members of this class felicitously occupy a position after their head. If two positions were allowed, this was presumably because some other factors like type of modification or adverbial intention were at work.

7.7 SUCCESSIVE ORDER OF ADVERBIALS

Among the questionnaire sentences, blocks of sentences were included to test how subjects rated the order of adverbials when appearing consecutively. Also, the extent of subjects' acceptance was investigated once for cases where two successive adverbials were used in a single sentence, and on the other occasion for cases where more than two successive adverbials were used in a single sentence. The results for sentences with two adverbials are first examined. These results illustrate that most permutations of the adverbials investigated were accepted by the majority of subjects, yet a few versions were queried. The results conform to the implications of the two principles of chapter four: hierarchy and comitation. As for the principle "hierarchy", 96% of informants placed the larger adverbial after the smaller one in final position. When these adverbials appeared in initial position, more responses were allocated to the larger adverbial than to the smaller one (cf. tables 41, 42, 43). On the other hand, the factor of adverbial realisation was detrimental to the effectiveness of the above principle. The results demonstrated in table 42 show that the adverbial [ʔalyawma] 'today', the larger one, was favourably placed before [marratayni] 'twice', the smaller

one, because it has fewer syllables than [marratayni] does. Medial position elicited fewer responses and consequently was seen as rare.

In other sentences, the factor of verb type should be acknowledged. In essence, the adverbial coherently required by the verb meaning occurred immediately after the verb pushing the other adverbial a bit farther (tables 45, 46). The tables below, which handle each variant of a sentence individually, display the order relation of the adverbials discussed above. When the size of the tables allows only means for these variants to be mentioned, other individual responses are distributed over immediately following tables.

Table 41

[sayuǵaadiru TTulaabu (ila l^{C}aaSimati/ ba^{C}da yawmayni)]
The students will leave (for the capital in two days)

	Means	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
sayuǵaadiru TTulaabu ba^{C}da yawmayni ila l^{C}aaSimati	1.720	26	16	5	2	1	
sayuǵaadiru TTulaabu ila l^{C}aaSimati ba^{C}da yawmayni	1.220	42	5	3			
ba^{C}da yawmayni sayuǵaadiru TTulaabu ila l^{C}aaSimati	1.980	17	20	10	3		
ila l^{C}aaSimati sayuǵaadiru TTulaabu ba^{C}da yawmayni	2.740	7	12	18	13		
ba^{C}da yawmayni ila l^{C}aaSimati sayuǵaadiru TTulaabu	4.280	1		9	14	26	

Table 42

[ra?aytu lmuŝrifa (marratayni lyawma)]
I saw the supervisor (twice today)

	Means	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
ra?aytu lmuŝrifa marratayni lyawma	1.860	15	27	8			
?alyawma ra?aytu lmuŝrifa marratayni	1.660	29	12	6	3		
ra?aytu lmuŝrifa lyawma marratayni	1.540	30	13	7			
marratayni ra?aytu lmuŝrifa lyawma	3.240	1	14	12	18	5	
ra?aytu marratayni lyawma lmuŝrifa	4.469		2	4	12	31	1

Table 43

[ta^C allama ^C imaadun fanna nnaḥti (fi madrasati/ lfanni biruuma)]
Imad learnt sculpture (at Artš School in Rome)

MEANS

1.[ta^C allama ^C imaadun fanna nnaḥti fi madrasati lfanni biruuma]	1.120
2.[ta^C allama ^C imaadun fanna nnaḥti biruuma fi madrasati lfanni]	2.430
3.[biruuma ta^C allama ^C imaadun fanna nnaḥti fi madrasati lfanni]	2.740
4.[fi madrasati ta^C allama ^C imaadun fanna nnaḥti lfanni biruuma]	3.420
5.[ta^C allama fi madrasati lfanni biruuma ^C imaadun fanna nnaḥti]	3.700

Table 43a

PN	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	45	4	1			
2	9	22	13	5	1	
3	2	22	15	9	2	
4	2	9	14	16	9	
5	2	10	9	9	20	

Table 44

yaqraʔu muḥammadu lqiSSata (fi lġurfati lmujaawirati/ biSawtin ^C aalin)

Muḥammed is reading the story (in the next room aloud)

Means

fi lġurfati lmujaawirati muḥammadu yaqraʔu lqiSSata biSawtin ^C aalin	1.980
yaqraʔu muḥammadu lqiSSata fi lġurfati lmujaawirati biSawtin ^C aalin	1.640
yaqraʔu muḥammadu lqiSSata biSawtin ^C aalin fi lġurfati lmujaawirati	2.100
biSawtin ^C aalin yaqraʔu muḥammadu lqiSSata fi lġurfati lmujaawirati	2.780
fi lġurfati lmujaawirati biSawtin ^C aalin yaqraʔu muḥammadu lqiSSata	4.400

Table 44a

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	1.980	15	22	10	2		1
2	1.640	29	14	4	2	1	
3	2.100	22	13	4	10	1	
4	2.780	4	11	28	6	1	
5	4.400		2	6	12	30	

Table 45

[waDa^{C}ati l?umu laqdaaha (^{C}alaa rraffi/ bihadarin)]
The mother put the plates (on the shelf/ cautiously)

	Means	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
waDa^{C}ati l?umu laqdaaha $\underline{^C}$alaa rraffi bihadarin	1.200	41	8	1			
waDa^{C}ati l?umu laqdaaha bihadarin $\underline{^C}$alaa rraffi	2.060	13	24	10	3		
$\underline{^C}$alaa rraffi waDa^{C}ati l?umu laqdaaha bihadarin	2.900	6	10	19	13	2	
bihadarin waDa^{C}ati l?umu laqdaaha $\underline{^C}$alaa rraffi	2.260	12	23	7	6	2	
waDa^{C}ati l?umu $\underline{^C}$alaa rraffi bihadarin laqdaaha	4.160	1	3	8	13	25	

Table 46

[?ištagala ?axi (Tuula lyawmi Saamitan)]
My brother worked the whole day/ silently

	Means	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
?ištagala ?axi Saamitan Tuula lyawmi	1.580	24	14	6	1		
?ištagala ?axi Tuula lyawmi Saamitan	1.440	34	12	2	2		
Tuula lyawmi ?ištagala ?axi Saamitan	2.592	9	12	19	8	1	1
Saamitan ?istaǧala ?axi Tuula lyawmi	2.500	5	22	16	7		
?ištagala ?axi Tuula lyawmi Saamitan	4.220			13	13	24	

The same argument about the appearance of two adverbials in a single sentence is also true of the appearance of more than two adverbials. Although some informants experienced discomfort every time sentences with three adverbials were presented, the majority complied with the principle of hierarchy in that they located the larger adverbial, usually SMA, later in the sentence. But again this principle gets

into difficulty when the order relation was reversed in accord with the form of the adverbial (table 48). Initial position was accessible only for larger adverbials; medial was rare. Tables 47, 48, and 49 demonstrate the results for the sentences concerned where the adverbials appeared consecutively. The space in tables 48 and 49 allows only means to be inserted. Other responses are shown in tables 48a and 49a

Table 47

[?a^{C}uudu (ila lbaiti/ fi layli/ ^{C}aadatan)]
I return (home/ at night/ usually)

	Means	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
?a^{C}uudu ila lbaiti fi layli ^{C}aadatan	1.920	24	14	6	4	2	
?a^{C}uudu fi layli ila lbaiti ^{C}aadatan	3.100	5	14	13	7	11	
?a^{C}uudu ^{C}aadatan fi layli ila lbaiti	3.100	4	11	16	14	5	
^{C}aadatan ?a^{C}uudu ila lbaiti fi layli	2.160	18	15	10	5	2	
?a^{C}uudu ila lbaiti ^{C}aadatan fi layli	2.408	13	17	7	10	2	1

Table 48

[saafara lmuraasiluuna (ila ljinuubi/ fi SSabaahi/ lyawmi)]
The correspondents travelled to the south/ in the morning/ today

	Means
saafara lmuraasiluuna ila ljinuubi fi SSabaahi lyawmi	2.694
saafara lmuraasiluuna ila ljinuubi lyawma fi SSabaahi	1.940
?alyawma saafara lmuraasiluuna ila ljinuubi fi SSabaahi	2.480
fi SSabaahi saafara lmuraasiluuna ila ljinuubi lyawma	2.920
saafara lmuraasiluuna fi SSabaahi ila ljinuubi lyawma	3.600

Table 48a

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	2.694	13	12	9	7	8	1
2	1.940	22	14	10	3	1	
3	2.480	13	11	17	7	2	
4	2.920	6	12	16	12	5	
5	3.600	5	6	10	12	17	

Table 49

[yaġrisu lfalaahu ʔašjaara zaytuuni (fi bustaanihi/ maratan/ kulla ᶜaamin)]
The farmer cultivates olive trees (in his orchard/ once/ every year)

Means

yaġrisu lfalaahu ʔašjaara zaytuuni maratan kulla ᶜaamin fi bustaanihi	2.200
yaġrisu lfalaahu ʔašjaara zaytuuni fi bustaanihi maratan kulla ᶜaamin	1.180
fi bustaanihi yaġrisu lfalaahu ʔašjaara zaytuuni maratan kulla ᶜaamin	2.840
maratan kulla ᶜaamin yaġrisu lfalaahu ʔašjaara zaytuuni fi bustaanihi	2.420
yaġrisu lfalaahu fi bustaanihi maratan kulla ᶜaamin ʔašjaara zaytuuni	3.260

Table 49a

PN	MEANS	N	FN	R	D	AB	NR
1	2.200	11	23	12	3	1	
2	1.180	44	3	3			
3	2.840	4	16	15	14	1	
4	2.420	13	17	11	4	5	
5	3.260	1	11	21	8	9	

Scatterplot A4 (appendix 1) gives a clear idea of what was displayed in the above tables. From the line of normality it can be concluded that a related reason for the difference in the number of positions above the line and those below it is due either to the number of adverbials occurring in one sentence or to the sentence structure. A contrast between this plot and the English one (E4) shows that though Arabic successive order is a little more mobile, it is still implausible to cluster more modifiers in one sentence, unless necessary.

7.8 CONCLUSIONS

The evidence in the previous pages permits five general conclusions: First, the results unequivocally suggest that there is an acceptable degree of conformity between the subjects' responses and the present functional

classification. Second, 'Adverbial positions' constitutes a puzzling linguistic area as many Arabic native speakers, most of them with no linguistics background, admitted that most of the variants of the questionnaire sentences seemed to be synonymous. Such a claim seems warranted on the basis of the wide scatter of the subjects' responses even over one variant. On the other hand, it is worth mentioning that native speakers, whatever their personal idiosyncrasies, could recognize the contrasting degree of the sentences' acceptability where different types of adverbial were examined. Third, a fairly large number of informants were inclined to accommodate most of the adverbials in question in final position, yet they could designate the positions diagnosed by the study as normal or fairly normal. In effect, no single response example which conflicted acutely with the manner of the classification could be found. In this respect, it is noticeable that the majority of subjects, in many instances, tended to place the adverbial in initial position with, presumably, the intention of making it stand out. Fourth, the results reveal that many positions; particularly those between the verb and subject of the sentence or between the subject and object of the sentence were rejected for many different kinds of adverbial. Fifth, the results show that the subjects' responses were largely dispersed over the five variables of the rating scale, pointing to a lack of a strong symmetrical relationship among these responses. A possible reason is that subjects were influenced by the tolerance of Arabic word order. But such a tolerance was frequently restrained in cases where certain types of adverbial were restricted to

certain positions. This is because of the adverbial itself
or because of other factors. The factors detailed earlier
were effectual in the sense that their influence on the
ordering of the adverbials was self-explanatory. Among these
factors, whose influence appeared in varying degrees, was
the type of adverbial which attained ascendancy (see tables
3, 4, 5, 7, 35, 37, 42 and 48). The factor of the sentence
structure came next in this order of influential factors in
that positions in which subjects allowed the adverbials
under discussion to appear were more apparent in simple
sentences than they were in compound sentences (see tables
19, 31, 32 and 40). The effect of the factor of verb type
was also perceptible and it in all cases coincided with the
implication of the principle "comitation" (tables 12, 45 and
46). The influence of other factors was less operative and
varied from sentence to sentence.

The above five general conclusions suggest that there
does not seem to be an impasse as to whether normal
adverbial positions could be identified in the variety of
word order that Arabic tolerates. These positions as well as
other positions were obviously upheld by the results of the
questionnaire which has given good support to the
classification offered by this study. As a result, adverbial
positions have been refined and made easier to detect. They
can be placed along a continuum from problematic to those
which are easily identified by the language user.

Again, as in the English chapter, this kind of continuum
is represented in the total scatterplots A5 and A6 (appendix
1):

Plot A5 depicts the same picture portrayed in the

scatterplot E5 about the conglomeration of what the adverbial class constitutes. The plot shows how spread out the adverbial data are and how mobile the adverbial position is, a fact which reflects its diversity. A close look at the two scatterplots A5 and E5 shows that adverbials in both plots appear to cluster in one area, but are scattered individually in another, a case which corroborates what was discussed earlier about the complex interplay of factors of influence. A discernable difference between the cluster of the adverbials in the two plots is that those of Arabic go downwards more than the English ones do, an indication of their higher mobility. This is in turn was confirmed in scatterplot A6, compared with English one E6, which refers in general to the more acceptable positions allocated to Arabic adverbials. Scatterplot A6 in which the whole data were ranked in the same way as was done in English scatterplot E6 reveals the same curved line shape to represent lowest to highest levels of acceptability[2] It also starts with the most acceptable positions (non-problematic) and ends up with those positions which posed problems to native speakers.

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[2]See table 50 appendix 11 for number correspondence.

CHAPTER EIGHT: CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS

8.0 <u>INTRODUCTION</u>

This chapter utilises the findings about English adverbials in chapters four and five and those concerning Arabic adverbials in chapters six and seven by carrying out a contrastive analysis of the English and Arabic adverbial positions in order to define and explain sources of potential difficulties for learners of both languages. A special functional/ positional contrastive technique is devised and applied in this comparison. The major aim of this chapter is not to survey historical contrastive linguistics, nevertheless a brief background on contrastive analysis (CA) and its relation to foreign/ second language learning/ teaching is not out of place.

8.1 <u>CONTROVERSIAL ISSUES</u>

Contrastive studies are, in general, concerned with the systematic comparison of two or more languages; usually to examine specific linguistic characteristics of the languages to determine points of correspondence or discrepancy.[1] Though its major aim is to predict and elucidate the reactions of learners in a contact situation, it mainly concentrates on the points of difference where interference is most likely to appear. Contrastive analysis (CA), whose bases and principles rest linguistically on structural grammar, psychologically on behaviourism and philosophically on empiricism, can be dated as far back as 1940 when the interest in foreign language teaching was overwhelming, though many earlier attempts had been made. Such interest, together with the ever-expanding influence of technology on the way of life, was a consequence

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[1]This is indeed what is consistently conceived by the term 'contrastive analysis' and almost all research pertaining to this area revolves around language transfer concerns. However, there is a surge of interest in conducting other types of CA like contrastive pragmatics, contrastive rhetoric and contrastive text linguistics. See Pery-Woodley (1990)

of the second world war which prompted the combatants to learn the languages of others (Richards 1986:47; Stern 1983:159-160). It could thus be said that Fries (1945) was the first who clearly commented on one of CA's objectives: its relevance to foreign language teaching methodology. He writes (1945:9)

> "The most effective materials are those that are based upon a scientific description of the language to be learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner".

This didactically-oriented approach was elaborated by Lado (1957:66)
> "We begin with an analysis of the foreign language and compare it structure by structure with the native language. For each structure we need to know if there is a structure in the native language (1) signalled the same way, that is, by the same formal device, (2) having the same meaning, and (3) similarly distributed in the system of that language."

And by Hammer and Rice (1965:introduction) when they write:
> "For present purposes, a contrastive structure study is defined as a systematic comparison of selected linguistic features of two or more languages, the intent of which is...to provide teachers and textbook writers with a body of information which can be of service in the preparation of instructional materials, the planning of courses, and the development of classroom techniques."

As a result, during the two decades (1950's and 1960's) of the heyday of American structuralism a series of contrastive works with the intent to improve language teaching began to appear. Those works were based on the major assumption that wherever there are similarities between the language of the learners (L1) and the target language (L2), learning can be fostered and that wherever there are discrepancies between L1 and L2, learning may be retarded. In other words these studies (Ferguson: in Stockwell 1965; Alatis: 1968; Lado 1964) mainly equate linguistic differences with learning problems in that learning problems increase proportionally to the differences

that exist between the two languages being contrasted. This kind of CA is described as a priori which is said to be item by item analysis of the phonological, morphological or syntactic systems and subsystems of two languages. Investigators analyse L1 and L2 in these terms and detect their similarities or differences. Consequently, they can predict that the source of the difficulties which learners of the target language (L2) have is interference, where they transfer elements of their native language onto the speech patterns of the L2 (see Lado:1957: 2). Some have gone so far as to say that the real value of CA does not lie in its predictive power, but rather in its explanatory power. Nickel (1989) writes

> No contrastive linguist thought that 'interference', 'transfer' or whatever term may be used for it was the only type of error or even a dominating one. The role of CA was anyway not so much to predict as to rather explain errors that had happened.[2]

The glitter of CA faded when confronted with many strictures most of which deemphasize the role of interference. These strictures accuse the traditional CA for its diagnosis as being the only source of errors (interference) and thus failing to see other sources.[3] Above all, this type of source (interference) is deemed, by the opponents of CA, as otiose and learner's ignorance is considered the real cause of most errors instead. It (CA) does not take the L2 learner into account and considers him simply as a generator of interference. Even this does not prove to be practical in that there are some language phenomena, for example inflections,

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[2](Also see Catford, J.C. 1968:160; Snook, R. L. 1974:18; Nickel and Wagner 1968:247; Berman: 1978:213;)

[3]Thus, C. N. Candlin (in James 1990:preface) presents two main reasons for the decline in pedagogic interest in CA: descriptive linguistics and psycholinguistic-pedagogy. The former justifies the inability of CA to withstand the stresses of constantly changing analysis and theoretical approaches. The latter refers to teachers' discovery that CA can foresee only part of the problems encountered by learners.

which L2 learners hardly transfer from their L1 to L2 though the theory of transfer would seem to predict this. More extremely, Corder S.P. (1981:5); Mackey (1966); Wilkins (1972:205) state that the application of CA has not provided experienced teachers with any significantly new information since teachers with practical experience can detect where learning problems reside. This criterion would not affect the possible relevance and usefulness of CA for teachers with less experience, or for those working with unfamiliar groups of students.

CA is also open to the criticism that it can not predict all errors the L2 learner is likely to commit. Such errors that are not predicted by CA are in nature intralingual and developmental (Gradman 1971a; Els et. al. 1984; Mackey 1966; Richards 1974:181; Selinker 1972; Taylor 1975; Wilkins 1972). As a reaction to the principles of CA, error analysis (EA), which grew out of the transformational linguistic theory, has emerged (Duskova 1969; Richards 1971). Inasmuch as the emergence of EA was brought about by the rise of cognitive psychology, it focuses on the role of learners' creative ability to understand and produce language (Gradman 1971b; Hamp 1968; Nemser 1971; Newmark and Reibel 1968; Richards 1971, 1972; Selinker 1969, 1972; Selinker and Lamendella 1978;). This approach manifests itself in detecting and classifying deviations from the L2 norm. These deviations were seen as evidence for a 'creative construction process' but not as evidence of language transfer. In this respect, two types of error are distinguished: of performance and of competence. The source of the two types is divergent. Errors of performance, of physiological and psychological origins, which may be committed by the learners of L2, and by native speakers as well, emanate from the learners' (or native speakers') fatigue, distraction, memory lapses, or inadvertence. Errors of competence, which are complementary to mistakes in language

use, are likely to result from applying rules which have no parallels in the L2 norm, or even in the L1 norm. For example, the incorrect English sentence <u>He name is Yousif</u> produced by the Arabic speaker has no connection to the forms of either his L1 or L2 since neither adult speakers of English nor speakers of Arabic use it. The term of interlanguage is sometimes used to describe this phenomenon (Corder 1981; Davies et al 1984; Richards 1974; Schumann and Stenson 1975).[4] A remedy for errors of competence could be partial or total. A partial remedy is to minimise such a type of error when the learner acquires a sufficient mastery over the L2. A total rectification is to eradicate those errors when the learner approximates to the level of the native speaker's competence with a distinction that his/her foreign accent is rigorously noted. Such approximation is subject to certain psychological and contextual constraints such as motivation, intelligence, the adequacy of teaching materials, the sincere interest to acculturate, or even the desire to assimilate into the target language group (Cf. Nickel and Wagner 1968; Selinker 1972:49).

Followers of Transformational Generative Grammar vitiate the hypotheses set up by CA and alternatively endeavour to apply generative grammar to it. They thus believe that CA should rest on language universals: to show that universal deep structures, manifested themselves in the surface structure through related transformation rules, are a sound basis on which to pinpoint the problematic areas (DiPietro 1968:68,70; Eckman 1977; Newmark 1970; Schachter 1972:220)

The supporters of CA have reacted to the above criticisms and confirmed that they have not abated. They point out that L1 interference is not considered as the only source of error but rather as the chief source of difficulty.

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[4]For more details, see Richards' (1971) and Corder's (1972) classifications of errors.

Consistently they articulate CA's ability to predict potential troublespots the L2 learner would face (James 1971). In defence against these criticisms they quote Lado's (1961:21) frequently-cited expressions "These differences are the chief source of difficulty in learning a second language". And

> "The most important factor determining ease and difficulty in learning the patterns of a foreign language is their similarity to or difference from the patterns of the language" (P91).

With reference to the ignorance hypothesis which is suggested to supplant the notion of 'transfer', CA analysts retaliate that ignorance could not be an alternative to L1 transfer but at best a precondition for it. Hence, they propose what they call 'avoidance strategy' (James 1990:22). They also decry the notion of universal deep structures and their relevance to language teaching. James (ibid:174) points out that "Sentences - of the same or of different languages - with a common deep structure are not necessarily communicatively equivalent." Related to the above drawback of deep structure James (ibid) cites examples which purportedly have the same deep structure but really do not.[5]

More optimistically, a number of commentators on CA attribute other errors in L2 learning to psychological and linguistic factors (Kleinmann 1977:106;). At another extreme Duskova (1969:29) reports that her results show that Czech learners of English avoid or circumlocate items which were predictably very difficult. Thus far, although contrastivists admit that "CA does not even aspire to account for all errors" (James 1990:151) it is a fairly good predictor of avoidance (Kleinmann: 1977:105-106). With regard to this point Schachter (1974) concluded that CA should not be abandoned as a diagnostic tool for learner difficulty in the L2 because of

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[5]See also C. Sanders (1981:25-27).

its unique potential for being able to account for the phenomenon of avoidance. On the other hand, M. Rogers (1988:10) applauds the idea of the re-emergence of contrastive linguistics but not on the basis of structural linguistics. She reasons that there should be a theoretically well-motivated frame of reference or set of frames but she is cautious of approaches with claims to predicative power and of approaches with claims to a global solution.

Just as considerable doubts have been cast on the ability of CA to predict areas of ease and difficulty, doubts have also been voiced over the capability of EA. First, comes the criticism that EA can not detect the type of language transfer which implicates avoidance. Learners might avoid L2 elements of which equivalence in their L1 is unlikely or they avoid certain linguistic L2 elements due to the great amount of disparity between the languages. Thus instead of going on committing errors, they resort to paraphrase or to some near equivalent (Jordens 1977:27-33; James 1990:23). Kleinmann (1977:106) adds another reason- learners' circumvention of L2 structures. He suggested that personality factors such as confidence, level of anxiety and motivational orientation or risk-taking may lead to students' avoidance of various structures.

Another problem presented by this approach to language learning is the identification of errors made by L2 learners, i.e. to determine what category to allocate a particular error to. Many errors cause a dilemma to the investigator as they are not easily assigned to a definite source of error. This may be due to their multiple origins of being phonological, syntactic or morphological deviation. Linked to such multiple sources of committing errors is the example of Crystal (1987:273) who enquires whether The lady eat it displays an error of the noun (ladies) or verb. And if it is the verb, which form should it be? Another example provided by Wilkins

(1982:223) which falls within the investigator's dilemma is the difficulty of tracing the common error of the omission of auxiliary <u>do</u> in the construction of negative sentences in English back to interference or to overgeneralization of the L2 (For a discussion and a resume, cf. Dulay et. al. 1982:141-46; Els et. al. 1984:60-67; Perkins and Larsen-Freeman 1975; Swain 1975; Schachter and Ceclce-Murcia 1977:441; White 1977)

Following this reasoning, CA advocates reject the idea that EA is a discrete alternative to CA. They demarcate the two as different in their approaches: a priori versus a posteriori detection of error. CA a priori first aims at describing two or more languages then comparability - by rendering them to manageable subsystems - is established and is last followed by a comparison which is intended to determine the prediction of potential positive or negative transfer. The positive transfer refers to the existence of shared elements between languages being compared, where the learner's reflex of transferring elements from his own language is sometimes successful. The negative transfer denotes the absence of the counterparts of the transferred elements in the other language. Such absence is conducive to errors, a case which sustains the hypothesis that CAs predict difficulty (James 1990:182). Neither of these types of transfer is likely when elements in L1 and L2 are grammatically very distinct.[6] EA a posteriori interrogates empirically the area of the actual errors in L2 produced by L1 learners and hence seems to be explanatory as to their causes. To this effect, the followers of EA assert that many language learning errors do not result from the native language interference but rather from overgeneralizations,

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[6]For detailed contrasting views of interference, see Dulay H. et al (1982:98). See also Selinker's (1989:286) categories of language transfer: positive language transfer, negative language transfer and neutral transfer.

simplification, learning and communication strategies and a variety of other sources (Richards 1971; Selinker 1972; Taylor 1975). Accordingly, EA is not deemed a surrogate for CA but is viewed as a necessary supplementary component , in the words of James (1990:187) "They should be viewed as complementing each other rather than as competitors for some procedural pride of place". [7]

CA has certainly not been restored to the status it held in language pedagogy in the early sixties, yet its hardly disputed importance continues to provide teachers with pedagogical strategies, though narrowly.[8] Thereby, it has always been and is still a central point of interest for many teachers and researchers who can see it as one of many classroom techniques available to language teaching.[9] A number of contrastive studies (contrary to recent research done on L2 acquisition which has made general, not detailed, pedagogical recommendations) demonstrate the consensus held by many pedagogists and linguists on the validity and utility of CA for language teaching. Stockwell (1973) demonstrates two kinds of CA: a predictive variety represented by classical CA and a diagnostic variety which is used in the analysis of students' errors. With reference to language teaching Halliday (1964:118-19) identifies two stages followed a comparison made between two languages: a stage of the preventive use of comparison and a stage of treatment and cure. The preventive use involves the possibility of the application of comparative methods to find out the most likely sources of errors caused by interference and accordingly they are described in a way that can minimise their undesirable effects. The stage of

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[7] For more details see (James: 1971:55; Danesi Marcel 1983:218; Nickel 1971:11; Corder 1981:35).

[8] See Stern (1983:168).

[9] It should not be taken that this study overlooks the importance of EA to language teaching.

treatment and cure deploy these comparative methods to explain the errors committed by the learners in the hope of preparing remedial exercises and drills which can be carefully designed to eliminate errors already observed. Fries and Lado, who are considered pioneers in the field of contrastive studies, base their contrasts of two language systems on three planes: phonological, grammatical and lexical. Their procedure first renders separate descriptions of the two systems involved. Then the two descriptions are juxtaposed to find out differences and similarities. It is erroneous, Fries and Lado believe, to assume that any language system is equally comparable with every other system. This stems from the belief that each language has its unique system, at least on the surface structure. To match these items of L1 with their counterparts of L2 needs a competent bilingual to decide their equivalence (Catford:1965:20-27).

Sanders (1981) acknowledges the validity of CA when she states that it is a mistake to think that

> "The immediate findings of CA are for classroom consumption; they are for the textbook writer and the teacher and many faults attributed to contrastive analysis stem from misapplication." (p.22).

Elsewhere she (1968) points out that CA can be useful to teaching language in that it can help the learner to use native-type nondistinctive features in his speech, and thus stop sounding 'foreign'. James (1990) stresses the help offered by CA to the student to understand and hence overcome some of his learning problems. He (ibid: 156) writes:

> ... a CA has a significant role to play in all this, not only in pre-identifying the learning problems but also in specifying the 'controlled steps' whereby the learner can most efficiently solve his learning problems

Ferguson (in an introduction to Stockwell:1965) contends that if CA is executed properly it will certainly determine what the learners have to learn and what the teacher has to teach. Ferguson (ibid:v) says:

> "A natural consequence of this conviction is the belief that a careful contrastive analysis of the two languages offers an excellent basis for the preparation of instructional material, the planning of courses, and the development of actual classroom techniques."

This standpoint is also held by Nickel (1971:15) who writes

> "Applied contrastive linguistics does not aim at drawing pupils' attention constantly and systematically to language contrasts. Its objective, rather, is to aid the textbook author in collecting and arranging his material and to help the teacher in practising his subject-matter. Both author and teacher require a knowledge of contrastive grammar in order to be able to predict, explain, correct and eliminate errors due to interference between source and target language."

Van Buren, while being cautious of complex connection between contrastive linguistics and what happens in classroom, shows the relevance of CA to language teaching. He (1974:280) writes:

> The establishment of an adequate theoretical foundation for contrastive analysis must precede any attempt to show how the results of such analysis might be applied in the foreign language classroom. It seems certain, however, that the chain of connections between contrastive linguistic theory and what happens in the classroom will be rather complex, and that it must contain at least three major links: The highly technical analysis itself, the conversion of this analysis into a form which can be easily understood by nonspecialists, and, finally, the conversion of the simplified statement into materials that can be used in the classroom.

After the foregoing survey of the points of strength and weakness of the two main approaches of CA and EA, a question necessarily arises: Do the two approaches suitably serve the purpose of this study in order to be more relevant to language teaching? The answer to such a question can be deduced through the discussion below.

The study followed two routes through which its functional classification proved right. The first was an elicitation procedure to obtain examples from the newspapers and grammar books. The second were the two questionnaires investigated in chapters five and seven which were the experimental validation of this procedure. Of the results of the questionnaires it can be said that they approached the objectives of EA. They investigated the intuitive judgements of native speakers of the two languages about the acceptability of adverbials in different positions and eventually used these to establish a scale of acceptability of the adverbials examined. This scale can be used to measure learners' errors when deviations are singled out from normal positions which the majority of respondents acknowledged. It is worth mentioning that considerable conformity between the results of the two questionnaires and the hypotheses set up earlier by this study was confirmed. Such conformity indicated that there would be fewer perceptible errors that learners of the two languages might make. The low proportion of the errors committed was due to the mobility of the adverbial which meant that members of the adverbial class occupy many positions in the same sentence: adverbials are grammatically free to occur in almost any position, a case which satisfies the demands of communication and cohesion. Therefore, it can be concluded that learners would exploit adverbial mobility and place most adverbials in positions which are in most cases acceptable to native speakers of either language. But what is at issue is the degree of acceptability which highlights the normal

positions. Learners of both languages do not have too much difficulty with adverbial word order. The main problem which is a conceptual one is the choice of the appropriate position to suit the occasion. As a matter of fact, it cannot be claimed that no serious errors might be committed. If errors occur, they emanate from cooccurrence restrictions which ration the positional choice. Such restrictions are almost purely semantic and characterize the way adverbials combine with other semantic elements in a sentence.

In the present climate of discussion, where a premium is placed on the unlikelihood of errors, CA is relevant. The proposed CA is taken to describe and explain as far as the available data permits what positions are hard to locate and accordingly what degrees of difficulty they typify. Or what similarities these positions in the two languages show, a case which requires that a hierarchy of such similarities be set up to assess the degree of similarity.[10] There is a strong tendency that a high level of similarity between the adverbial positions in the two languages can be anticipated. This anticipation stems from the evidence of the English and Arabic questionnaires in chapters five and seven. However, these questionnaire results still need confirmation from a CA which is likely to reveal linguistic reasons for the similarity. This similarity may indicate that no serious learning problems can be foreseen. Yet, learners may be at a loss as to which is the most natural position. Before drawing any premature conclusions an attempt to contrast the positions in the two languages should be made.

8.2 FUNCTIONAL/ POSITIONAL APPROACH

In the course of the comparison it will be noted that the Arabic sentence patterns being compared are not translation

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[10]Stockwell and J. D. Bowen (1965:16) set up a hierarchy of difficulty to assess the degree of difficulty between the sound system in the two languages being compared: English and Spanish.

equivalents of the English sentence patterns with which they share the resemblance of the adverbial function. This is because translation equivalents are not necessarily grammatical equivalents. For instance the English adverbial never is glossed [ʔabadan] in Arabic but [ʔabadan] commonly requires a negative verb and must appear at the end of the sentence. In other words if a literal translation had been followed, an unnatural element would have been created for the Arabic sentences. One would easily recognise that these sentences, when translated literally, were originally English and only a mechanical translation had been done without taking into account Arabic ways of saying things. Another reason which militates against literal translation is the difference displayed by the sentence structures in the two languages.[11] Despite some similarities, English sentences are constructed in a way which is in most cases completely different from that of Arabic. Thus, the contrastive analysis to be used will not attempt to superimpose the structural description of English sentences upon the Arabic ones nor vice versa; it bases its techniques on positional/ functional criteria instead. The common features to the two languages, with regard to adverbials, which allow a comparison, include: optionality, mobility, similarity in function and that adverbials in English and Arabic can be classified using the same categories (cf. page). The CA places due emphasis on both functions and positions of the adverbials being contrasted. By concentrating on the adverbial function and the semantics it confers to its head, CA will become more useful and relevant to language teaching. This comparability of the linguistic items researched, initially rests on functional equivalence and positional equivalence. Although, these two criteria are

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[11]However, there are four sentences in the whole comparison which bear a semantic resemblance. The translation of these two sentences does not affect their normality.

prerequisites for comparability, the functional one will be the head start which helps point the way to the positional type of equivalence. The approach suggested here basically compares the functional features of equivalent entities as well as their distributional manifestations. In addition, other ancillary criteria are adopted to specify the semantic and syntactic contrast. That of semantics is intended to show any correlation between the type of the adverbial and the position it occupies. For example, the questionnaire results assert that an adverbial with manner manifestation favourably accommodates final position. As far as the syntactic criterion, focus is placed on the status of the adverbial, whether peripheral to the sentence structure or obligatory.

This approach has a further bonus in that it undertakes a comparison of the performance of two groups of native speakers of both languages where sentence acceptability is proportionally assessed to the average score simulated by the responses of the majority of native speakers. This gives no place to idiosyncratic varieties in the contrastive description.

8.3 POSITIONS COMPARED

The data analysed for the comparison are derived from the two questionnaires where the adverbials concerned appeared in many places in the sentence. The only difference between the sentences of the questionnaires and those of this comparison is their position ordering. The positions under comparison were given different numbers for two reasons. The first is for statistical purposes, the second is to facilitate correspondence. Hence these positions were plotted on graphs using the SAS programme: PROC GLM (see the SAS user's guide: statistics, version 5 edition 1985; Cody R. and J.K. Smith 1987). Each graph displays positions for a pair of English and Arabic sentences with an adverbial which is parallel in function. These positions are run in the descending order of

acceptability. The lower positions which are more acceptable, and scored lower means, are distributed across the tables in the two questionnaires. By inspection of the graphs a decision can be made whether the relationships between the positions are linear or not. A linear relationship is of two sorts: complete where the adverbial positions of the two languages exactly match each other or fractional where they partly correspond with each other. Accordingly the comparison of English and Arabic adverbial positions is organised as follows: The graph is first presented, followed by a description which lists the adverbial properties: functional, positional, semantic, syntactic. The description will be concluded with a hierarchy of similarity or disparity. Any differences exposed by such a hierarchy will be identified inasmuch as they constitute potential learning problems. Finally, an outcome given at the end of each class will mark the culmination of these descriptions which have copiously revealed the point of correspondence or discrepancy.

SENTENCE-MODIFYING ADVERBIALS

1.

figure 1

Sentence-Modifying Adverbials
1.
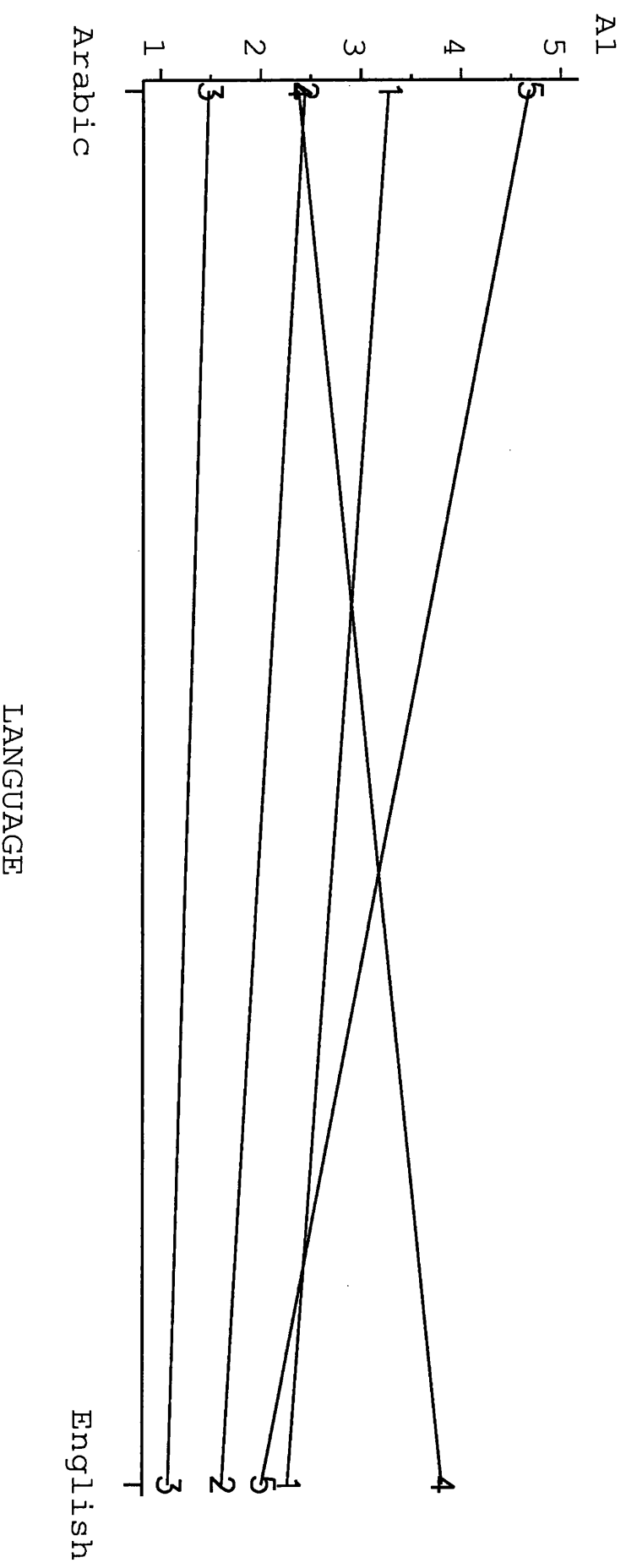
CRITERION	ENGLISH	ARABIC
FUNCTIONAL	SMA	SAME
POSITIONAL	MOBILE	LESS MOBILE
SEMANTIC	ATTITUDINAL	SAME
SYNTACTIC	OPTIONAL	SAME

English: Of the five positions of <u>unfortunately</u> in the above sentence, only position 4 is unacceptable: a position intervening between the verb and the sentence complement. position 3 (initial) is the most natural sequence in English; position 2 (final) comes next in the sentence natural sequence. Positions 1 and 5 are fairly normal.

Arabic: Of the positions investigated 1 and 5 are not utterly acceptable; while 5 is completely rejected due to the sentence structure, 1 is rare. 3, like English, is the natural one. 2 is fairly normal, though not as normal as English 2. 4, unlike English, is acceptable as Arabic allows an occurrence of the adverbial between the verb and the sentence complement (prepositional phrase).

The above contrast shows that the number of positional similarities is three, disparities two. This indicates that English is more liberal in positioning such a type of adverbial than Arabic is. The difference is, presumably, a difference in sentence structure in both languages. Learners should be informed of the restrictions imposed on the selection of the adverbial position in order to minimise the effect of transfer (Arabic) or overgeneralization (English). Arab learners of English may place the adverbial between the verb and the sentence complement. English learners of Arabic may, under the influence of transfer or overextension, place the adverbial in as many places as their knowledge tells them

to do so. Such problems are not difficult to overcome.
Well-designed teaching material and sufficient teaching time
given by the teacher could draw the learners' attention to the
unacceptable positions in both languages.

2.

figure2

Sentence-Modifying Adverbials
2.

B1

Arabic   English

LANGUAGE
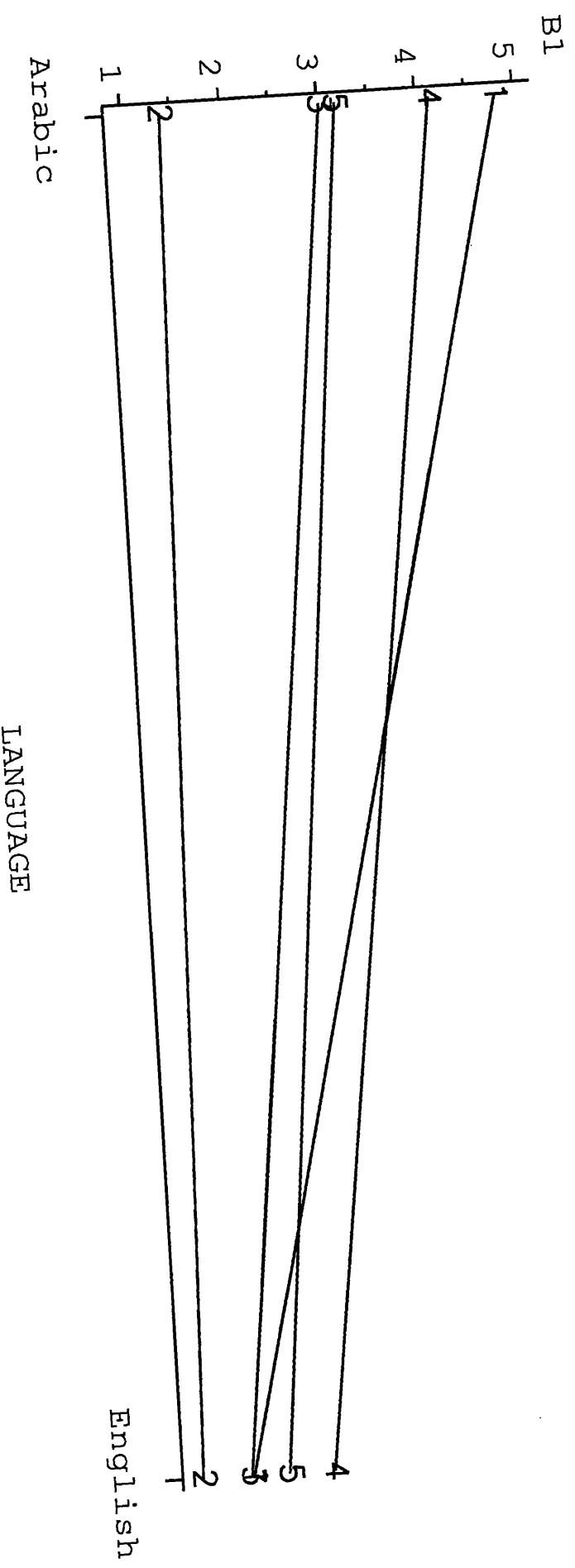
CRITERION	ENGLISH	ARABIC
FUNCTIONAL	SMA	SAME
POSITIONAL	MOBILE	RESTRICTED
SEMANTIC	ATTITUDINAL	SAME
SYNTACTIC	OPTIONAL	SAME

English: All positions are quite acceptable with varying degrees. 2 (initial) is the most natural place. 1 and 3 are fairly equal in their acceptability. 5 and 4 are fairly normal with a nuance that 5 is a step nearer to acceptability. Positions 3, 1, and 4 need contrastive intonation to sound acceptable.

Arabic: Of the five positions only 2 is acceptable; the others are non-Arabic due to the sentence structure and the adverbial itself. Positions 3 and 5 require contrastive intonation to sound more acceptable. Whereas English allows the adverbial to appear immediately after the auxiliary, Arabic denies such an occurrence. This is because, as was mentioned earlier, Arabic, unlike English, does not distinguish auxiliaries as a discrete class, though some particles like [qad] function as English auxiliaries. If present, no space is allocated for the adverbial to appear between such particles and the following verb.

The above description reveals that there is one positional similarity, four disparities. Apart from the limitations set by the Arabic sentence the two languages have the same position for the natural sequence. Such similarity in selection of the position may prevent learners from using the undesirable positions. Arab learners will find it easy to place the English adverbial in almost any position utilizing its mobility. However, what remains is a matter of a stylistic commandment. As for English learners of Arabic, other positions than initial would be problematic unless they were

aware of the grammatical rules that systematise the
relationship between the related sentence constituents or
unless they resort to intonation which creates an acceptable
cadence.[12]

3.

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[12]See p for the explanations of these rules.

figure3

Sentence-Modifying Adverbials
3.

C1

LANGUAGE
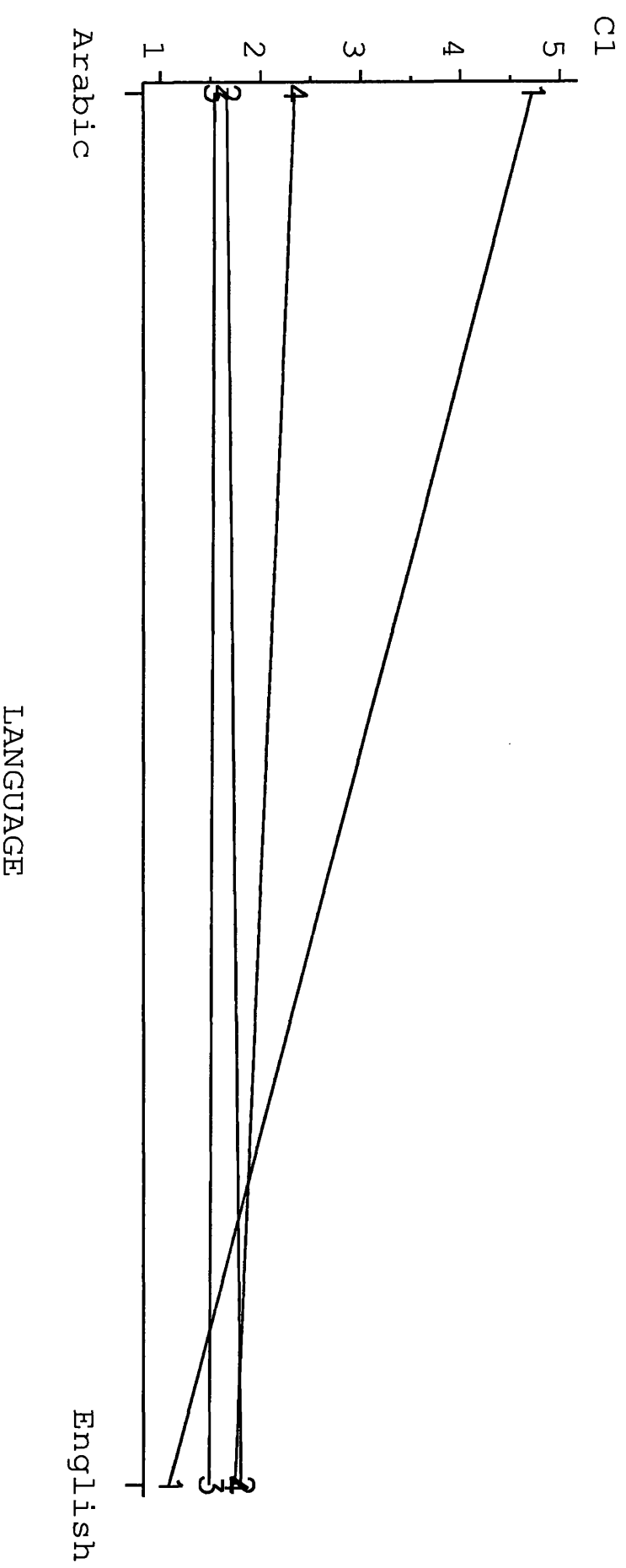
CRITERION	ENGLISH	ARABIC
FUNCTIONAL	SMA	SAME
POSITIONAL	MOBILE	FAIRLY MOBILE
SEMANTIC	ATTITUDINAL	SAME
SYNTACTIC	OPTIONAL	SAME

English: In negative sentences English SMAs are rather free to appear in most positions. Thus all positions are acceptable though in slightly varying degrees. Position 1 (after the negative particle) is preferred to others, so they appear in this rank order of acceptability: 1, 3, 4,2. Arabic: Although Arabic almost shows the same degree of preference, it contrasts sharply with English for the occurrence after the negative particle. While Arabic disallows the occurrence of an adverbial between the negative particle and the following verb, English favours such an occurrence. This is justified by the fact that the negative precedes the verb in Arabic, but follows the auxiliary or verb 'to be' in English. Conclusively it can be said that no foreseeable problems would be found as the number of positional similarities is three times the disparities.

4.

figure 4
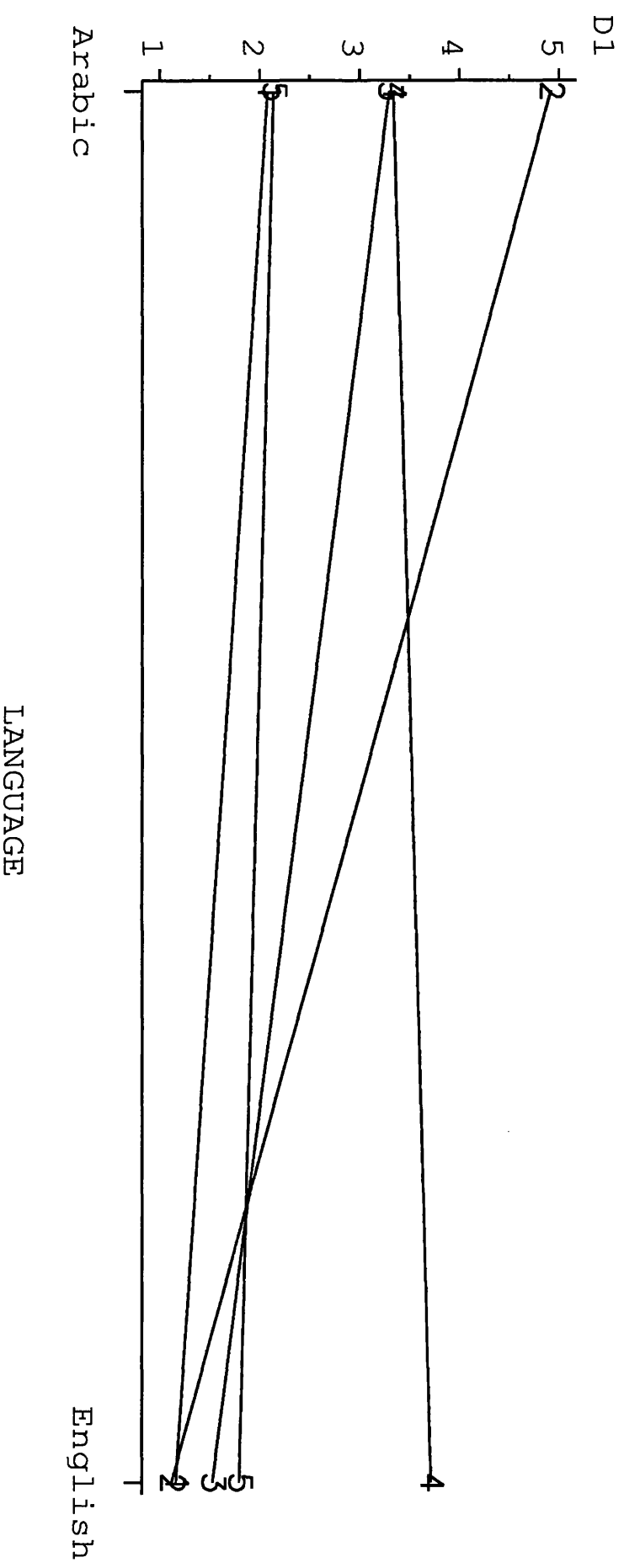
4. Sentence-Modifying Adverbials

D1

LANGUAGE

CRITERION	ENGLISH	ARABIC
FUNCTIONAL	SMA	SAME
POSITIONAL	MOBILE	RATHER RESTRICTED
SEMANTIC	ATTITUDINAL	SAME
SYNTACTIC	OPTIONAL	SAME

English: Only one position (4) out of five is unacceptable. The other four positions come in the following order of acceptability: 2, 3, and 5.

Arabic: Arabic embraces only two positions (1 and 5). Others are disallowed. The difference between the English sentences and Arabic ones can be explained by two reasons: semanto-syntactic and formational. The first has just been detailed in the description of graph 3 in that Arabic permits no intervening element to appear between the negative particle and the following verb. The second reason is responsible for the native speakers' reluctance to place the adverbial in medial position. Though no strict restrictions operate on the adverbial appearance in positions between the subject and object of the sentence or between the direct object and indirect one, Arabic native speakers are likely to avoid accommodating the adverbial there, wherein intonation plays an important role. Two remarks are useful here. First, English adverbials can be negated independently by attaching one of the negation prefixes like un-, im- whereas Arabic often negates its adverbials by one of the negative particles such as [ġaira] 'with the exclusion, without'; [duuna] 'without, un-, in-'. Such a formational distinction which helps English negative adverbials to move around, restrains the Arabic ones. Second, sentence negation in both languages can be fulfilled by the verb negation or/and adverbial negation.

The above discussion shows that the number of positional similarities is three, disparities two. If they have mastered the limitations on the positions in such sentences in both languages, learners have no problems for the position choice.

5.

figure5

5. Sentence—Modifying Adverbials

LANGUAGE

Arabic

English

E1

1
2
3
4
5

1
2
3
4
5
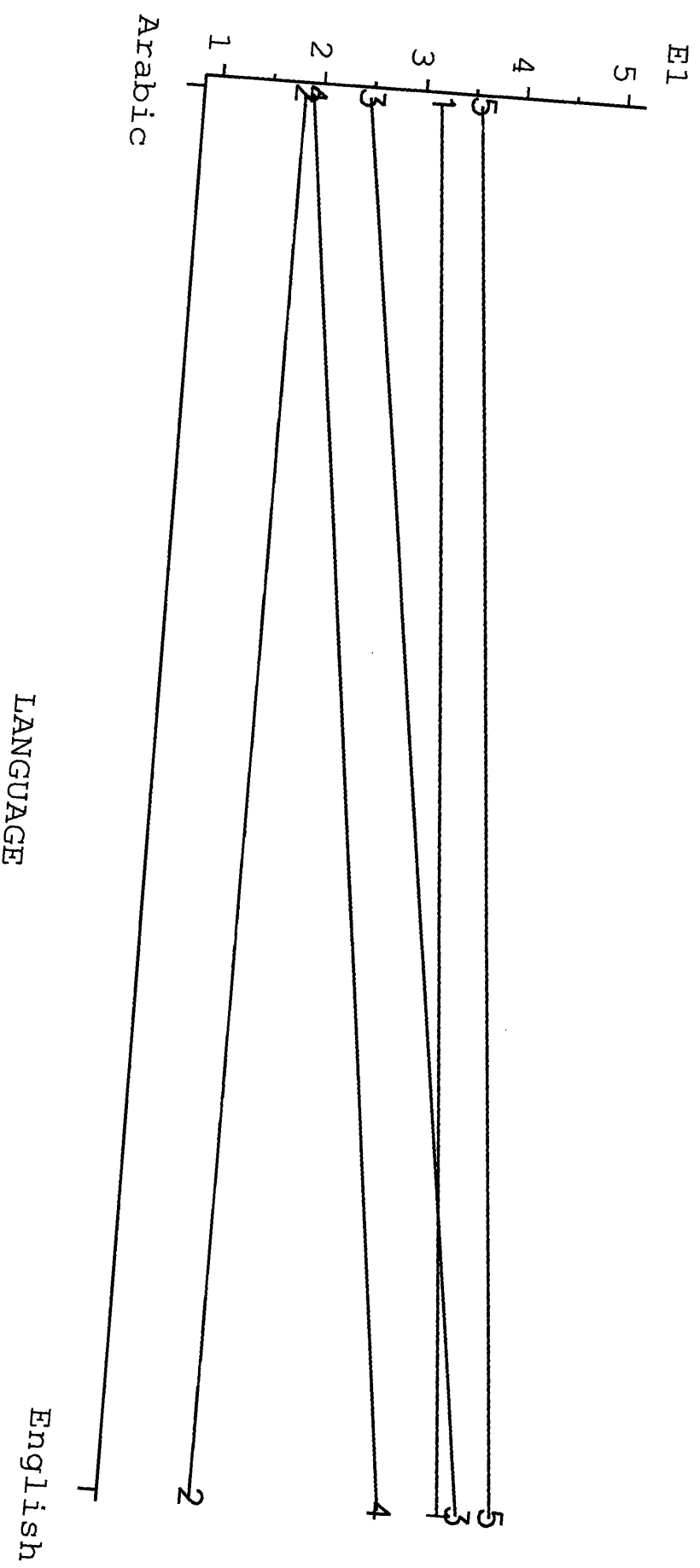
CRITERION	ENGLISH	ARABIC
FUNCTION	SMA	SAME
POSITION	RESTRICTED	RATHER FREE
SEMANTIC	STYLE ADVERBIAL	SAME
SYNTACTIC	OPTIONAL	SAME

English: Of the five positions, only one position (2) is acceptable. English interrogative sentences allow the adverbial (SMA) to appear only in initial position. Position 4 could be acceptable if the adverbial is heavily accented.

Arabic: Though Arabic, like English, favours initial position, it renders other positions acceptable: 4 and 3. 3 needs contrastive intonation to sound right. Consequently, Arabic is somewhat freer than English in allocating the adverbial slightly more positions. Thus the number of positional similarities (three) is more than the disparities (two). However, it is to be expected that Arab learners position the adverbial in question in places where it does not fit: in sentence-final or sentence-medial positions. If such is the case it reflects an interaction of such factors as transfer, syntactic overgeneralization and formal instruction. Again, careful explanation will prevent Arabic learners from using any erroneous positions. Such an explanation insists that the permissible position in such a type of sentence structure is initial. On the other hand, English learners face no difficulty, but a similar explanation will be of help: that the comfortable positions in Arabic interrogative sentences are first initial, then final.

OUTCOME

At the end of this analysis of SMAs positions in the two languages, it can be said that the areas of similarity suggest that language learners[13] face no serious problems when using adverbial positions. They have many alternatives (choices) to select from, especially in declarative sentences.

Well-designed teaching materials could draw the learners'
attention to the fact that many positions are possible but
only a few, namely initial positions, give the sentence a
natural sequence. However, Arab learners encounter a
difficulty with adverbial placement in interrogative
sentences. Most probably they make mistakes when they
accommodate the adverbial in question in medial and final
positions.

SUBJECT-MODIFYING ADVERBIALS

1.

---

[13]This expression refers to the learners of both languages
under comparison wherever used.

figure6

Subject-Modifying Adverbials
1.
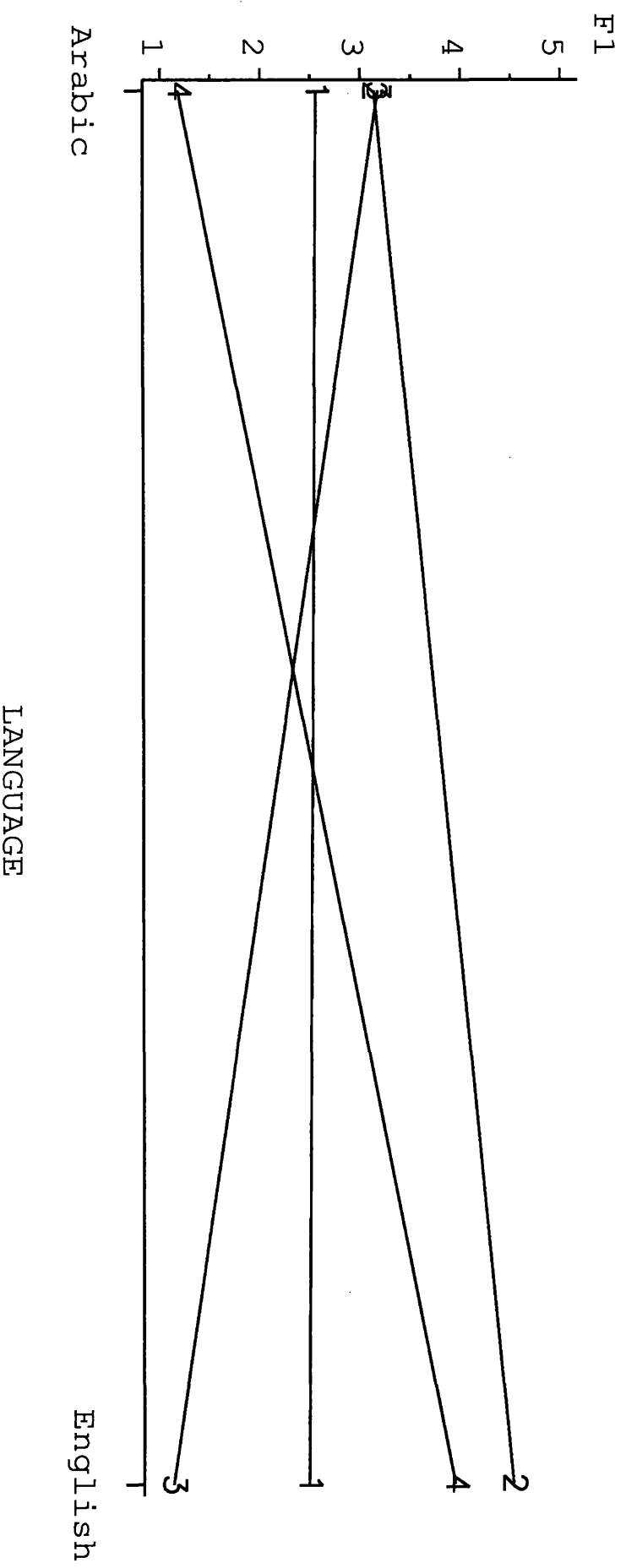
F1

5

4

3

2

1

Arabic

English

LANGUAGE

CRITERION	ENGLISH	ARABIC
FUNCTIONAL	SUBMA	SAME
POSITIONAL	RATHER RESTRICTED	SAME
SEMANTIC	SUBJECT-ORIENTED	SAME
SYNTACTIC	OPTIONAL	SAME

English: Half of the positions are acceptable (3 and 1), the other half are unacceptable (4 and 2) due to their remoteness from the modified element: the subject. Another reason for the oddity of position 2 is that English, under normal circumstances, disallows the occurrence of the adverbial between the verb and its object.

Arabic: Of the four positions, 4 is perfectly acceptable, the others are rare. Unlike English these positions (1, 2, 3) are marginally acceptable. Arabic native speakers oscillate in their judgements about the acceptance of these positions, though their average opinion is that they are rare. As mentioned earlier, the type of the verb determines, in many cases, the selection of the adverbial position. It is especially noted here that [daxala] 'entered' requires the object of the sentence to be close to it, pushing the adverbial to the end of the sentence.

The difference in the selection of the position for this type of adverbial in the two languages has to do principally with the peculiar way each language constructs its sentences. This may be a source of some Arab learners' errors. They may place the adverbial in a final position where it does not fit. Although the two languages emphasise that the normal habitat for SUBMAs is after the subject of the sentence, they give way to another position: 1. This positional placement is one means that language employs to achieve focus as a pragmatic function; i.e. to be placed as the theme, relegating the rest to the rheme.

2.

figure7

Subject-Modifying Adverbials
2.
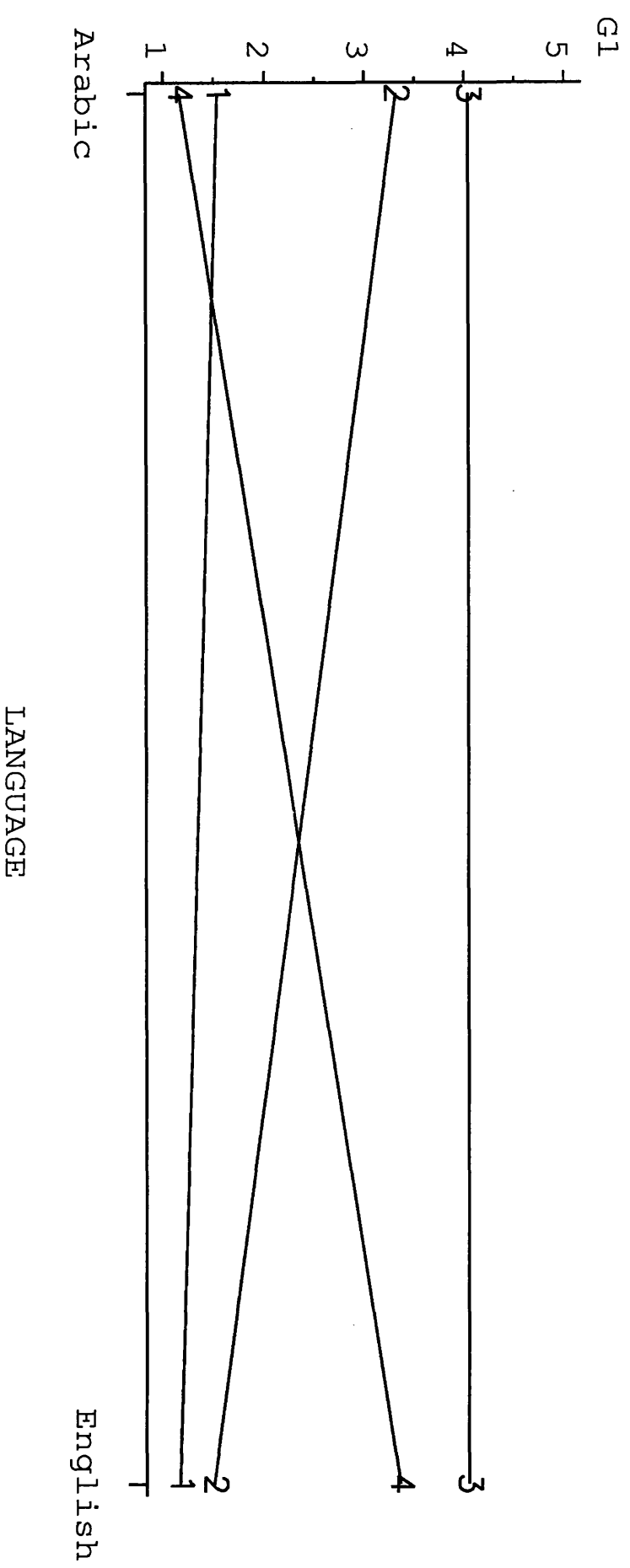
LANGUAGE

CRITERION	ENGLISH	ARABIC
FUNCTIONAL	SUBMA	SAME
POSITIONAL	RATHER RESTRICTED	SAME
SEMANTIC	SUBJECT-ORIENTED	SAME
SYNTACTIC	OPTIONAL	SAME

English: Fully acceptable positions are those in the vicinity of the subject (1 and 2); the others are either rare or dubious.

Arabic: The same positional behaviour of English can apply to Arabic. Thus the positions near the subject almost correspond, beyond their contrast on the graph, to their English counterparts. The contrast between position 4 of Arabic and that of English is structural rather than functional. It is, as previously mentioned, due to the different way each language arranges its sentence constituents. The more constituents the sentence has the more amount of effect be laid on the position choice. Possibly, if the English sentence dispensed with the two complements (the infinitive and indirect object) the adverbial humbly might be more likely to appear sentence finally. An additional reason for the contrast is that Arabic, as mentioned earlier, predisposes modifiers to be located in final position when the sentence has more elements. A look at the figures 6 and 7 shows that the difference in acceptability of the position immediately after the subject is explained in terms of the verb type. Whereas the verb of the sentence of figure 6 necessitates an occurrence of the object without which the sentence meaning is bizarre, the verb of this sentence does not necessarily require an object without which the sentence is still meaningful.

3.

figure8
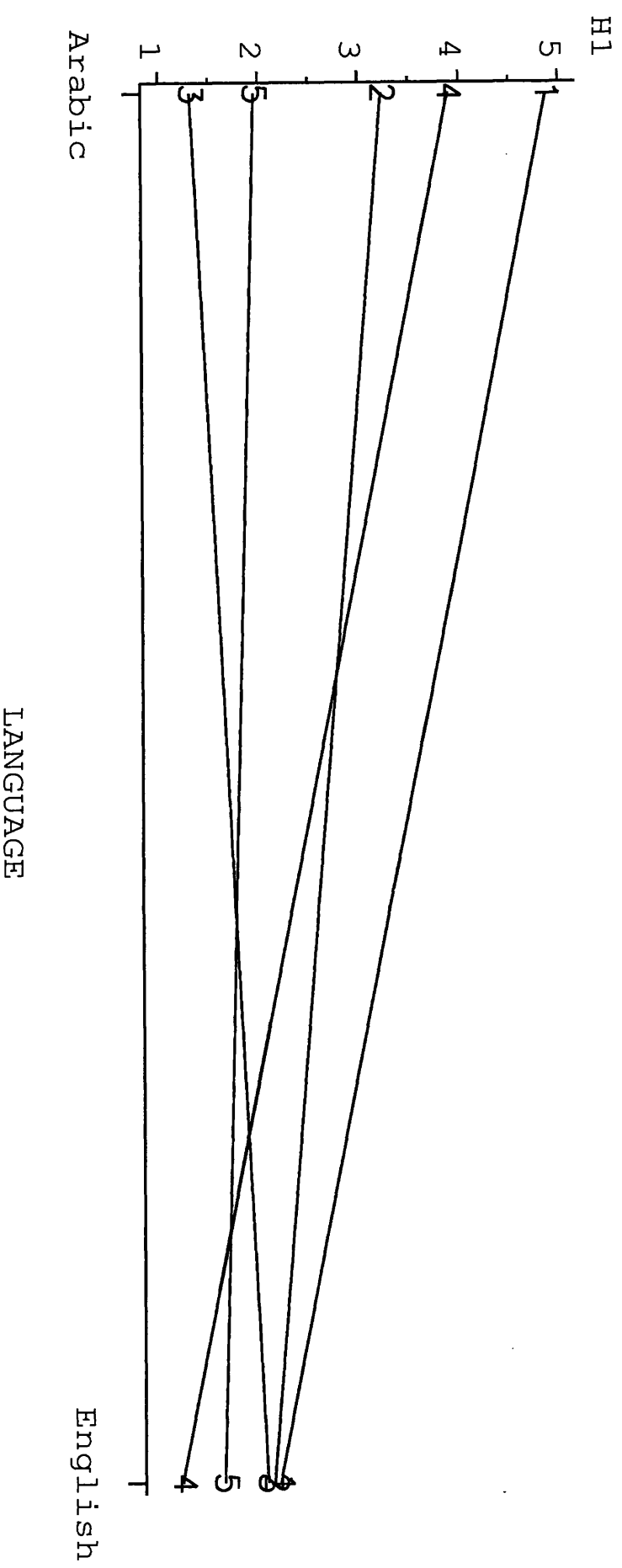
3. Subject-Modifying Adverbials

H1

LANGUAGE

CRITERION	ENGLISH	ARABIC
FUNCTIONAL	SUBMA	SAME
POSITIONAL	MOBILE	RATHER RESTRICTED
SEMANTIC	SUBJECT-ORIENTED	SAME
SYNTACTIC	OPTIONAL	SAME

English: All positions are acceptable with one difference that those which are close to the subject of the sentence are more acceptable. Position 4 takes precedence over 5 as unanimously agreed, that such an adverbial is decidedly eligible to commence the sentence and hence carries the speaker's main emphasis.

Arabic: Whereas positions after the subject of the sentence (2 out of 5) pass muster completely, those before it do not. 3 has more chances of acceptance for two reasons: first, Arabic tends to push all non-basic sentence elements to the end of the sentence. Second, the obligatory existence of another adverbial [?ila lqaa^{c}ati] 'to the theatre' required by the verb meaning works out to be adjacent to the verb.

OUTCOME

The two languages agree on the positions readily occupied by members of SUBMAs. Apart from the different way these languages build their sentences, English and Arabic SUBMAs favour those positions in the vicinity of their head. A notable difference is that while English explicitly favours the position immediately after the subject, Arabic places this position second to final. This explains why Arab learners might make slight mistakes when they employ final position for such types of adverbial. However, this kind of problem can be lessened by a careful explanation which stresses that these adverbials are better accommodated after the subject of the sentence.

VERB-MODIFYING ADVERBIALS

1.

figure9

Verb-Modifying Adverbials

1.

LANGUAGE
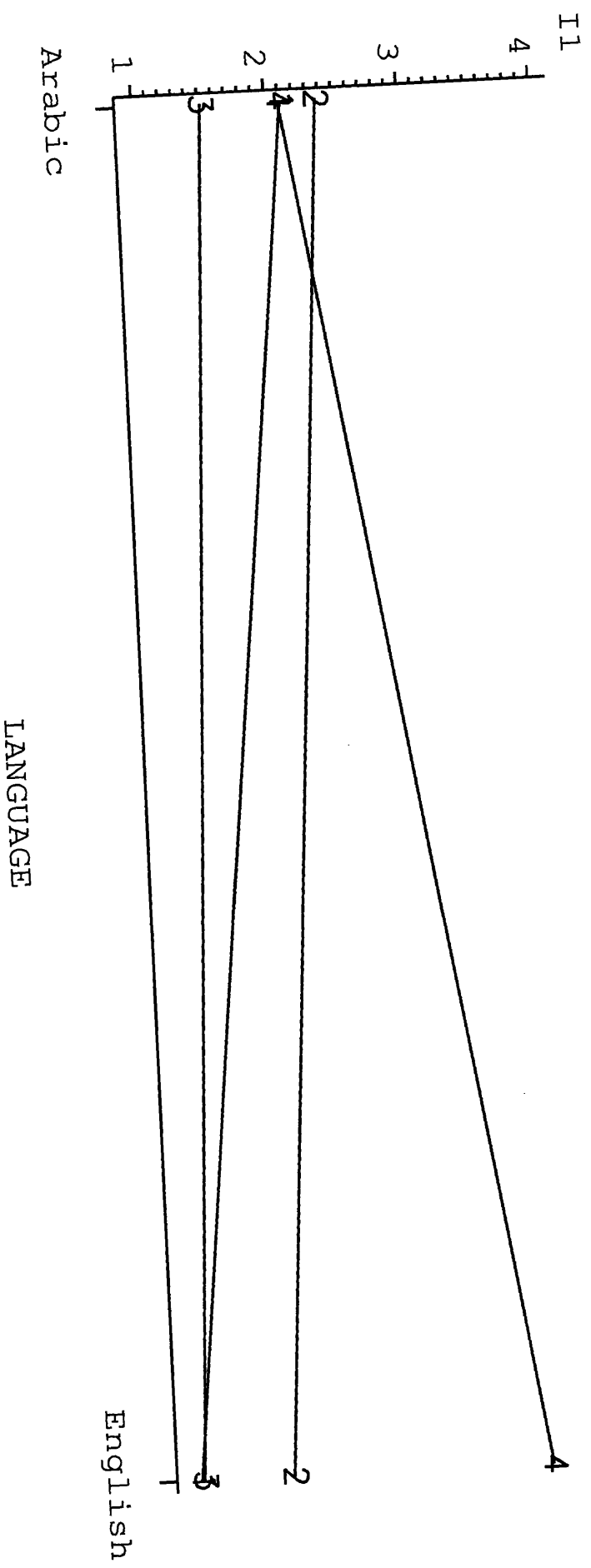
CRITERION	ENGLISH	ARABIC
FUNCTIONAL	VMA	SAME
POSITIONAL	FAIRLY MOBILE	MOBILE
SEMANTIC	DEGREE OR MANNER	FREQUENCY
SYNTACTIC	OPTIONAL	SAME

English: All positions are acceptable but one: 4. Such types of adverbial are uncommon in initial position. The reason for appearance of this adverbial in more than one place is its being homonymous. This, indeed, gives English a peculiar adverbial fluidity.

Arabic: All positions are acceptable, with the emphasis that 3, as in English, is in the forefront. Thus, it can be said that Arab learners influenced by the flexibility of Arabic word order may place the adverbial in initial position which jars on many English native speakers.

The graph reveals that the number of positional similarities is three; there is one disparity. No predictable difficulties will be expected owing to the similarity the two languages show.

2.

figure 10

Verb-Modifying Adverbials figure 2.
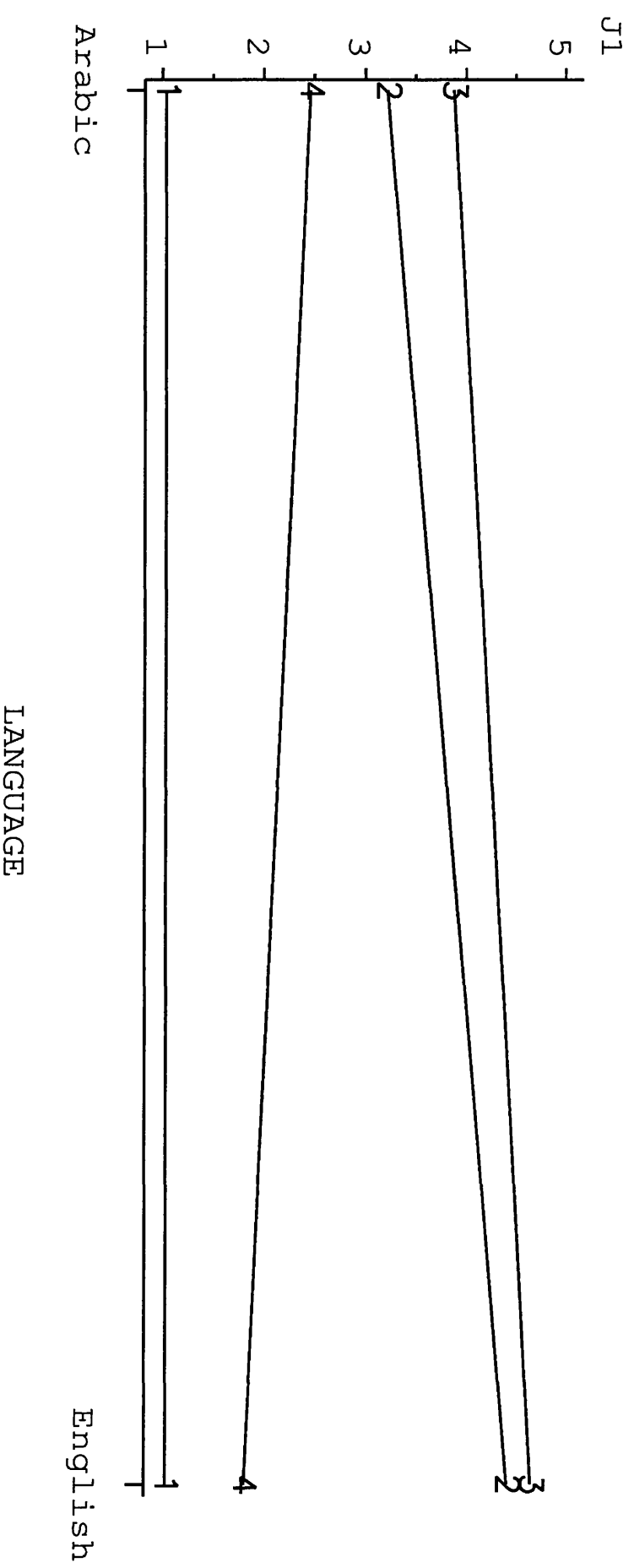
J1

5

4

3

2

1

LANGUAGE

Arabic   English

CRITERION	ENGLISH	ARABIC
FUNCTIONAL	VMA	SAME
POSITIONAL	RATHER RESTRICTED	SAME
SEMANTIC	MANNER	SAME
SYNTACTIC	OPTIONAL	SAME

English: Of the four positions, two are acceptable, those adjacent to the modified verb. The unacceptability of 2 and 3 arises out of the semantic/syntactic constraints which operate on the selection of the position. These constraints stress that the adverbial should not be moved out of the clause of its head; if this were to happen the sentence meaning would be distorted.

Arabic: The same observation holds true for Arabic. 1 is equally acceptable in the two languages. 4, though not as exactly acceptable as English, is another place for the adverbial.

The two languages obviously designate the positions which are comfortable in such contexts and reject those which are unacceptable. Accordingly, learners will not find it difficult to assign the acceptable positions for such a type of adverbial.

3.

figure 11
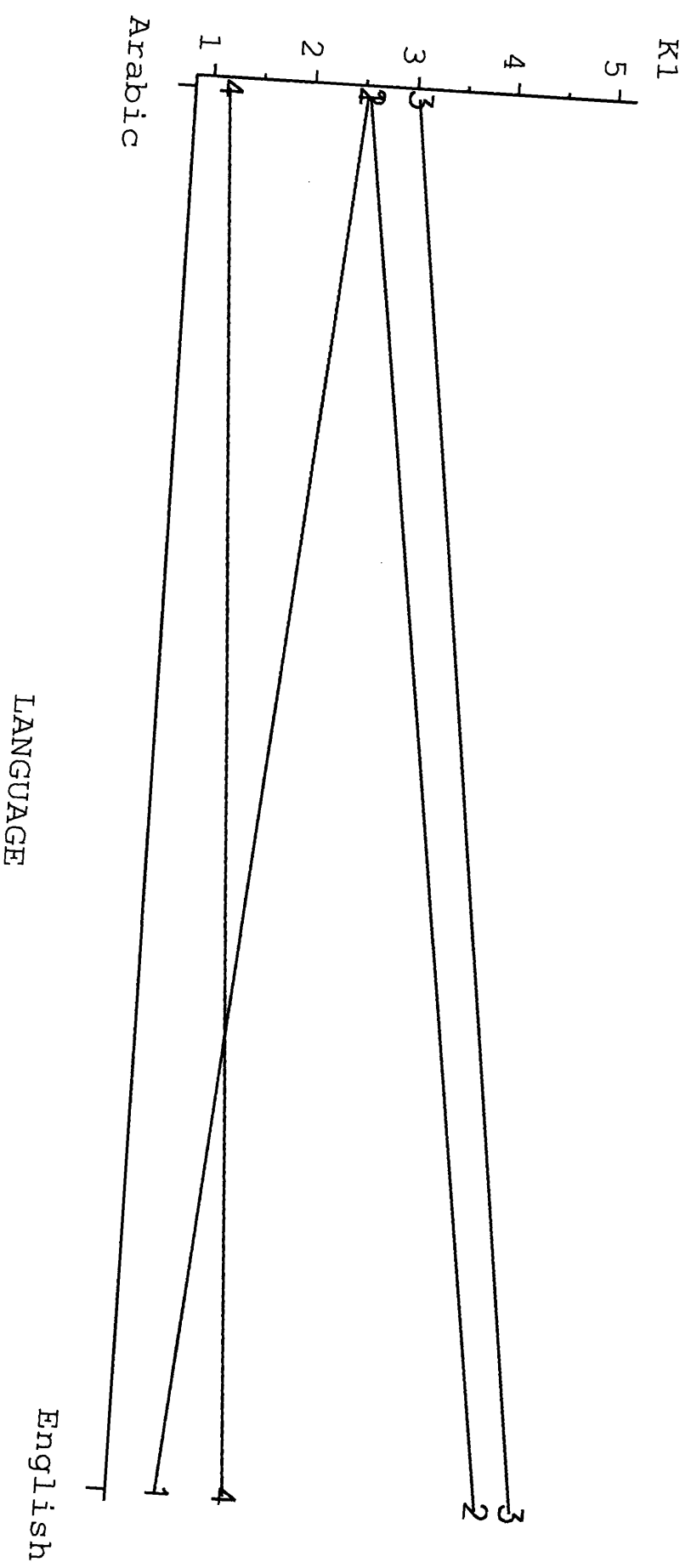
Verb-Modifying Adverbials
3.

K1

5

4

3

2

1

Arabic

English

LANGUAGE

CRITERION	ENGLISH	ARABIC
FUNCTIONAL	VMA	SAME
POSITIONAL	RATHER RESTRICTED	SAME
SEMANTIC	DEGREE	SAME
SYNTACTIC	OPTIONAL	SAME

English: Two positions out of four are acceptable, particularly the one closer to the verb. The other two positions are abnormal because of the semantic cooccurrence the adverbial shares with the main verb of the sentence. Such a type of restriction rations the adverbial to positions after the verb.

Arabic: Such a type of adverbial exhibits sharp limitations in its occurrence. It is mostly restricted to final position. So only one position (4) out of four possibilities, is fully acceptable, the others are rarely used. Though the graph shows no predictable problems, some could occur arising from false instructions or overgeneralization. Arab learners may be biased towards a preconceived explanation that adverbials are generally placed after the auxiliary or before the verb. If unaware of the limitations this adverbial shows, Arab learners probably position it before the main verb or at initial position.

4.

figure 12

Verb-Modifying Adverbials
4.
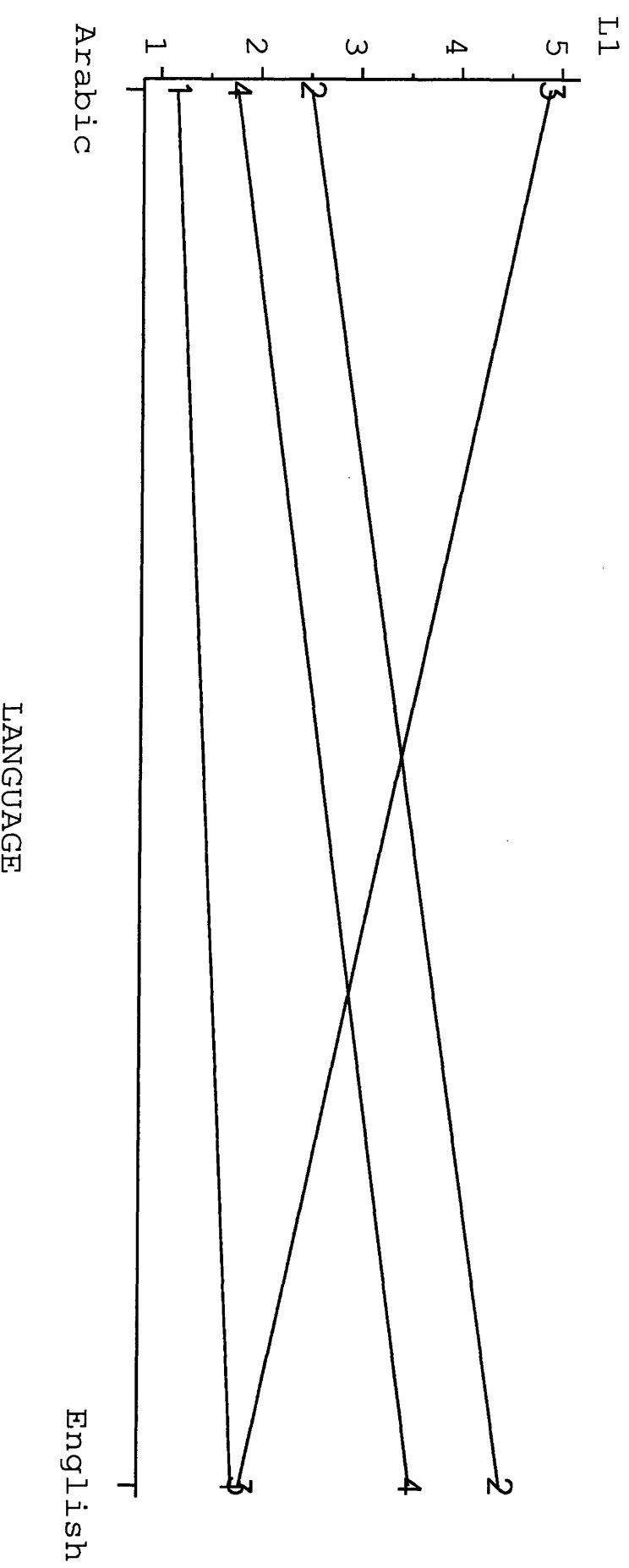
L1

Arabic   English

LANGUAGE

CRITERION	ENGLISH	ARABIC
FUNCTIONAL	VMA	SAME
POSITIONAL	RATHER RESTRICTED	FAIRLY MOBILE
SEMANTIC	DEGREE	SAME
SYNTACTIC	OPTIONAL	SAME

English: The positions immediately before the verb and that at the end of the sentence are the only acceptable ones. The homonymous interpretation of this adverbial enables it to straddle these two positions. Positions 2 and 4 are inappropriate places since that the former is the normal habitat for SMAs but not for VMAs; the latter is debarred by a constraint set by English that generally speaking no adverbial intervenes between the verb and the following noun.

Arabic: Of the four positions two are fully acceptable. 1, like English, is the first choice. 4, unlike English, is another comfortable place for the adverbial. Functionally, it could correspond to English 4 in that it denotes a higher degree on the scale; positionally, it is different owing to the sentence structure which debars the adverbial from occurring between the verb and the sentence complement. While 2 is rare, 3 is unacceptable as no intervening element is allowed between the negative particle and the following verb.

The discussion shows that there are equal places accessible to Arabic and English but with a difference that they are not exactly similar. The English adverbial shows some kind of idiosyncratic predilection that requires it be placed close to the verb. On the other hand, Arabic grants the adverbial more freedom to appear, though rarely, in places from which the English adverbial is inhibited (cf. position two in the two languages).

5.

figure13

5. Verb-Modifying Adverbials
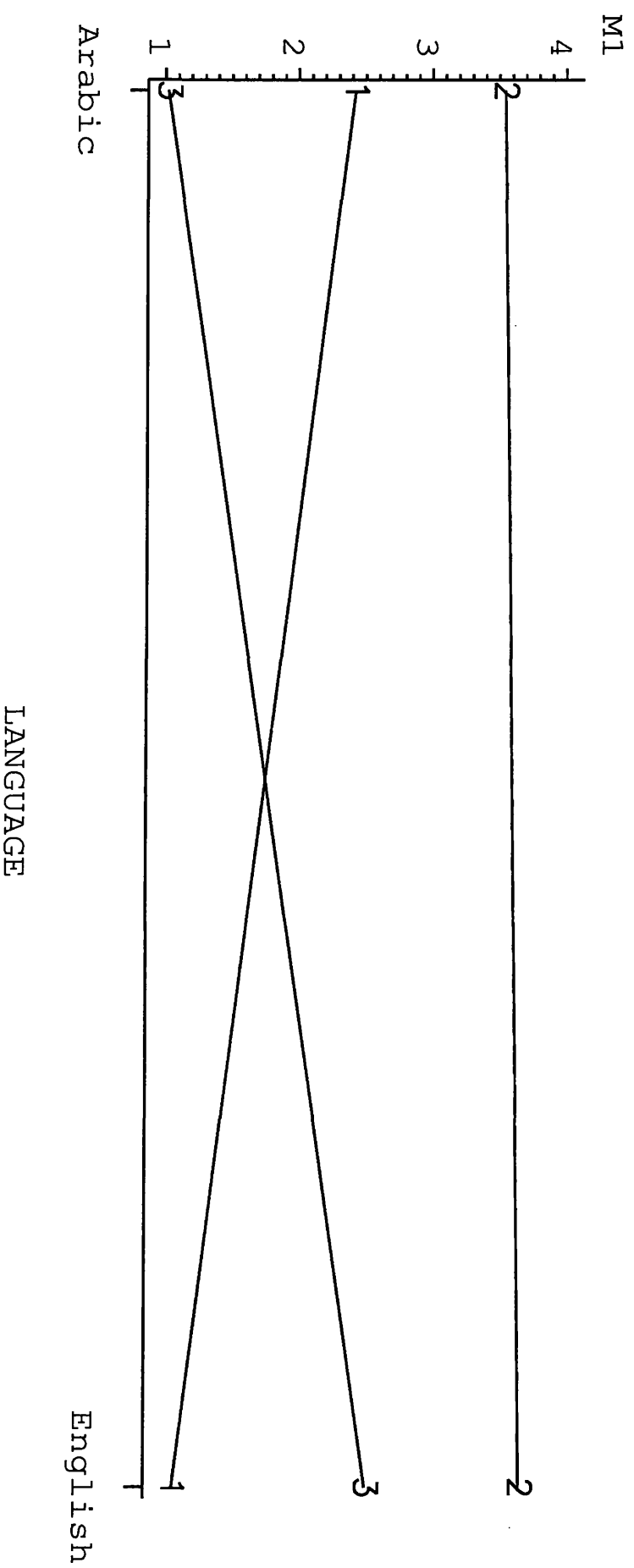
M1

LANGUAGE

CRITERION	ENGLISH	ARABIC
FUNCTIONAL	VMA	SAME
POSITIONAL	RATHER RESTRICTED	SAME
SEMANTIC	FREQUENCY	SAME
SYNTACTIC	OPTIONAL	SAME

English: In imperative sentences, VMAs are normally placed in initial position. Other positions are either rare (final) or dubious (medial).

Arabic: Unlike English, the normal position is final. 1, though not as normal as English, is another possibility. 2, like English, is far less acceptable.

The two languages differ in defining the positions for such a type of adverbial in this kind of sentence structure. Whereas Arabic gives way to two positions with a preference to final, English insists on initial position. Learners may encounter difficulties due to the difference in the position choice in the two languages. That is to say, they may not place the adverbial in its canonical position.

OUTCOME

The main difference between English VMAs and those of Arabic is that whereas the former are more restricted in declarative sentences to positions either just before the verb or sentence-final and to initial position in imperatives, the latter generally have access to most positions in the sentences exclusive of those inhibited by grammatical rules. Problems could be met in the selection of the most appropriate position. Another dimension of the problematic area is the mismatch of initial position in the two languages, in addition to that of the position immediately after the negative particle. Apart from this, the two languages have common positions for VMAs.

VERB PHRASE-MODIFYING ADVERBIALS

1.

figure14

Verb Phrase-Modifying Adverbials

1.

N1

Arabic

LANGUAGE
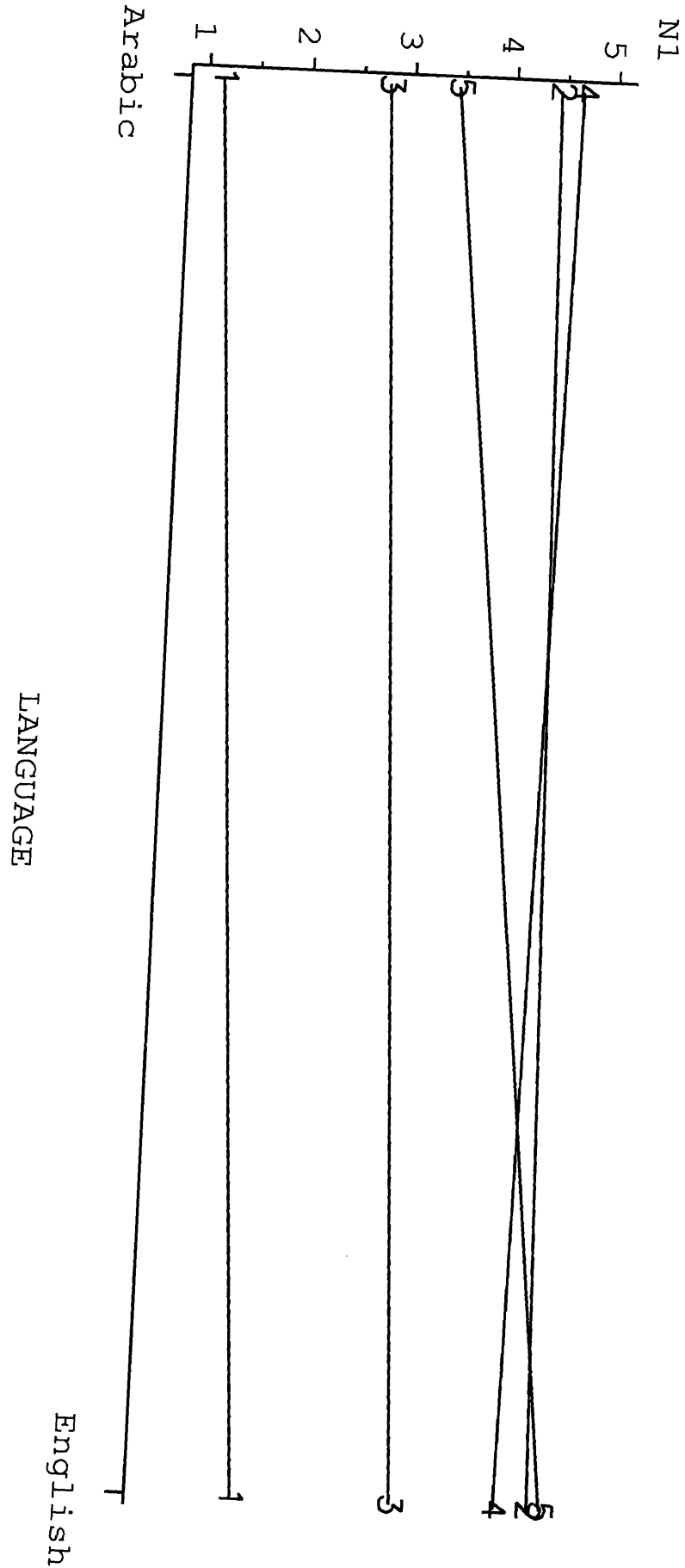
English

CRITERION	ENGLISH	ARABIC
FUNCTIONAL	VPMA	SAME
POSITIONAL	RESTRICTED	SAME
SEMANTIC	LOCATIVE	SAME
SYNTACTIC	OPTIONAL	SAME

English: As this adverbial shows a peculiar use, only one position is acceptable: 1. 3 is unusual; other positions are unacceptable.

Arabic: The same observation holds for Arabic.

The two languages restrict the occurrence of this kind of adverbial to final position. That is, they have the same feature that that adverbial is used predicatively. Due to the positional similarity in the two languages, no foreseeable problems are predicted.

2.

figure 15

Verb Phrase-Modifying Adverbials
2.

O1

LANGUAGE
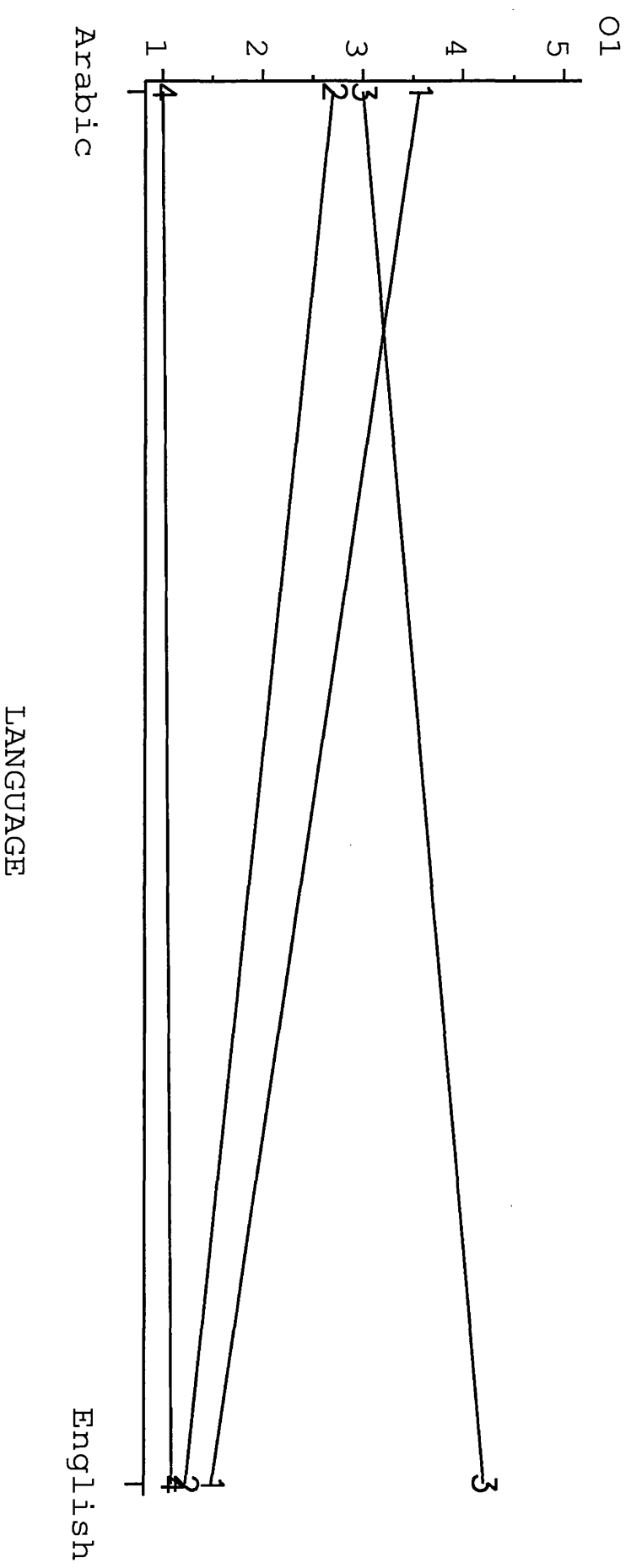
Arabic   English

CRITERION	ENGLISH	ARABIC
FUNCTIONAL	VPMA	SAME
POSITIONAL	FAIRLY MOBILE	RATHER MOBILE
SEMANTIC	MANNER	SAME
SYNTACTIC	OPTIONAL	SAME

English: The graph shows that three positions are acceptable; one is dubious. The first choice is 4 (final) which is the grammatical position for such adverbials. As clarified in chapter five p153, the acceptability of other positions, regardless of their grammaticality, is explained formally: that is, the simple form of the adverbial helps it interspersing in these positions.

Arabic: Position 4, as in English, is the most acceptable one, other positions are possible but not as common as 4. These positions are intuitively bizarre, though they are grammatically correct.

The two languages almost share the same position as their first choice. They also show that other positions could occur but with a difference in the degree of their acceptability. It can also be registered that English native speakers allow the adverbial to occupy more positions than Arabic speakers do.

3.

figure16

Verb Phrase-Modifying Adverbials

3.

P1

5 —

4 —

3 —

2 —

1 —

Arabic

English

LANGUAGE
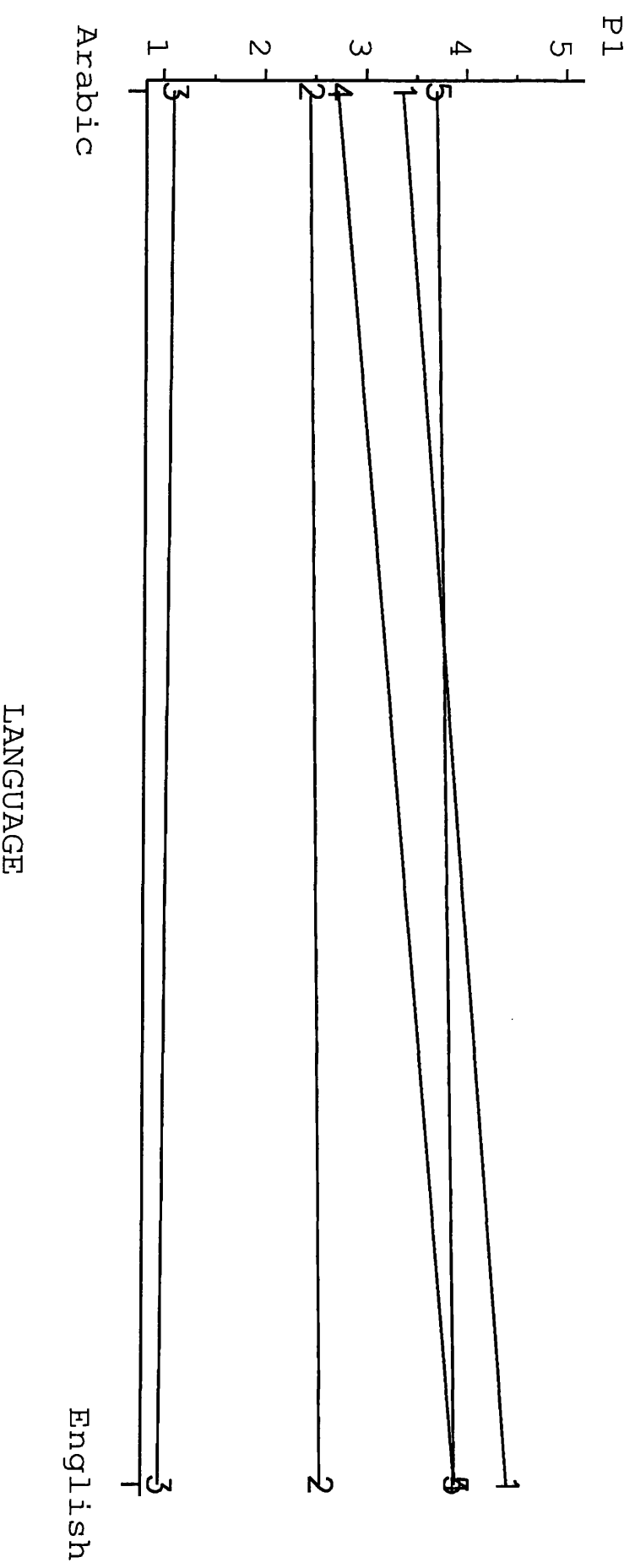
CRITERION	ENGLISH	ARABIC
FUNCTIONAL	VPMA	SAME
POSITIONAL	RATHER RESTRICTED	RATHER MOBILE
SEMANTIC	INSTRUMENT	MANNER
SYNTACTIC	OPTIONAL	SAME

English: 3 is the most natural sequence. 2 is not frequent. Other positions which are occur medially are unusual.

Arabic: Arabic also retains the same order of naturalness as does English. 3 is more acceptable than 2, which is not uncommon. Other positions which are also all at medial position are less dubious than English positions.

The two languages are clear in their selection of position for VPMAs. They bear the same resemblance for acceptable positions as well as for those which are less acceptable. Owing to the level of similarity, the learners face no difficulty in positioning the adverbial.

4.

figure17

Verb Phrase-Modifying Adverbials 4.
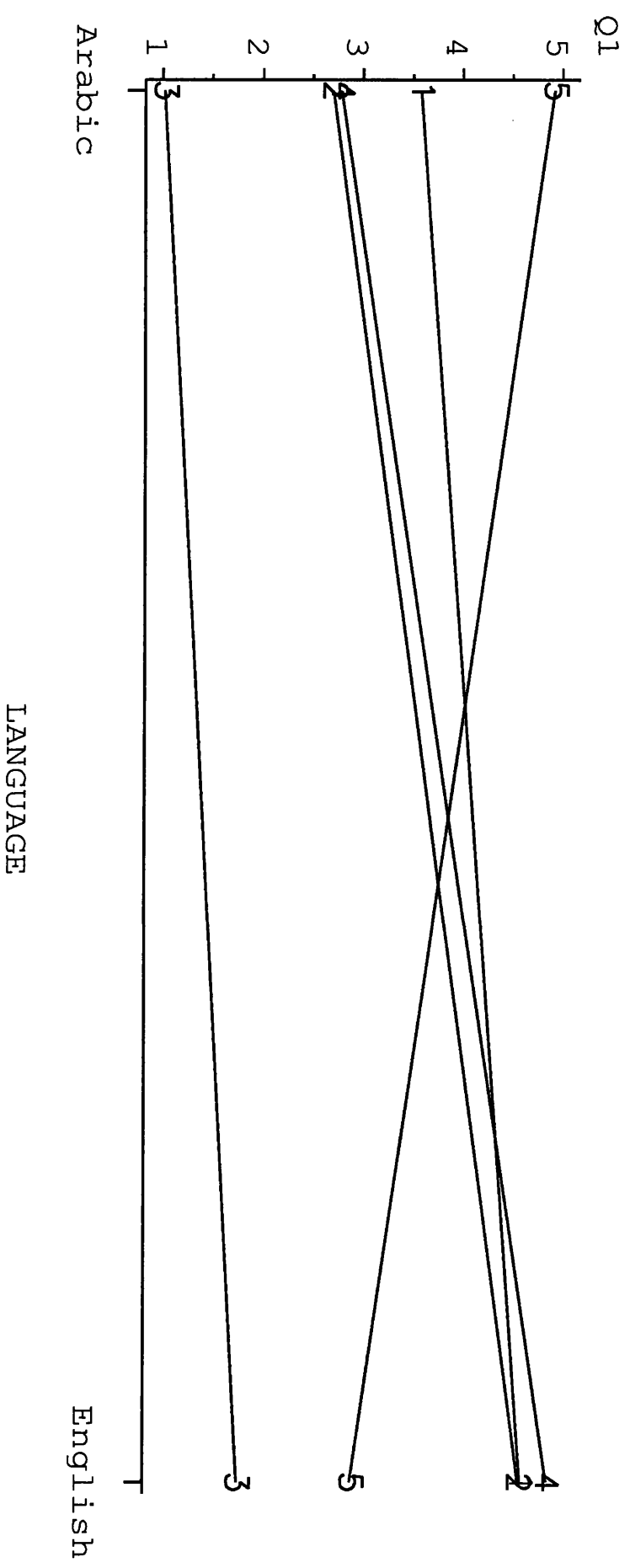
Q1

5
4
3
2
1

Arabic   English

LANGUAGE

CRITERION	ENGLISH	ARABIC
FUNCTIONAL	VPMA	SAME
POSITIONAL	RATHER RESTRICTED	SAME
SEMANTIC	MANNER	SAME
SYNTACTIC	OPTIONAL	SAME

English: Position 3 (final) is the only natural position in a negative sentence by virtue of the adverbial involvement in the scope of negation. 5 is rarely used; 1,2 and 4 are unacceptable.

Arabic: Arabic nearly shows the same positional phenomenon but with a difference in adverbial acceptability. 3 matches English 3 in its normality. 4 and 2, though rare, are not as dubious as in English. 1 is dubious, 5 is completely rejected. The relative mobility of Arabic adverbial placement comparable with that of English is a possible source of some Arab learners' mistakes. They may insert the adverbial in unacceptable places.

The two languages clearly share the same position (3) for a natural sentence sequence; but they hardly hold with other positions.

5.

figure18

Verb Phrase-Modifying Adverbials

LANGUAGE
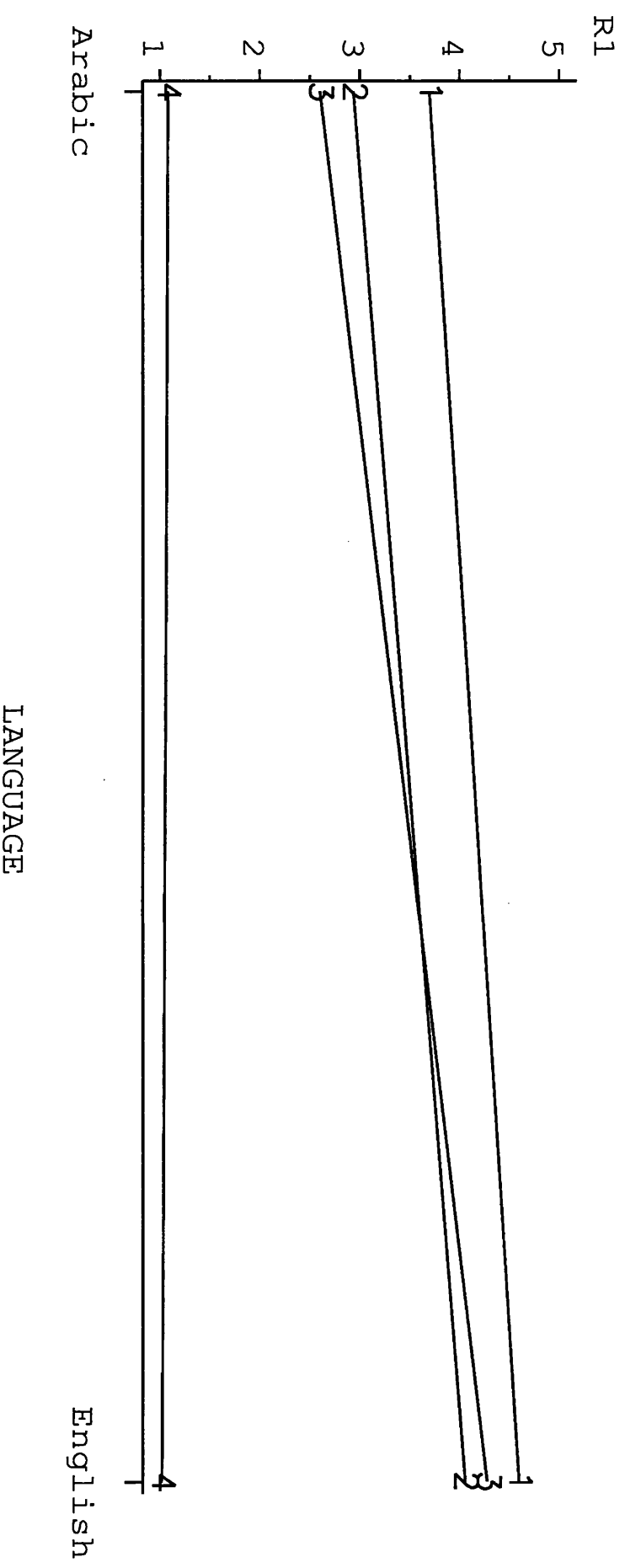
CRITERION	ENGLISH	ARABIC
FUNCTIONAL	VPMA	SAME
POSITIONAL	RESTRICTED	SAME
SEMANTIC	DENOTING FREQUENCY OF ACTION	DENOTING MANNER OF ACTION
SYNTACTIC	OPTIONAL	SAME

ENGLISH: All positions are rejected except one: final. The natural sequence of interrogative sentences demands the adverbial to be in final position and no other position can be offered to the adverbial.

Arabic: As in English, the same preferable position is accessible to this type of adverbial. Other positions, though far less unacceptable than English, are uncomfortable places for the adverbial.

Despite the semantic dissimilarity of the adverbials examined, frequency versus manner, the two languages show a good deal of similarity in defining their favourite position. This kind of similarity is a consequence of the match held between the functional/positional properties of the adverbial and the sentence type.

OUTCOME

The two languages have many features in common. They stress that the final position is the fully acceptable one for VPMAs, particularly for those members used predicatively. Initial position might occur for stylistic effect. Medial positions are rarely used or in most cases dubiously. Accordingly, no serious problems may be encountered as long as learners are conversant with the most acceptable position.

HIERARCHY OF MODIFICATION

1.

figure 19

Hierarchy of modification

1.

S1

Arabic

English

LANGUAGE
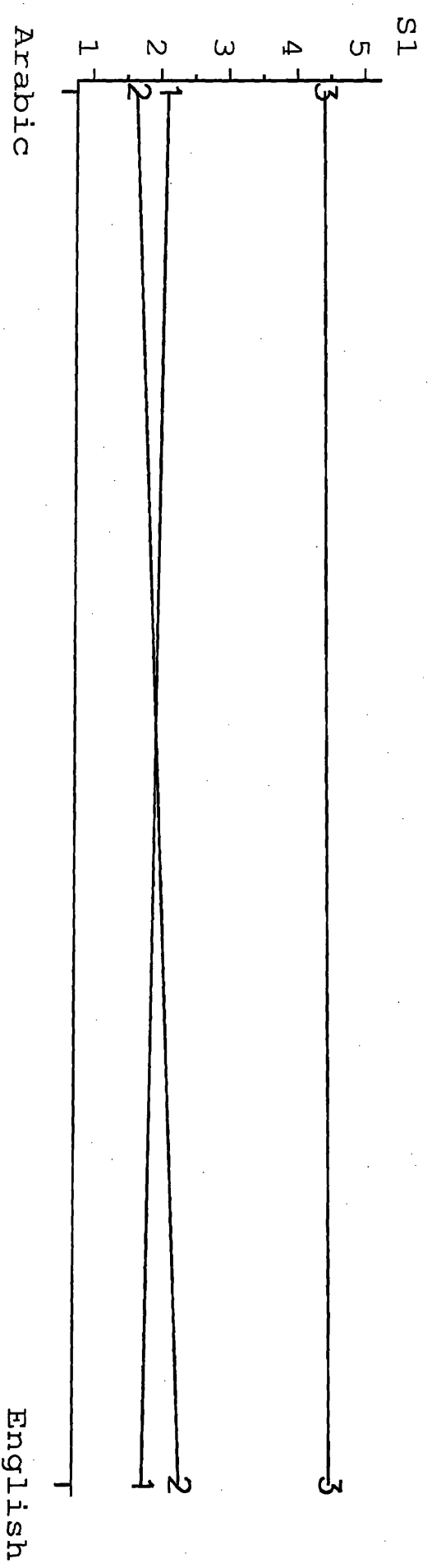
E1= He read the book loudly in the room.
E2= He read the book in the room loudly.
E3= Loudly in the room he read the book.
A1= yaqra?u muhammadun il-qiSSata biSwatin caalin fi lġurfati lmujaawira.
A2= yaqra?u muhammadun fi-lġurfati lmujaawira biSawtin caalin il-qiSSata.
A3= biSawtin caalin fi-lġurfati lmujaawira yaqra?u muhammadun il-qiSSata.

CRITERION	ENGLISH	ARABIC
FUNCTIONAL	SERIAL MODIFIERS	SAME
POSITIONAL	RATHER RESTRICTED	SAME
SEMANTIC	SEQUENCE: MANNER, LOCATIVE	SAME
SYNTACTIC	OPTIONAL	SAME

English: The two adverbials appear in the hierarchy of modification: the first (loudly), in any acceptable positions, modifies the predicate, the second (in the room) functions as a modifier of the whole preceding structure of verb phrase modification. With the emphasis that the string with position 1 is the most frequent, these two types of adverbial can commute positions. So 2 is also acceptable. 3 is clumsy for the inappropriate use of the adverbial consecutiveness to commence the sentence.

Arabic: 1 and 2, as in English, are quite normal but with a distinction that 2 has the priority over 1. The difference between these two positions in the two languages can be explained morphologically. English single word adverbials have the primacy to appear before prepositional phrase adverbials in final position. Though both Arabic adverbials are in the form of prepositional phrases they differ in the preposition conjugation. Such a difference makes the adverbial [biSawtin ^{c}aalin] take precedence over [fi lġurfati lmujaawirati] which has a separate preposition not attached to its complement. Position 3, as in English, is also unacceptable.

The two languages are almost similar in defining the acceptable as well as unacceptable positions. No predictable problems can be seen as the considerable similarity exhibited by the two sentences can facilitate learners' access.

2.

figure20

Hierarchy of modification
2.

Arabic

LANGUAGE

English
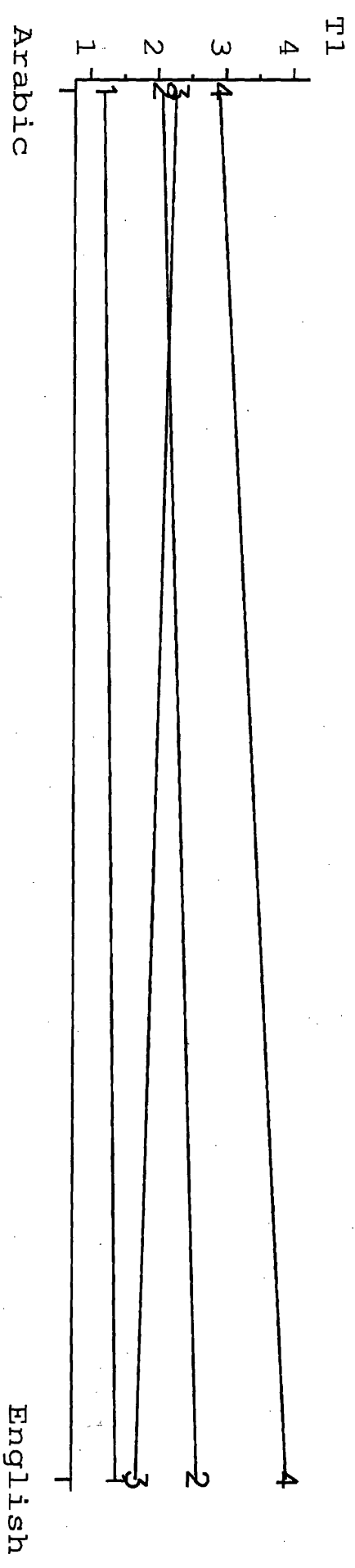
E1= He put the glasses on the table with care.
E2= He put the glasses with care on the table.
E3= With care he put the glasses on the table.
E4= On the table he put the glasses with care.
A1= waDacati l?ummu l?aqdaaħa calaa rraffi bihadarin.
A2= waDacati l?ummu l?aqdaaħa bihadarin calaa rraffi.
A3= bihadarin waDacati l?ummu l?aqdaaħa calaa rraffi.
A4= calaa rraffi waDacati l?ummu l?aqdaaħa bihadarin.

CRITERION	ENGLISH	ARABIC
FUNCTIONAL	SERIAL MODIFIERS	SAME
POSITIONAL	RATHER RESTRICTED	FAIRLY MOBILE
SEMANTIC	SEQUENCE:LOCATIVE MANNER	SAME
SYNTACTIC	FIRST OBLIGATORY SECOND OPTIONAL	SAME

ENGLISH: These adverbials also appear consecutively: the first of which (on the table) modifies the predicate (put the glasses), the second (with care) functions as the modifier of the whole verb phrase modification. Position 1 is the most natural sequence since the obligatory use of the locative adverbial should follow the verb immediately . 3 is quite normal. Whereas 2 is less acceptable 4 is far less so.

Arabic: Almost the same distributional behaviour of these modifiers in English can be approached here. The two adverbials follow the same sequence of modification preferring the obligatory adverbial to take precedence. Thus position 1 is as normal as its English counterpart. 2 and 3 hold slightly different attitudes. 2 is more acceptable than its English corresponding position. 3, though not as acceptable as English 3, is fairly normal. 4 is rare and requires a contrastive intonation to diminish its rareness.

With the emphasis that Arabic is little more liberal for the successive order of adverbials, the two languages show similarity in positioning such order. This similarity is also noticed when only the optional adverbial is allowed to initiate the sentence. As a result of this semantic/syntactic likeness of these adverbials, learners will find it easy to position them appropriately.

3.

figure21

3. Hierarchy of modification

U1

Arabic

```
5 │5
4 │
3 │2
2 │
1 │
```

LANGUAGE

English

E1= The nurse attended the patient each day hourly.
E2= Hourly the nurse attended the patient each day.
E3= The nurse attended the patient hourly each day.
E4= Each day the nurse attended the patient hourly.
E5= The nurse hourly each day attended the patient.
A1= ra?aytu lmušrifa lyawma marratayni.
A2= marratayni lmušrifa marratayni lyawma.
A3= ra?aytu lmušrifa marratayni lyawma.
A4= ?alyawma ra?aytu lmušrifa marratayni.
A5= ra?aytu marratayni lyawma lmušrifa.

CRITERION	ENGLISH	ARABIC
FUNCTIONAL	SERIAL MODIFIERS	SAME
POSITIONAL	RATHER MOBILE	SAME
SEMANTIC	DENOTING TIME OF ACTION IN A SEQUENCE	SAME
SYNTACTIC	OPTIONAL	SAME

English: The sequence of the adverbials comes in an order of precision: that of the shorter period precedes the one of the longer period. However, this order can be switched. Positions 1, 3, and 4 are all acceptable with the distinction that 3 and 4 occupy more space in the area of sentence normality. 2 and 5 occur uncommonly.

Arabic: Arabic adverbial positions shown on the graph have the same acceptable positions. But where the preferred order for adverbial modifiers is 3, 4, 1 in English, the reverse holds for Arabic (1, 4, 3). 2 and 5 are also far from being fully acceptable.

The two languages almost have the same distributional order for these adverbials. They clearly denote that the order of precision is more acceptable than any other order. They also share the feature that the adverbial denoting a longer period but not that of shorter is more appropriate to appear sentence initially. So, due to the amount of the similarity held by the two languages, no serious problems would be expected.

4.

f i g u r e 2 2

Hierarchy of modification
4.

V1
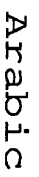
Arabic   LANGUAGE   English

E1= I studied in drama school in Paris.
E2= I studied in Paris in drama school.
E3= In drama school I studied in Paris.
E4= In Paris I studied in drama school.
E5= In drama school I studied in Paris.
A1= tacallama cimaadu fanna nnahti fi madrasati lfanni biruuma.
A2= tacallama cimaadu fanna nnahti biruuma fi madrasati lfanni.
A3= madrasati lfanni tacallama cimaadu fanna nnahti biruuma.
A4= biruuma madrasati lfanni cimaadu fanna nnahti.
A5= tacallama tacallama madrasati lfanni cimaadu fanna nnahti.

CRITERION	ENGLISH	ARABIC
FUNCTIONAL	SERIAL MODIFIERS	SAME
POSITIONAL	RATHER MOBILE	SAME
SEMANTIC	DENOTING POSITION OF ACTION IN A SERIES	SAME
SYNTACTIC	OBLIGATORY	SAME

English: The adverbials appear in a sequence and in the order of first a small unit and then a larger one. The order they come in reflects their functions. The first adverbial (of the smaller unit) modifies the verb of the sentence, the second functions as a modifier of the first adverbial. Therefore, three positions out of five are acceptable. Position 1 is more acceptable since it follows the order stated above; however this order can be reversed as in 2. Position 4, where the larger adverbial appears sentence initially, is preferred for stylistic effect. Positions 3 and 5 are awkward examples of the sentence reading.

Arabic: Though these adverbials favour the same order as in English, they, whether in a sequence or isolated, show less degree of acceptability than those of English. Position 1 is the prime choice, 2 comes next. Whereas 3 is not quite frequent, 4 is rare. 5 is dubious.

The speakers of the two languages obviously indicate that the adverbial order of a smaller unit then larger is their favourite sequence. They also agree upon the sequence where these adverbials commute positions as well as upon which position is eligible to commence the sentence. Other positions in both languages oscillate from being rare to dubious.

OUTCOME

The two languages coincide in their orientation towards the adverbials appearing consecutively. The order of the adverbials appearing successively is virtually governed by factors of morphology or integrity in the sense that single

word adverbials precede prepositional phrase adverbials and adverbials obligatory to the verb meaning also precede optional ones. The similarity in the position choice made by the native speakers of the two languages give no way to hypothetical problems.

8.4 CONCLUSION

It is obvious that there are many other features of sequence that are common to English and Arabic, but those displayed by the CA are typical. The CA reaffirms that the adverbial in both languages constitutes a linguistic area where a world of personal variation is discernible. Where there is a selection of position, many factors contribute- order relation, realisation, type of modification, sentence structure being one set, intonation, euphony, homonymous interpretation being another. More importantly, the results of the CA are compatible with the predictions set earlier in that the two languages coincide rather well in the way they view the adverbial function. They both confirm the classification adopted as well as the approach employed for the comparison. Perhaps the most important conclusion from the ensemble of findings of the CA is that there are sizable similarities in the two languages concerning this particular linguistic area. The dissimilarities revealed by the CA were derived from the different construction of the sentences in the two languages, the cooccurrence restrictions imposed on the adverbial or the limitations other sentence constituents exhibit.

In addition to the lexically-oriented conclusion above, other more purely positional conclusions can be drawn. They are:

1. It is a truism that adverbial positions as a linguistic area, when compared with other areas, are rather free to appear in many places in the sentence, nevertheless, there are occasional contexts where such freedom is circumscribed: an adverbial is restricted to certain position(s).

2. The two languages coincide remarkably in specifying normal positions for their adverbials in the sentence sequence. This highlights the distinction between normal usage and other usage: emphatic.

3. The two languages employ initial position for those adverbials whose normal habitats are somewhere else (medial or final). This placing is intended for emphasis, contrast, or balance.

4. The two languages view most adverbials as optional elements whose omission leaves no semantic or syntactic loss to the sentence.

5. The adverbials expressing different semantic roles assume a variety of modifying functions. What is especially of interest here is the homonymous use of a certain set of adverbial in the two languages. The difference between these adverbials which show homonymy is in general not signalled by the form of the adverbial but there are differences in position, semantics, and in the intonation contours and graphology of the adverbial. To illustrate, members of VMAs, in certain contexts, have two homonymous uses, one intensifying the verb meaning (degree), and the other augmenting the verb meaning (manner) (graph 12). This language phenomenon cannot always apply to all classes and even the two languages are not parallel in displaying it. In this respect English is more liberal than Arabic to help its SMAs to be homonymous. Certain members of English SMAs which are formally the same, but semantically, positionally and intentionally different, may occur within the same sentence:

Wisely, Jean has evaded the question wisely.

If Arabic employs this phenomenon, the adverbial is marked, inter alia, by the form:

[min*lhikmati* qad taxallaSat hindu min almas?alati

bitacaqqulin.]

((of the wisdom has evaded Hind from the question in

wisdom.))

    'Wisely Hind has evaded the question wisely.'

Linked to this area is the tendency for certain adverbials in English, but not in Arabic, to be polysemous so that the same adverbial can function as a word or sentence modifier. This indeed gives English a peculiar adverbial fluidity compared to Arabic (see the examples of fortunately and perhaps pp74-75, 91).

6. A notable characteristic of Arabic is to licence adverbial movement to sentence final position by a perceptual preference to shift 'modifiers' to the end.

7. What has been mentioned in 6 does not contradict the tolerance of the Arabic word order. The study has demonstrated that Arabic word order is, grammatically speaking, not intuitively, flexible enough to place the adverbial almost anywhere in a sentence even between the two parts of two word verb as in

    [?iTTala^{C}a ^{C}ala lkitaabi <u>yawma</u> <u>ssabti</u>.]

    ((perused he the book on Saturday))

    'He perused the book on Saturday'

    [?iTTalaca <u>yawma</u> <u>ssabti</u> ^{C}ala lkitaabi.]

    'He perused the book on Saturday'

Such flexibility is apt to puzzle the learners as to which position is the most natural. The answer is offered by the classification suggested in this study when it sorted out all positions.

8. The two languages share the orientation that 'adverbial positions' does not pose a major problem for learners since many variations from norms are allowed in the two languages.

9. It is generally assumed that a language with rigid word order may help its speakers learning other languages not to commit more errors than speakers of a language with a flexible word order. This advantage is reinforced by the adverbial mobility which confers more advantages in learning both

languages. As for English students of Arabic, they find it easy to place the adverbial almost anywhere in the sentence. Arabic speaking students may, ipso facto, encounter no serious problems in positioning the adverbial in many places in the sentence where no restrictions work. Actually, these restrictions cause a major problem for both learners. However, this type of problem can be overcome by forewarning the learners of the positions which are unacceptable to native speakers.

10. A difficulty may face English learners of Arabic when confronted with linguistic features (adverbials) which are similar in form but different in meaning (see Lado 1957:34). This is a lexical problem rather than a functional one, words like [mufaSalan] 'in detail' and [musri^{c}an] 'hurriedly' are somehow similar in form but distinctly different in function. The first modifies the object of the sentence and the second the subject.

11. What has been mentioned about the freedom of adverbial word order does not happen with all sentence types. Contrary to the relative freedom of adverbial order in declarative sentences where adverbials can be moved around, adverbial movement in other sentence types is rather limited: they are restricted to specific positions- mostly one. Adverbial positioning in such types of sentences constitutes a special problem very high on a scale of difficulty. Arab learners influenced by many factors such as transfer, false instructions, inadequacy of teaching material and the like, place the adverbials in point in places where they do not fit (see graphs 13, 17 and 18).

12. In English there are certain adverbials, namely frequency adverbials, which have a negative implication, and some locative adverbials which cause subject-verb order inversion when used sentence-initially. Since such a construction is absent in Arabic, it constitutes a problem for Arab learners

who may not observe this inversion and use it in a wrong way.
They may say

      *Rarely the plane arrives on time.

      *Here the naughty boys come.

instead of

      Rarely does the plane arrive on time.

      Here come the naughty boys

Correspondingly, English learners of Arabic may not observe
the particle [ma] attached to the Arabic equivalents of such
adverbials when placed sentence-initial. So they may produce
such constructions

      *[naadiran taSilu TTaa?iratu fi maw^{c}idiha.]

      ((Rarely arrives the plane on time its.))

      'Rarely does the plane arrive on time.'

in stead of

      [naadiranma taSilu TTaa?iratu fi maw^{c}idiha]

      'Rarely does the plane arrive on time.'

13. The two languages commonly have two adverbials of the same
class occurring in final position, in which case the more
particular one comes before the more general.

14. When two adverbials of a different class cluster
sentence-finally, their order is not subject to strict rules,
though some factors such as verb type, specification,
realization, enter the scene. For instance, the adverbials
used as essential constituents immediately follow the verb
preceding other adverbials and they are hardly preposed to the
beginning of the sentence.

15. English exclusively designates a separate class of
adverbials modifying auxiliaries . However, some particles in
Arabic [sa-, sawfa, qad] are glossed 'will (shall), may,
have'. These meaning-based auxiliaries are never followed by
an adverbial, a case which poses a difficulty to English
learners. They may put an adverbial between these particles
and the main verb:

*[sawfa gadan ?azuru lmuthafa]

'I will tomorrow visit the museum'

15. In both languages certain adverbials are not liable to occur with any verb type in that they show semantic congruency with some, but not all.

16. A shift in adverbial position, in both languages, often signals a semantic difference.

17. The two languages specify the environments in which certain adverbials are not used concurrently. See pp89, 125-126, .

18. Certain adverbials which show idiosyncratic predilection to specific positions are problematic to the learners. The learners might place these adverbials in places where they do not belong.

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CHAPTER NINE: PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

9.0 INTRODUCTION

It is pedagogically familiar to see a proliferation of approaches and methods used in language teaching.[1] These approaches vie with each other to find new effective ways of language teaching. The aim is to optimize the quality of language teaching towards the ultimate goal: to meet the needs of learner and teacher[2] and the requirements of a given educational setting. A further purpose for the development of these diverse methods is to prepare a variety of methodological options from which classroom teachers and programme coordinators may make appropriate selection. Each approach and method bases its procedures and techniques on different views of what language is and how a language is learned.[3] These views (of a theory of language) specify the axioms and theoretical framework on which particular teaching methods are built. Such methods manifest themselves in the choice of different types of learning and teaching activities in the classroom. They also manifest themselves in the different roles and functions available to teachers, learners and instructional materials within the instructional system. Differences among methods in the choice of different activities directed toward a mastery of a language skill are indeed differences at the level of approaches. For instance, the audio-lingual (understand- speak) method, which embodies the structural view of language, uses dialogues and pattern

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[1]These levels of conceptualization are identified in Edward Anthony (1972:4-8) and elaborated by J. C. Richards (1986). See also Larsen-Freeman (1986:author's preface) for a different view of the term 'method'.

[2]A good account of these needs is given in D. Allen's (1988:7-14).

[3]In brief the major industry of the theory of language is represented by three main different theoretical views: 1. The Structural View; 2. The Functional View and 3. The Interactional View. More elaboration on these views can be found in many publications among which are H. H. Stern (1983); E. Roulet (1975) and W. Rivers (1981)

practice extensively. As a distinctive feature of the audio-lingual method these drills are varied according to the grammatical points being taught. Included in these drills is expansion of sentences where a word given in brackets occupies a certain position. Example:

I know him (hardly)

I hardly know him.[4]

Teachers are not necessarily committed to follow any one particular method. They could vary and modify procedures in the light of the learners' progress, their reactions to the instructional material and also the type of teaching material. Such flexibility in choosing an appropriate method entails different roles assumed by the teacher. This variation in role relationships originated in the different methodologies which range from a teacher-dominated or teacher-directed method to a learner-centred method. The teacher-dominated method stresses the responsibility of the teacher to direct learning, monitor and correct learners' performance. It assumes a teacher role of questioner, initiator or formal instructor. Accessory to the teacher's role are the instructional materials which equip the teacher with the structured sequence of lessons, the dialogues, drills and other practice activities. In this sense such methodologies as the Direct Method, the Audiolingual Method, the Structural Method etc. were much more specific and offered teachers detailed advice and instructions. As for the learners' role it is reactive in that they respond to stimuli to produce correct responses. They (learners), viewed by the above mentioned methods, are listeners, respondents, imitators of the teacher' model (or the tape if the teacher's model is not a native-like one). Any failure in learning the target language is commonly attributed to the improper application of the method. Whereas it is not solely the method to blame,

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[4]See Brooks (1964:156-61)

but poor verbal interaction between the teacher and learners.

The learner-centred method sees learners as active participants in the classroom procedures and activities, to cooperate and interact with other people either verbally, through pair and group work, or in their writing. Learners are expected to achieve the process of the communication: there is a priority on communication - to discuss, to negotiate, to converse- rather than on mastery of language forms. If there is failure in accomplishing this goal, then communication is seen as a joint responsibility and thus not the fault of the teacher or student alone. This type of responsibility requires more teacher-student negotiation in the selection of tasks, topics, and material (Breen and Candlin 1980). Such a view, whose aim is to encourage and motivate students to communicate, sensitises students to be responsible towards more successful language learning. In order to revitalise this kind of feeling error correction is to be deterred in the interest of fluency and acceptable language.

It is the communicative perspective that sustains what precedes and therefore allocates different roles to the teacher. Teachers are viewed as facilitators of communication and as independent participants within the learning-teaching group; roles which supply teachers with much less external guidance.[5] In simple terms the communicative approach is less specific about ready-made techniques and linguistic content.[6] Authorization is given to the teacher to supplement material, create techniques in conjunction with learning situations either existing or cropping up. The emphasis on different

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[5]For a detailed account of teacher roles see Breen and Candlin (1980:99).

[6]The two major teaching methods, communicative and audio-lingual, are mainly contrasted in terms of a rule-formation method versus a habit formation one and of long-term retention. Inventories of contrast can be found in many references among which are C. J. Brumfit, K. Johanson (1979); J. C. Richards (1986) and R. T. Bell (1981).

roles assumed by the teacher requires special training on the part of the teacher particularly in those settings where non-native teachers work.

It is necessary to say that techniques and activities are freely chosen for the sake of better language learning. To meet the requirements of the learning situation, these activities are often diversified to include a wide range of materials like games, contextualized passages, pictures, charts, short stories ...etc. Though these communication activities can be drawn upon to ameliorate the task, teachers do not have to solely depend upon them. Instead they should vary techniques, revise and model their materials to help learners acquire the ability to express their needs. One way to achieve this is to make use of a methodology which ensures that teaching materials are learnt by providing sufficient practice and feedback. The issue then is a matter of adaptation of different appropriate techniques rather than adoption of a particular method. Such adaptation seems sound to make classroom activities more effective. The teacher best tries to imagine how to adapt these techniques in an imaginative and creative way to maintain interest, promote the teaching style and situation.

Adaptation of different techniques largely goes with the type of teaching materials whose choice in turn depends on the level of learners, language needs, goals and objectives of a language course. This dependence is apparent when there is a close degree of fit between the programme goals and the objectives of the instructional materials. A lack of fit points again to the requirement of various procedures be selected, perhaps derived from different methods to attain that degree of fit. To this effect, the selection and sequencing of the materials are crucial to facilitate language learning. Pedagogically, the sequencing of the teaching materials can be based on the results of CA which are capable

of distinguishing what items are similar or dissimilar in the languages contrasted. Items that have been found to be similar can be taught at earlier stages whereas those dissimilar are presented relatively late.[7] According to the results of the CA (Chapter Eight) which displayed a good deal of positional similarity, the more identical items of adverbial positioning can be isolated and hence can be learnt first. These items are not only identical in position but they outnumber other types in function. So it is easier to present the most common or simple type – VMAs – since the majority of adverbials function as such. More complex types are learnt as students get more proficient in the target language.[8] Though it was mentioned earlier that the problem of adverbial positions was conceptual rather than formal, it is essential at initial stages to introduce how the majority of adverbials are formed. It may be a dual task of the teacher to make this concept as clear to his students as possible: to help them understand the function and the formation of adverbials. But which comes first? Obviously, it is the formation; however, both function and formation, in proper contexts, should be coexistent. The contexts should, particularly at the beginning, be as simple and as brief as possible. This is detailed later.

9.1 BROAD ISSUES

Grammar teaching has suffered from extremes of practice. Whatever these extremes are, there is a general understanding that learners can be helped to see the common features of the grammar of the language they have learnt in the hope that they can adapt them to the demands of different situations. To get

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[7]See Nickel, G. and K. Wagner (1968) for similar argumentation.

[8]It should always be remembered that adverbial positions give the learners more of a choice. Such a wider choice of position is, under normal circumstances, subject to personal discretion in that some speakers favour a position which others locate elsewhere. All in all the choice generally is a matter of preference rather than of strict rules.

students to practice and use the language frequently in similar contexts, various techniques and activities should be used. Once a language structure has been identified as a learning target, using whatever techniques are appropriate, its teaching should be organized, depending on its structure, through certain steps. These steps constitute the principles of the target language. This section comments on some of the significant aspects of such steps.

1. It is essential that learners should be regularly provided with realistic situations in which it is natural to use and thus consolidate the target element of grammar.[9]

2. Once the language item is chosen to be taught, it should be clearly slotted into a pattern it is going to be taught. This is better presented through various means of demonstration which make a strong visual or aural impression and require an active response, i.e. using visuals, charts, mime, gestures .. etc.

By doing so, learners have the chance to make their own comments and increasingly to check their own production. Here lies the importance of the type of techniques and activities that arouse students' response to give their understanding of a structure not to give examples of its use.

9.2 WHAT METHODS (ACTIVITIES) USED:

English is a compulsory language in the Iraqi school curriculum : primary, secondary (intermediate; preparatory) and teacher training institutes. Teaching English as a foreign language has a long tradition in Iraq as well as in many other Arab countries. It officially starts at the age of ten (fifth primary class) and continues till the initial two years in most departments of the universities. In the pre-university phase the student spends four to six forty-five minute periods per week for eight years. This period covers the last two

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[9]See DES (1990; 56).

years of the primary level, followed by three years of each of the intermediate and preparatory levels. This of course is part of the National Curriculum which itself is part of a centralised education system. This system varies in its application. For primary, secondary schools and teachers training institutes, it is the Ministry of Education which is responsible for the whole system. It directs the educational process in its institutions and this direction ranges from providing free textbooks, through teacher training to assessment of teachers' work. Though teachers at these institutions are supplied with a teacher's guide for each stage, they are told to feel free to follow any methodology suitable to their students' needs. Teachers are often encouraged to prepare their own supplementary materials for the interest of rapid proficiency on the part of students. The teacher's guide book five (1980:viii) puts it this

> "In all cases, however, the teacher should be the master of the book and should feel free to omit or supplement exercises or segments of exercises depending upon how much progress he has made throughout the school year."

Universities, which are within the responsibility of the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research, give the lecturers the choice of selecting textbooks but in accordance with the prescribed curriculum. An example of such a choice is the use, in grammar teaching, of two different grammar books for the same university year (third) in two different departments of English at the same university (Baghdad): one of them is at Faculty of Education; the other at Faculty of Languages [10]

Nevertheless, the influence of textbooks and methods used

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[10]The grammar book used in the department of English at Faculty of Languages is A Rapid Review of English Grammar by J. Paraninskas. The one that is used in the department of English at Faculty of Education is Quirk's A University Grammar of English.

in countries like Iraq where there is often a lack of genuine communicative situations outside the classroom is prominent. This factor in addition to others— the impact of the educational system, teaching programme, teachers' limited experience, learners' environs (his exposure to the language, lack of continuity, motivation, parents' attitude, home facilities — explains the reasons of the lower student command in speaking than in reading and writing. Thus any textbook used should provide students with opportunities to use the FL in a variety of realistic situations for the eventual aim of effective communication. Not only is this the responsibility of the textbooks but it is also that of teachers to prepare students for the language demands of everyday life speech and of print.

To return to the core problem, most grammar books and course books used in Iraq (For secondary schools, teachers' institutes and universities) teach adverbial positions in a traditional way which says that adverb modifies verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs.[11] However, some of them also acknowledge sentence adverbials which modify the whole sentence. The method they utilise is either inductive or deductive. The former is broadly used in intermediate stages – for students in secondary schools – while the latter is used in advanced stages (university level). These books classify adverbials by virtue of their semantic representation together with exercises and examples for each type. They consider the problem of adverbial positions less important compared to that of other grammatical categories, verb patterns or phrasal

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[11]So do most English Grammar books used in British schools. See, for example, Seely, J., et al (1982:160) who give the same definition. The concept of grammar teaching has been undermined in the past years but recently has been stressed as promulgated by the National Curriculum. From September 1988 it is obligatory to teach standard English in British schools not in an old fashioned way but in a way capable to describe language in use: to speak and write authentic, effective English.

verbs as examples. [12] It could be said that the difficulties created by the use of a certain set of adverbials – those which show sharp limitations in their occurrence – are sometimes increased by the way in which adverbials are presented in course books or by some teachers' fragmentary perception of the problem. The superficial way that the adverbials are dealt with is due to the many problems that adverbials pose.[13] This type of superficiality may here be summed up as follows:

1. There is a lack of good association between the position and the adverbial function, a case which results in misinterpretation. For example the adverbial in

He readily agrees to help us.

is misconstrued as manner adverbial.

2. There is no clear envisagement of the homonymous use of certain adverbials.

3. There is a lack of clear recognition of all the factors influencing the adverbial placement. Verb type which disposes a certain order is one example.

4. The preconception to accommodate adverbials in positions before the main verb or after the auxiliary, if any, is sought as a possible way to evade the fluidity of the adverbial.

5. Certain incidents of adverbial create special problems because the students' ability to understand and use adverbials is, in many cases, heavily influenced by their knowledge of the indigenous language. For instance, initial occurrence of adverbials like never, hardly, not always, requires subject verb inversion, a phenomenon which is absent in Arabic.

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[12]The same degree of importance is taken by many studies done on the pedagogy of grammar. These studies draw their data from the complex structural networks of a language exclusive of adverbials. R. Dirven (1990) shows that the problems the adverbial class poses are not so persistent as to attract more pedagogical analyses.

[13]These problems were detailed in chapter 1 p2 and chapter 3 p40.

This unclear vision of adverbial property has occasioned a relatively small number of instances in which the adverbials were presented in the course books used in Iraq (those for intermediate and preparatory schools and teachers' institutes). It can be said that only book Five for third intermediate year contains a compendium of relevant exercises.[14] These exercises vary in type and focus. Some of them focus on the derivational affixes of adverbials (their formation). Others operate on the adverbial placement on the basis of traditional semantic classification. All the exercises which test the positions of adverbials in sequence require answers with the order: manner, place and time. No reference was made to the influence of the verb type which necessitates another order as is illustrated in (1) - (4) below.

1. The festival took place _in_ _the_ _city_ _for_ _five_ _hours_.

2. The festival lasted _for_ _five_ _hours_ _in_ _the_ _city_.

3. She placed the book _on_ _the_ _shelf_ _carefully_.

4. She goes _home_ _quickly_.

What is noted in many of these exercises is the inclusion of adverbials of restrictive occurrence and of collocational bias which manifest neat rules. Exercise 2.18 p 18 book 5 whose sentences are listed below, is a clear example

2.18 Rewrite the following sentences using the words in brackets in the right positions:

1. Have you seen her? (ever)

2. No, I have seen her. (never)

3. She comes to house. (often)

4. I wake up. (at six o'clock, always)

5. I have spoken to him. (twice, already)

6. I haven't seen you. (for ages, here)

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[14]Other course books especially those for Teacher Training Institutes contain explanatory notes on adverbial positions but they do not differ much in their treatment.

The teacher's guide for that book does not suggest any model positions for the adverbials in these sentence. What it states is that the exercise reviews the use of adverbs of place, time and frequency. It is quite possible that programme setters are aware that teachers will not stumble over the use of these adverbials since they favour certain positions, and may even restrict the use to these positions. Elsewhere the teacher' guide (book 5 p 10) presents the teacher with three positions for frequency adverbials which are: before main verbs except the verb be; after the verb be when it is a main verb; after auxiliary verbs.

These exercises are not completely irrelevant but undoubtedly they could be better contextualized. Because of the relatively free choice of adverbial positions, they are best introduced in natural contexts to elicit their most normal positions.

9.3 INTERVIEWS

Twenty university academic staff were interviewed about the teachability of adverbials in general and their positions in particular. They were teaching English grammar in colleges of Education, Arts and Languages. Their teaching experience ranged from six years to over twenty. Most of the interviewees were either the researcher's fellow professionals or his instructors at the university level. During the interview this fact helped establish a rapport and topic worth. The interviewees were informed that the objective of the interview was to help the researcher build up a picture of the methodology used. The conversation held between the interviewees and the researcher revolved around a number of issues among which were the importance of teaching grammar, the present method(s), the course book used and the extent they agreed with such methods, the major problems the teaching of adverbials posed, and whether all adverbial types were being taught. The interview questions which were congenially

discussed included the following:

1. How important is the teaching (learning) of English grammar ?

   a. Not important b. less important c. useless d. important
   e. very important.

2. What approach (in general) do you use to teach English grammar ?

3. What are the main problems for Iraqis learning English grammar? Would you please grade the following according to how serious the problem they pose.

   a. verb patterns b. reported speech c. use of articles
   d. phrasal verbs e. adverbial positions f. adjective
       orders

4. In your opinion how serious a problem is using English grammar?

   a. Not a problem at all b. not very serious c. quite
   serious d. serious e. very serious.

5. How does the course book teach English adverbials (in general) ?

6. Do you agree with the approach the course book recommends in teaching adverbials ?

7. How do you teach English adverbials (in general) ?

8. What problems have you found in teaching adverbial positions ?

9. If some teaching materials were available here to teach the use of English adverbials, how useful do you think they might be ?

   a. not useful at all b. not very useful c. quite useful d.
   useful e. very useful.

10. If some teaching materials were available here to teach English adverbials and you are going to use them, which approach do you prefer ?

    a. Structural b. functional c. communicative d. direct e.
    translation f. some other method, please specify

11. What problems do students have when they use English
    adverbials ?

12. Do you teach all types of adverbials ?

13. Would you please tell which type you teach
   a. frequency b. time c. place d. manner e. degree f.
   sentence adverbials g. all

14. Do you teach students about different possible
    positions for

   a. frequency   Yes/ No   which positions?

   b. time   Yes/ No   which positions?

   c. place   Yes/ No   which positions?

   d. manner   Yes/ No   which positions?

   e. degree   Yes/ No   which positions?

   f. sentence adverbials   Yes/ No   which positions

15. What approach do you advise your students teachers to
    take when they teach

   a. English grammar (in general)

   b. English adverbials

   c. English adverbial positions

All the people approached confirmed the vital importance of
teaching grammar and how serious its use was. They thought
that non-native learners should know how the foreign language
works: how sentences are constructed in a way suitable to
their standard. With respect to the teaching methods they
generally used two kinds were recognised: eclectic and
inductive / deductive. The inductive method was used for
earlier stages while the deductive one was suitable to
advanced learners. Beyond this discrimination one interviewee
pointed out that the teaching material sometimes decided what
method one had to use. For instance in teaching material of a
narrow range, ellipsis [15] for example, exercises, no matter

_____

[15]Elliptical sentences are like If he will sing I will; The
                    (Footnote continued)

how   many   they   are,   show   the   internal
structure of this grammatical phenomenon but were of little
help for students to deduce the rule. Therefore, the use of an
inductive method was recommended since it was said to be
easier to explain the rule meaning of the structural point and
show how it happened instead of going through endless parallel
exercises. On this basis they (interviewees) partly agreed
with the approach the course book used; nevertheless they
found it useful. They were for the most part of the opinion
that it was better to lay more emphasis on practice than on
theory, a case which demanded more varied activities. When
asked about the problems of adverbial positioning their
students encountered, they concluded that the major ones were:

a. misplacement– the main reason of this is a lack of certain
rules to define and delimit adverbials.

   * She is busy <u>always</u>.

   * We <u>generally</u> are at work in the mornings.

   * Mr Jones travels <u>often</u> abroad.

   * Mrs Jones does her work late <u>sometimes</u>.

b. wrong sequence – student were often confused which
adverbial should be put first when more than two adverbials
appeared in succession.

   They examined his heart (<u>for</u> <u>a</u> <u>month</u>, <u>each</u> <u>day</u>, <u>hourly</u>).

   She went away (<u>on</u> <u>Sunday</u> <u>for</u> <u>a</u> <u>week</u>)

   She spoke to her son (<u>in</u> <u>the</u> <u>street</u>, <u>angrily</u>, <u>last</u>
   <u>night</u>)

Thus, they produced sentences like

   * They examined his heart <u>for</u> <u>a</u> <u>month</u> <u>hourly</u> <u>each</u> day.

   * They examined his heart <u>each</u> <u>day</u> <u>hourly</u> <u>for</u> <u>a</u> <u>month</u>.

   * She went <u>on</u> <u>Sunday</u> <u>for</u> <u>a</u> <u>week</u>.

   * She spoke to her son <u>in</u> <u>the</u> <u>street</u> <u>angrily</u> <u>last</u> <u>night</u>.

c. wrong collocation– certain adverbials are incongruent with

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[15](continued)
<u>children</u> <u>got</u> back <u>late</u>. <u>All</u> <u>were</u> <u>happy</u>.)

a certain set of verbs.

He <u>badly</u> wanted the book

instead of

He <u>badly</u> needed the book.[16]

d. indiscrimination of adverbial type especially of manner and degree - students sometimes could not identify the type of adverbial (of one form usually with ly) when they occur in two different places. They instead recognised only one: manner.

He behaved <u>badly</u>.

He <u>badly</u> needed your help.

Actually this problem of misinterpretation of the appropriate type is increased by position intricacies. It is not only Iraqi students who could not identify the right type but even some native speakers cannot do so. In the examples below it is hard for a layman to diagnose which type the adverbial <u>just</u> is:

I have <u>just</u> witnessed the city riots.

She <u>just</u> passed the examination.

He <u>just</u> listened.

e. modification- students sometimes misinterpreted what sentence constituent the adverbial really modified. In sentences like

She <u>certainly</u> made a mess of it.

they quite possibly view the adverbial <u>certainly</u> as a verb modifying adverbial instead as a sentence modifying adverbial, insomuch as they rely only on position, which deceives them. Or they make mistakes of false modification

. * He <u>neither</u> likes tea <u>nor</u> coffee

instead of

He likes <u>neither</u> tea <u>nor</u> coffee.

The possible source of such mistakes of false modification is the false cognate, which resulted from the high level of

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[16]Crystal (1988:155) and Leech (1989:58) allow the use of <u>badly</u> with the verb 'want'

similarity in the two languages.

f. Confusion of adverbials with the same form as adjectives. This was not a common mistake as a very few students confused forms of adverbials with those of adjectivals.

* He was working very hardly.

* They were running very fastly. [17]

What escaped the interviewees' attention in the problematic area was the occurrence of the adverbials in other sentence types - negatives, interrogatives and imperatives. The behaviour of certain types of adverbial in these sentences is rather circumscribed by semantic constraints. Above all these constraints are controversial in that there is no real consensus among English grammarians about their operationality. This unstable behaviour poses problems to learners who require a good sense of discrimination to decipher the suitability of adverbials in the sentence types. Students who might depend on their previous attainment about the adverbial mobility use the adverbials in wrong positions. Thus they should be cautioned about the places of which adverbials are displaced. [18]

With regard to the methods which the interviewees followed and recommended their students to follow when teaching English in schools, the spectrum of their opinion fell into three planes:

1. a large proportion of the interviewees (70%) favoured a mixture of grammar translation and structural methods.

2. Half of them recommended an eclectic method: A mixture of structural and communicative methods.

3. a small proportion (15%) clearly endorsed the

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[17]See N. Kharma, A. Hajjaj (1989:122) for the same identification.

[18]As a matter of fact it is quite possible to find individual adverbials that do not follow the constraints applied to others and appear in most positions. Their semantic implications grant them such a privilege. See pages (94-98) for more details.

communicative approach, as one of them said 'a minimum amount of explanation followed by a good deal of communicative practice'. Those who were not using a communicative approach said that the presentation with complete authenticity of content and interaction in a foreign language classroom situation was infeasible. In fact the small number of practitioners of the communicative approach was attributable to many factors:

a. educational- this deals with teacher's previous training; learner role perception which views the teacher as the best source of knowledge and holds his judgement in high esteem-

b. technical- this requires a very highly competent teacher, almost a native-like speaker and in turn suitably qualified teacher trainers, in addition to ad hoc materials to enhance learning strategies are required.

c. social- the methodology implies group work which often makes the class active and often creates louder participation, a situation which may unduly alarm teachers if English classes are seen as noisy and disorderly.

d. cultural- not all teachers are willing to relinquish their culturally retained position of dominance and authority which mandate both respect and obedience.

e. environmental- this concerns the number of students in one session and the classroom facilities.

In spite of these impediments, the communicative approach is worth attempting due to the many merits it possesses in language teaching. True, it is not an exclusive approach in the discipline of teaching. However, it proves effective in promoting communication. The teacher can use its techniques when he finds that they serve the language goals being taught.

9.4 METHODS PROPOSED

As mentioned, in order to help the student form a clear picture of the function and formation of adverbials it is advisable to acquaint him/her with the way the majority of adverbials are constructed. The following suggested activities (exercises) are hopefully of service. In these activities role-play is a valuable means of broadening students' mental faculties and of evolving social and personal confidence.

a. the teacher tells one of the students in a low voice, in his native language if necessary, to run quickly from the rear of the class room to the door. Then the teacher may write the sentence on the board:

Martin is a quick runner. (an adjective e.g. quick

describes a noun e.g. runner)

He runs in a quick manner.

He runs quickly. (an adverbial like quickly describes a

verb e.g. runs)

b. another student is told to walk slowly.

He is a slow walker.

He walks in a slow manner

He walks slowly.

c. again with another student:

Mary is a careful driver.

She drives her car in a careful manner.

She drives her car carefully.

More relevant examples could be contextualized to enable the students to realize how most familiar adverbials function and how they are formed. These instances can be more instructive through dramatization, miming, sketching, etc. After the teacher helps the students assimilate the problem and make it operative, through a variety of activities, in their attempts at using the language, he can move to the irregular forms: those which have different or the same forms with adjectives

d. He is a fast runner.

He runs in a fast way (manner)

He runs <u>fast</u>.

He is a hard worker.

He works in a hard way.

He works <u>hard</u>.

She is a good speaker.

She speaks in a good manner

She speaks <u>well</u>.[19]

Context-dependent exercises, as a reinforcement, could be constructed to test the students' perception of the issue. Once more these exercises are of the sort of problem solving as students enjoy working on such a kind. Here are some:

i. students are asked to perform specific actions in the way of the adverbial they have secretly chosen. The other students try to guess what adverbial these actions refer to.

ii. the teacher makes notes on his/ her students describing some of their characteristics. He (She) asks the students to reconstruct sentences using an appropriate adverbial

Examples

Norman: nice handwriting. bad spelling

Norman writes nicely. He spells badly.

1. Sue: good reader. slow speech.

2. Ramzi: hard work. easy success.

3. Muna: early getting up. late leaving home .[20]

iii. Jane is talking about her brother's habits. Help her choose the correct adjective or adverbial in the brackets.

Jim (usual, usually) lies awake at night. He gets up late

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[19]In a passing note, the teacher may refer that these adverbials say how something happens; however other adverbials of the same form such <u>early</u>, <u>daily</u>, <u>nearly</u>, which cannot be paraphrased in the same way <u>describe the</u> verb differently. Such adverbials are to be taught in a following phase of schooling. It is impractical to present all adverbials in one learning phase but to present them piecemeal in phases as students are gaining proficiency. Such a suggestion is not intended for an intensive course but for a long term one.

[20]See J. Eastwood and R. Mackin (1988: 173)

having his breakfast (quick, quickly) and leaves for work. He often feels (tired, tiredly). He smokes quite (frequent, frequently) and drinks a lot of coffee. I am (sure, surely) this will not go on long. As soon as he gets married, most things will change (completely, complete).

The above exercises can be considered as introductory to a further step which presents adverbial positions on the grounds of **FUNCTION** — according to the head the adverbials modify— and of **POSITION** — according to the positional normality. This should be preceded by an activity to make students aware of the adverbial mobility. As for Arab students, the main concern of this study, they are reasonably acquainted first with the mobility of the adverbials in their own language. This rests on two kinds of argument: first it is easier for learners to learn a foreign language rule which is similar to the native language rule. Second the learner in the beginning stages of foreign language learning depends to a large extent on his knowledge of the native language, then he gradually replaces this dependency, as he progresses to intermediate stages, by his more recently acquired knowledge of the foreign language. As Arab students are already familiar with the same phenomenon — adverbial mobility — in their knowledge of the native language, their linguistic competence will help in understanding the foreign data (cf. Fischer's (1979) learning transfer principle p. 101). Aware of this language premise the teacher presents exemplary sentences containing an adverbial. Then he, through enquiring about the possibility of shifting the adverbial somewhere else in the sentence, makes the students aware of such mobility. This task would simply introduce and elucidate the concept of syntactic property of the adverbials which the students may know intuitively. For instance, he would write a sentence like

[waSala lwaladu sari^{c}an]

'The boy arrived quickly'

where the adverbial [sari^{c}an] 'quickly' is singled out by being written, for instance, in a red colour. His first examples should reflect the normal habitats for the adverbial concerned. He then preposes the adverbial to the initial and medial positions in order to elicit the acceptability of the new arrangements. Attention may be drawn to the fact that putting an adverbial in different places often creates differences in meaning. It is not necessary to detail this kind of semantic difference, however clarification could be given if a question is raised.

A comparison with the English equivalent is made to show that the English sentence

    The boy arrived quickly

can be permuted in the same way. A wealth of examples are required to reinforce what has been established about the freedom tolerated by the adverbial category.

Next the teacher could issue a warning that not all adverbials show the same degree of mobility. He has to draw his students' attention to those adverbials which have limitations in their occurrence. Again with an example from Arabic

    [lam ?arahu qaTTu]

in which the adverbial is restricted to a final position.

The English counterpart to the Arabic sentence

    'I have never seen him'

is treated similarly with emphasis on the difference in position. So far the source language (Arabic) could be used but for later teaching materials it should not necessarily be used unless a need arises. The method suggested above indicates that adverbials at beginners' level are taught inductively. Adverbials are introduced with the explanation of positions open to them. Such explanations must be stimulating to arouse students' interest and to recall the first introduction to adverbials. For later stages adverbials are better taught deductively. In both stages activity types can

be tailored to suit the learners level, their language background and their performance.

After making sure that the students have realised what is meant by the function of adverbials, positions are presented in accordance with the functional classification followed by this study. The presentation order of these positions is not random, but according to two factors: frequency of their use in the language and the extent of their movability. The first concerns the type of modification the speakers of the language concerned most use. The second indicates that certain types of adverbial are less restrictive than others in their occurrence. Thus, the following present the adverbials in order of commonality and mobility. The sentences in which they are presented are simple sentences, not complex ones.

9.5 NORMAL POSITIONS

9.5.1 VMAs

1. magnifier (to enhance or sometimes diminish the verb meaning) before the verb.

> ex. They <u>utterly</u> forbade her.
>
> Did you <u>completely</u> forget about it?
>
> He <u>almost</u> forgot about her birthday.
>
> She <u>strongly</u> insist on going.
>
> Jim does not <u>always</u> get up late.

11. augmentor (to broaden the verb meaning) after the verb.

> ex. They arrived home <u>quickly</u>.
>
> Their women stare <u>demurely</u> at the floor.
>
> She draws <u>beautifully</u>.
>
> <u>Normally</u>, clean your teeth before you go to bed.[21]

9.5.2 SMAs (to operate on the whole sentence: sentence equivalent) Front position. A distinguishing token of this type may be of help. In writing, these adverbials are separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma. In speech,

---

[21]Members of CEMAs as well as VPMAs show limitation to initial position in imperatives:

they receive a nuclear stress when they are said aloud.

    ex. <u>Undoubtedly</u>, I'll see you later.

       <u>Frankly</u>, I do not care what he intends to do.

       <u>Honestly</u>, would you like to come with me?

       <u>Briefly</u>, do what I tell you[22]

9.5.3 <u>VPMAs</u> (involves the verb plus other verbal structures)
Final position

    ex. He opened the door <u>slowly</u>.

       They do not do their job <u>satisfactorily</u>.

       Has he opened the door <u>with</u> <u>the</u> <u>old</u> <u>key</u>?

9.5.4 <u>SUBMAs</u> (specify the subject's state) immediately after
the subject

    ex. The manger <u>reluctantly</u> raised the salaries.

       <u>Kindly</u>, go away from me.

9.5.5 <u>AMAs</u> (to modify the auxiliary) immediately after the
auxiliary

    ex. I can <u>now</u> start the work.

9.6 <u>OTHER POSSIBLE POSITIONS</u>

    The next step is to permute the above-mentioned sentences
to see which adverbial can occur in other possible positions
and which one retains its place. Attention may be drawn to the
semantic difference as a result of shift in position.

9.6.1   <u>VMAs</u>

1. No other possible positions

11. ? They <u>quickly</u> arrived home.

    ? <u>Quickly</u> they arrived home. [23]

    ? She <u>beautifully</u> draws.

9.6.2 <u>SMAs</u>

    I'll <u>undoubtedly</u> see you later.

---

[22]Earlier in this study it was mentioned that not all SMAs
appear easily in interrogatives and imperatives. Only style
adverbials do so and exclusive to initial position. The
learner will be overburdened if he is required to distinguish
between the two kinds of SMA.

[23]These examples are queried as they are used for special
effect.

I'll see you later, <u>undoubtedly</u>.

I <u>frankly</u> do not care what he intends to do.

9.6.3 <u>VPMAs</u>

He <u>slowly</u> opened the door (ambiguous, SUBMA for this
study)

9.6.4 <u>SUBMAs</u>

No other possible places[24]

9.6.5 <u>AMAs</u>

No other possible positions

9.7 <u>FURTHER COMMENTS</u>

Those adverbials which form semantic collocations are
presented with the explanation that they can possibly be moved
to other places but at the expense of sentence acceptability,
a case which in turn affects the adverbial interpretation. The
teacher can demonstrate such examples:

Smoking can <u>seriously</u> damage your lungs.

She would <u>probably</u> have done better.

The episode of adverbial positions could be in a series. Thus,
the normal sequence in which adverbials appear in final
position is VMAs, VPMAs and SMAs

She spoke to her boy <u>angrily in the street this afternoon</u>.

Further additional complementary notes are:

a. adverbials that qualify a noun or noun phrase (the meeting
yesterday, the man in the next room) or an adjective or an
adverbial (quite good; extremely rapidly) have specific
positions- usually after their head if nouns and before if
adjectives or adverbials. They hardly pose any word order
problem.

b. long adverbials usually in form of phrases or clauses tend

---

[24]Other positions could be found elsewhere in a sentence
containing a SUBMA, but such positions mainly depend on the
adverbial itself. Certain adverbials clearly function as
SUBMAs regardless where they appear in the sentence. As the
pedagogy dictates simplicity and clarity especially at earlier
stages, students will find out other positions over time when
they gain a good mastery over the language.

to appear finally or sometimes initially. They are too cumbersome to occur in medial position.

We won the football cup <u>last</u> <u>week</u>.

<u>Last</u> <u>week</u> we won the football cup.

He did it promptly <u>to</u> <u>win</u> <u>her</u> <u>favour</u>.

<u>To</u> <u>win</u> <u>her</u> <u>favour</u>, he did it promptly.

c. generally any adverbial may be accommodated sentence initially for the purpose of setting the scene, avoiding ambiguity or for thematization.

d. adverbials obligatory to the verb meaning follow their head (verb). They precede other adverbials when they cluster in final position.

The meeting went on <u>long</u>.

We stayed <u>at</u> <u>home</u> <u>last</u> <u>night</u>.

They go <u>home</u> <u>quickly</u>.

e. If two or more semantically related adverbials come together, the more specific normally precedes the more general

They will arrive <u>at</u> <u>ten</u> <u>o'clock</u> <u>tomorrow</u>.

I will be waiting for you <u>near</u> <u>the</u> <u>statue</u> <u>in</u> <u>the</u> <u>city</u>

<u>centre</u>.

f. medial position could be an area of overlap where the intonation is a decisive factor. This may be included where intonation is part of the curriculum and where students have attained a good level of intonation.

The activities , preferably communicative, real or simulated, through which the adverbials are introduced should be related to the student's real need. They should be designed meticulously enough to trigger the most natural choice. That is, these activities should be clear enough to avoid all misleading items. There are some books where this happens but others contain exercises among which items like true or false are not feasible. For example G. Broughton's book (1990) offers different types of exercises on adverbials. It is noteworthy that some of these exercises are unconvincingly

formed and that they contain bewildering items.[25] The

exercises on page 6 include the following items of True/False:

8. Evaluative adverbs, like <u>well</u>, take mid-position.

10. Sentence adverbs never take end-position

Item 8 is marked FALSE and 10 with TRUE on page 94. Indeed

such answers are not accurate and the book itself has another

exercise on the following page (9:25; 27) which contradicts

what was stated in 10 above. Here are the items 25 and 27 (p9)

with their answers on page 95:

Manipulation
Here are ten sentences with an adverb given separately.
Identify the kind of adverb, then mark the positions in the
sentence which are acceptable for that particular adverb,
without change of meaning.
    25 (p 9). He doesn't know (actually).
    25 (p 95). (Actually) he doesn't (actually) know
        (actually). - in front- and end position, actually is a
sentence adverb; in mid-position it is focusing and slightly
changes the meaning.
    27 (p 7) We are not able to help (unfortunately).
    27 (p 95) (Unfortunately) we are not able to help
        (unfortunately). Sentence adverbial.

What has been tested in 8 is also misleading. To be

categorical, as for TRUE FALSE items, appears to be an

unreliable guide to adverbials due to their eccentricities.

Thus the adverbial <u>well</u>, or as Greenbaum (1969) calls it a

degree intensifier, takes mid position but with certain

auxiliaries. Greenbaum (ibid 4-6) discusses the occurrences of

<u>well</u> in different syntactic positions among which is the

following:

He may <u>well</u> — *glossed indeed* — play tennis.[26]

Below are two other examples which invalidate what has been

stated in 8 above

I believe Dixon would be so upset that he could well dig

in his heels about moving anywhere. DMr 7/3/1988; 26/5

---

[25]It is not the intention of this study to appraise
Broughton's work, but attention should be drawn to such
issues.

[26]The italics are mine.

A subject so concerned with humane and emotive issues

may <u>well</u> make passion inevitable.

I <u>well</u> remember it.

Another book which shows inconsistency between the way in which it handles the adverbial and the exercises which test pupils' perception of the problem is Seely (1982:160). The book gives the traditional definition of adverbial (Adverb modifies verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs) which is followed by an exercise on the next page. This exercise includes some adverbials like

<u>Fortunately</u> everything was quiet.

<u>Suddenly</u> he stopped

which go beyond that narrow definition. It is quite possible that a keen pupil finds himself/herself in a puzzle as what a constituent the adverbial modifies.

The preceding indicates that the design and concept of the intended exercises should reflect delicate matters such as the above. These exercises which should sufficiently illustrate the explanation of the adverbial properties are better to be of a kind of problem solving. Their aim is to give the students the opportunity to test and correct their hypotheses about the rule or principle being learned. Above all they should include a variety of sentence types and should be designed in a way that ensures that learners genuinely communicate in the L2 classroom rather than go through ineffective succession of drills and abstract explanation. Formed as such they can test whether the student has fully understood the adverbial positions including their constraints and whether he can use them correctly.

9.8 <u>RELEVANT EXERCISES</u>

What follows are model exercises suggested for teaching adverbial positions. Similar exercises to some of these are found in many grammar books, others are quite new in the idea and technique they imply or have been adapted for the purpose

of teaching and practising adverbials.

i. The teacher models the target language sentences then pupils work in groups. Their group work will be :

a. one student says some sentences about Mary like:

Mary is a clever and hard working student. She always gets high marks in her exams. But last term she failed.

b. another student utters 'Surprisingly'

c. the teacher writes on the board the sentence Mary failed in the exam. He asked the students to insert the adverbial 'surprisingly' in the sentence. The prompt answer is Surprisingly Mary failed in the exam.

ii. Another useful activity is in the form of a conversation between three students. The roles may be written on a slip delivered to each student:

The first student utters the sentence: She did the work

The second student reads out the adverbial: willingly

The third student repeats the sentence with the adverbial used: She did the work willingly.

First student: That seems good but I would rather say

She willingly did the work.

At the end of the conversation the student explains why he preferred the position immediately after the subject of the sentence. For more comprehension the teacher may utilise the paraphrase relation of the sentence: she was willing to do the work. A similar conversation could be held as reinforcement but enquiring about other students' opinions instead of the teacher's explanation. It goes thus: First student: He comes to school

The second student utters the adverbial: early

The third student says the sentence with the adverbial: He comes to school early.

First student: The work should be done

Second student: properly

Third student: The work should be done properly

iii.Another set of exercises gives clues to the intended adverbial:

Complete the sentences with adverbials. The first letter(s) of each adverbial is given

Examples:

   We did not go out because it was raining he..... .

   We did not go out because it was raining heavily .

1. I am happy to see you. For........ I met you in time.

2. Sorry, I did not mean to kick you. I did not do it
   int........ . (Murphy 1985:193)

3. My French is not very good but I can understand
   per...... if people speak sl.... and cl..... .

iv. In this exercise you have to decide whether the underlined words are in the right or wrong position. Correct those which are wrong.

Example:

   I tried <u>hardly</u> to remember such a long name.

   I <u>hardly</u> tried to remember such a long name.

1. We <u>entirely</u> do not agree with her.

2. She does not <u>certainly</u> dare to prosecute him.

3. Do what your mother tells you <u>always</u>.

4. I will <u>probably</u> not come to the party tonight.

5. They <u>terribly</u> sound irritated.

v. (More advanced) Relate, by circling, the adverbial to its head (the word it particularises) in these sentences.

Example:

She placed the plates <u>carefully</u>.

1. He shook his head <u>regretfully</u>.

2. <u>Politically</u>, are you involved in such issues?

3. <u>Personally</u>, I found his attitude strange.

vi. These adverbials are used in positions other than their normal ones; however, disregard intonation, they are

acceptable. Find out their normal positions, where they most naturally fit. Write the new arrangements:

Examples:

On Monday, they arrived.

They arrived on Monday.

1. I do my work early sometimes.

2. She perhaps joins our team.

3 We understand your situation fully.

4. He would help with this matter probably.

5. She must leave really.

6. She gracefully dances.

7. They were looking for a TV only.

vii. Change these sentences into negatives and see whether the adverbial retains its place or moves to another. Remember that some adverbials become redundant as a result of negation.

Example:

He certainly comes with us.

Certainly, he does not come with us.

1. He drove the car quickly.

2. She wisely kept silent in the meeting.

viii. Change the following into interrogatives. Make any other necessary changes.

1. These two issues differ considerably.

2. He honestly supports her proposal.

3. They officially renounced such issues.

ix. Ahmed is writing about his first visit to England. He has a difficulty of allocating adverbials in their sentences. He asks you to assist him in doing that:

My journey to England was interesting (quite). The first time I arrived, I did not know what to do (really). Every thing was strange to me, the traffic system, the fascinating lights, the building style ...etc. While I was looking around I bumped into an old lady. She fell over and her things rolled onto the

floor. 'Sorry' was the only word I could utter as my English was not good enough (quite). The lady turned (jerkily) and spoke a long sentence which I did not understand (fully). I tried (hard) to convince her that I did not do it (intentionally) but she was mumbling (continuously). Meanwhile a passer-by who watched my embarrassment (closely) approached the scene (slowly) and tried to calm the lady down. She refused to listen to him (absolutely). She carried her bags (hurriedly) and turned to me saying 'you'd better learn English'.

These examples do fit in and easily form part of the principles mentioned in section 9.1. Adverbials are shown to be part of a pattern. Learners make an active response using such a pattern and from time to time the teacher should explicitly encourage students to give their own understanding of likely adverbial replacement. Whenever possible, a variety of means of presentation and a variety of types of students' response should be encouraged.

9.9 CONCLUDING REMARKS

In this final part, the aim is to place the outcome of the study in a wider intellectual perspective. This is done, first of all, by recapturing what was concluded in the previous chapters. Then final remarks will conclude the whole work.

The examination of the previous chapters makes clear how broad the adverbial class is. It includes a wide range of items clearly defining themselves as authentic members to those belonging to other classes. This puts the class in an open system whose membership remains relatively unstable over time. Such open fluidity makes this sort of system functionally more heterogeneous and notorious to isolate and analyse without implicating a multitude of other systems. In addition to its multifunctional nomenclature, its placement increases its notoriety. The business of this placement is

complicated by many factors. Factors of influence are of a linguistic nature as much as of a non-linguistic one. Chief among linguistic factors are adverbial type, verb type, the semantics, syntax of sentence structure. Related to the non linguistic factors are the speaker's/writer's idiosyncrasies. This type of broadness poses problems to researchers who attempt to refine this class and make it easier to detect. It is more difficult to teach the individual members which in many cases show some kind of predilection and become difficult to be under the control of one rule or even of a set of rules. This problem has to do principally with the greater word order flexibility displayed by adverbial elements in the two languages. Arab teachers of English can easily find English adverbials most of which are virtually characterised by their form and are sharply distinguishable, while their Arabic counterparts span a considerable range of words (prepositions, nouns and adjectives in accusative).

Axiomatically the function in many cases depends on position in the sentence and is unlikely to be derived from the meaning of the word. Therefore, students need to be aware of the function of the adverbial which determines its relation to the sentence (constituent). To help students' awareness it is important to emphasize a neat distinction to be made between normal position and other possible positions (non-normal). Normal position is the habitat where the adverbial concerned occurs reflecting the context of situation. Possible position is an alternative to the normal one. For pedagogic purposes emphasis should be laid on normal position in the first place then on other possible positions in the second. As has been stressed by the pedagogic procedure followed in this chapter, function and position are the corner-stones on which adverbial introductions should be based and priority should be given to frequency. The most common is to be learned first. Such flexibility in adverbial choice

lessens the erroneous areas in this linguistic topic, nevertheless some problematic areas emanating from the individual behaviour of certain adverbials in certain environments need to be pinpointed. Adverbials with a sharp limitation in occurrence pose problems to language learners. Native speakers often depend on their intuition in choosing the normal position, often without knowing the reason for their choice. Foreign learners might encounter difficulties in locating such types of adverbial. Again this can be overcome by giving due attention and exposing the learner to various exercises involving these adverbials

Beyond the argument that teaching grammar to native speakers decreases interest in their language and makes them feel negatively about their own culture and language, the situation is quite different with foreign learners. Teaching grammar to foreign learners, especially to those like Arabs who are taught native grammar at an early stage (when pupils are nine years old) has cogent reasons in that it helps someone to speak and to write better English. The force of the argument varies in accord with the learners' needs. If the learners need accuracy, grammar teaching is important; if it is towards communication, it is less important. What this view tries to assert is that systematic study of language rather than the study of formal grammar offers students better opportunities to use the language effectively. More pertinently to the business of real teaching is the methodology that introduces grammar. Received opinion bemoans the fact that the student in Iraq and perhaps in other Arab countries spends, on average, 500 hours a year learning English and he/she <u>fails</u> to maintain an ordinary conversation; even his/her writing is at a disproportionately low level given that amount of learning time. This low level of mastery over language is partly ascribed to the lack of sound exposure to the language either in the classroom instruction or

stretching beyond it.[27] One way to redress this persistent problem is the genuine use of language. Such use helps the student communicate more fluently and efficiently. To maintain communication, a variety of procedures in addition to the different types of teaching material- literature, fiction, history, ...etc.- should be employed for the purpose of sustaining student's interest. It is a joint responsibility of the course book and teacher to foster English as a means of communication rather than a chore as 'school subject'. The teacher can approach this goal by viewing the learner as 'user' rather than merely as 'learner'. Group work and pair work should be encouraged with the provision of ample opportunities. The course book can cherish the same goal by including materials divided in terms of activities and tasks. It is not necessary to incorporate these activities and tasks in one book. They would be better presented throughout a series. Such a series depends on the student's level. Each book of the series focuses on a certain task and could together be accompanied by various teaching aids. Both teacher and course book should be imaginative enough to create a classroom atmosphere conducive to learning, and diminish the students' perception of studying just to pass the examination and of rule-following.

Another way of rectification which is just as important is language exposure outside the classroom. Language exposure in the context of natural use is vitally important and in many cases more important than the learning of vocabulary lists and grammatical patterns. To access this type of exposure materials other than course books are provided. These

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[27]Learners' performance is out of the scope of this study, however many diverse factors that can be ascribed to the flaws of teaching and learning of English in Iraq are worthy of mention. These factors are mainly represented by inefficient teachers, passive students, inefficacious teaching methods, inappropriate teaching materials, absence of a creative atmosphere conducive to the learning of English, and difficult tests.

materials should be simple and stimulating. Language games, educational television programmes, computer games, and the like, which reflect the social and cultural background of English speaking people, are advisably included.

In total, the syllabus course and external material should help the learner develop and improve his/her proficiency beyond the classroom to become eventually self-reliant and autonomous. Different real-life situations maintain the interrelationships which in turn enable him/her to communicate with different people and different audiences. Such ample opportunities offered to the learner bring him/her into contact with and experience of English in the natural contexts of genuine communication.

9.10 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The research on the adverbial class can be extended to empirically explore to the full new avenues associated with the influential factors, in particular that of intonation, which affect the choice which ultimately determines the syntactic and semantic interpretation of the sentence. Another piece of work can be done to test native speakers' judgements by a means different from that followed in this study. Pedagogical implications of the functional classification of this study can be presented to teachers to see its reliability and validity in actual classrooms. Its aftermath can be another insight for research.

'Adverbial positions' has received little attention in both traditional and current teaching materials for both English and Arabic. This is hardly surprising since theoretical models of adverbial use have been developed by few researchers. Indeed much of the published material is not very accessible to material writers and teachers. This study, however, has reviewed existing research and has suggested a functional classification of adverbial positions which should

have theoretical relevance and practical application to the teaching of English adverbial positions to Arabic speaking learners. In some measure the previous neglect of adverbial positions has been overcome.

The credibility of the functional classification was tested against English and Arabic native speakers' judgements which proved compatible with the hypotheses set up by that classification. Samples of the native speakers' judgements of adverbial positions in the two languages were contrasted on graphs deploying a new computerised programme exclusively designed for that purpose. The contrastive analysis has substantiated the claims made earlier that there is a good deal of positional similarity in the two languages, a fact which diminishes the problems language learners face. However, the proposed pedagogic techniques help learners differentiate between normal positions and other possible positions in addition to the many guidelines which focus on the potential problems. Conclusively, the study has come along theoretical and practical lines of researching this linguistic area by providing evidence from grammar books, newspapers and native speakers' intuition. These sources grant the study a solid axis on which basis it rests its argument.

APPENDIX 1:   ENGLISH AND ARABIC SCATTERPLOTS

SCATTERPLOT E1

SCATTERPLOT E2

MEAN SCORE

SENTENCE

CLAUSE ELEMENT-MODIFYING ADVERBIALS

SCATTERPLOT E3

VERB PHRASE-MODIFYING ADVERBIALS

SENTENCE

SCATTERPLOT E4

MEAN SCORE

SUCCESSIVE ORDER OF ADVERBIALS
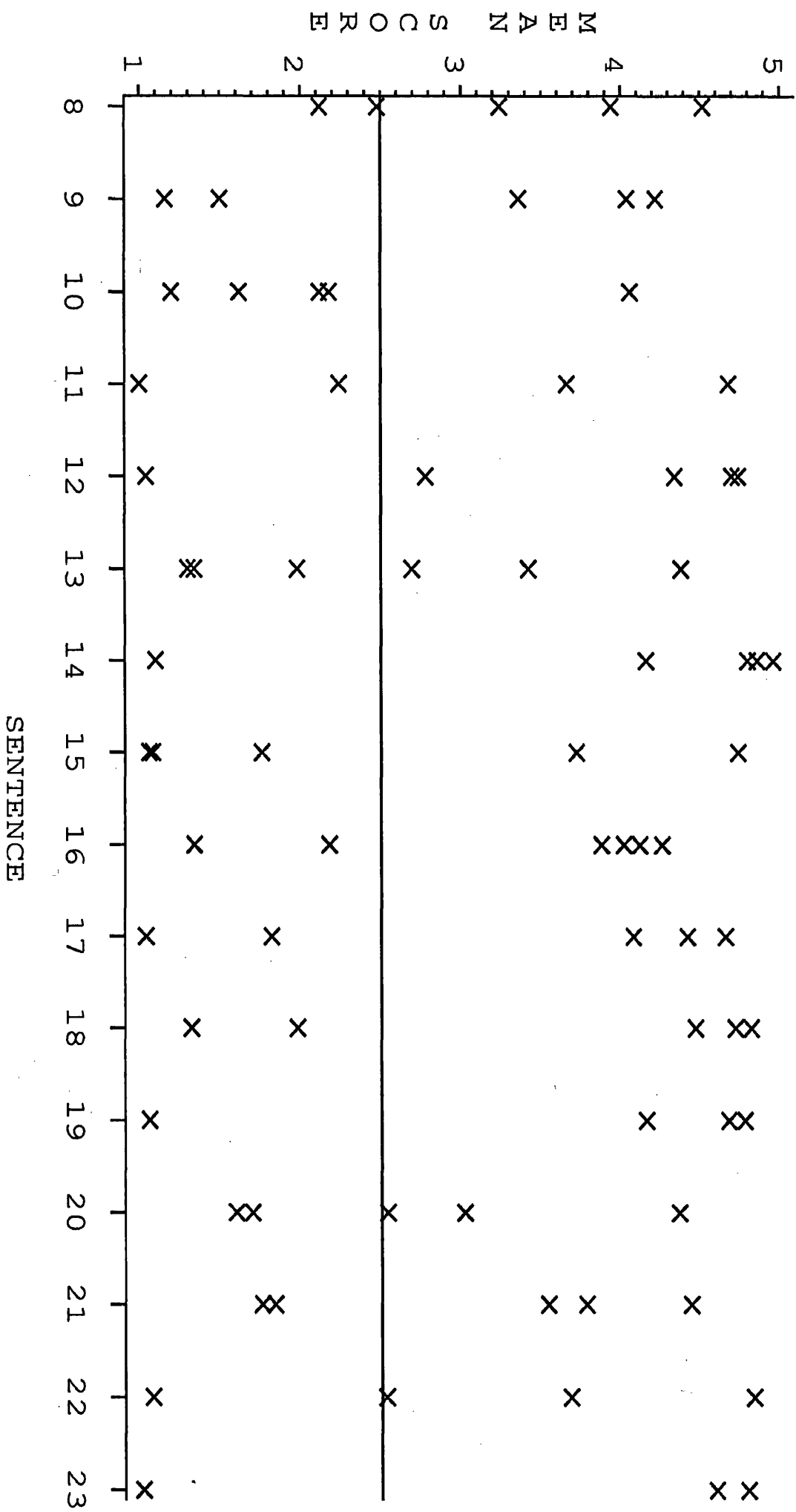
SENTENCE

SCATTERPLOT E5
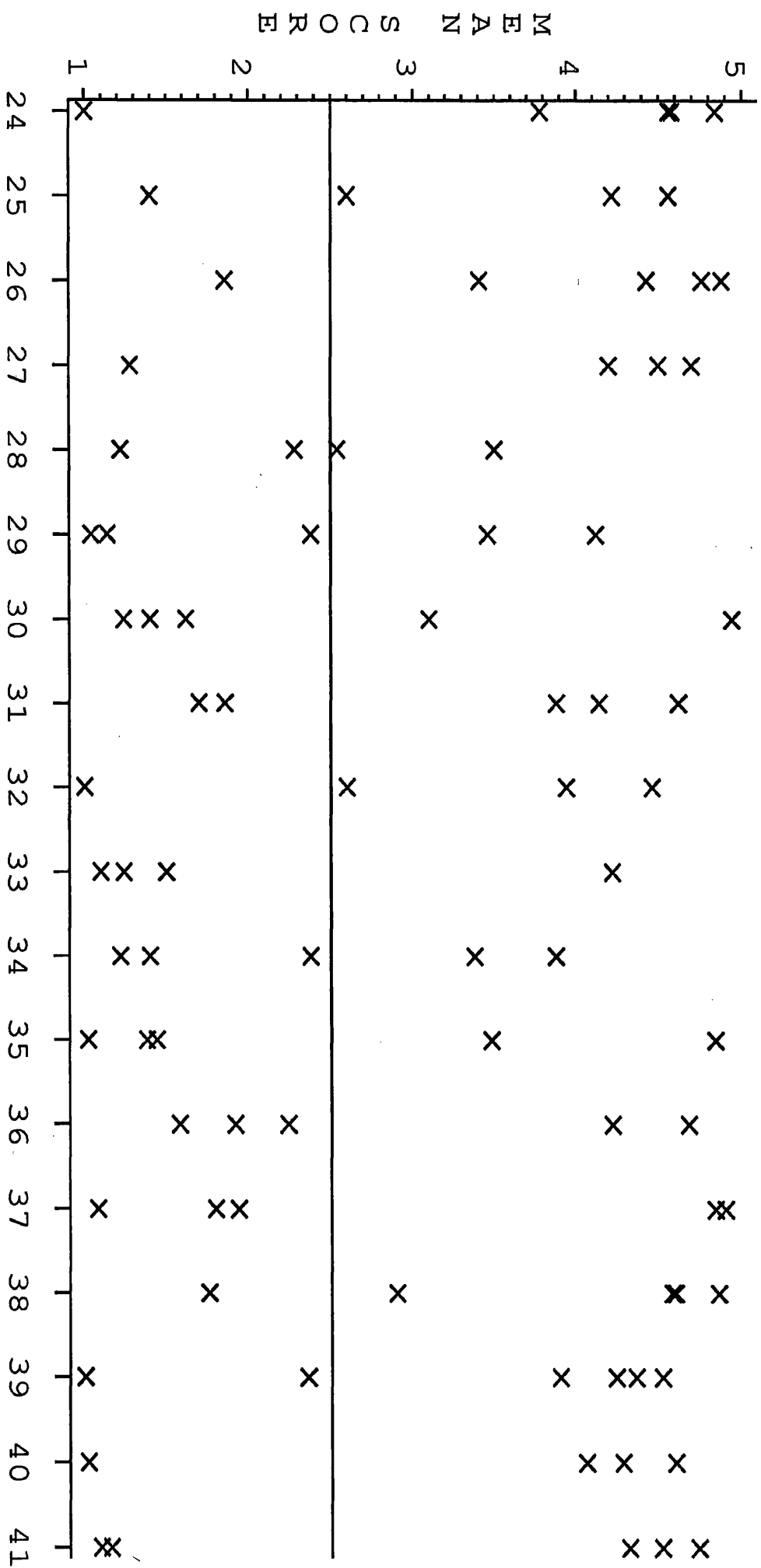
MEAN SCORE
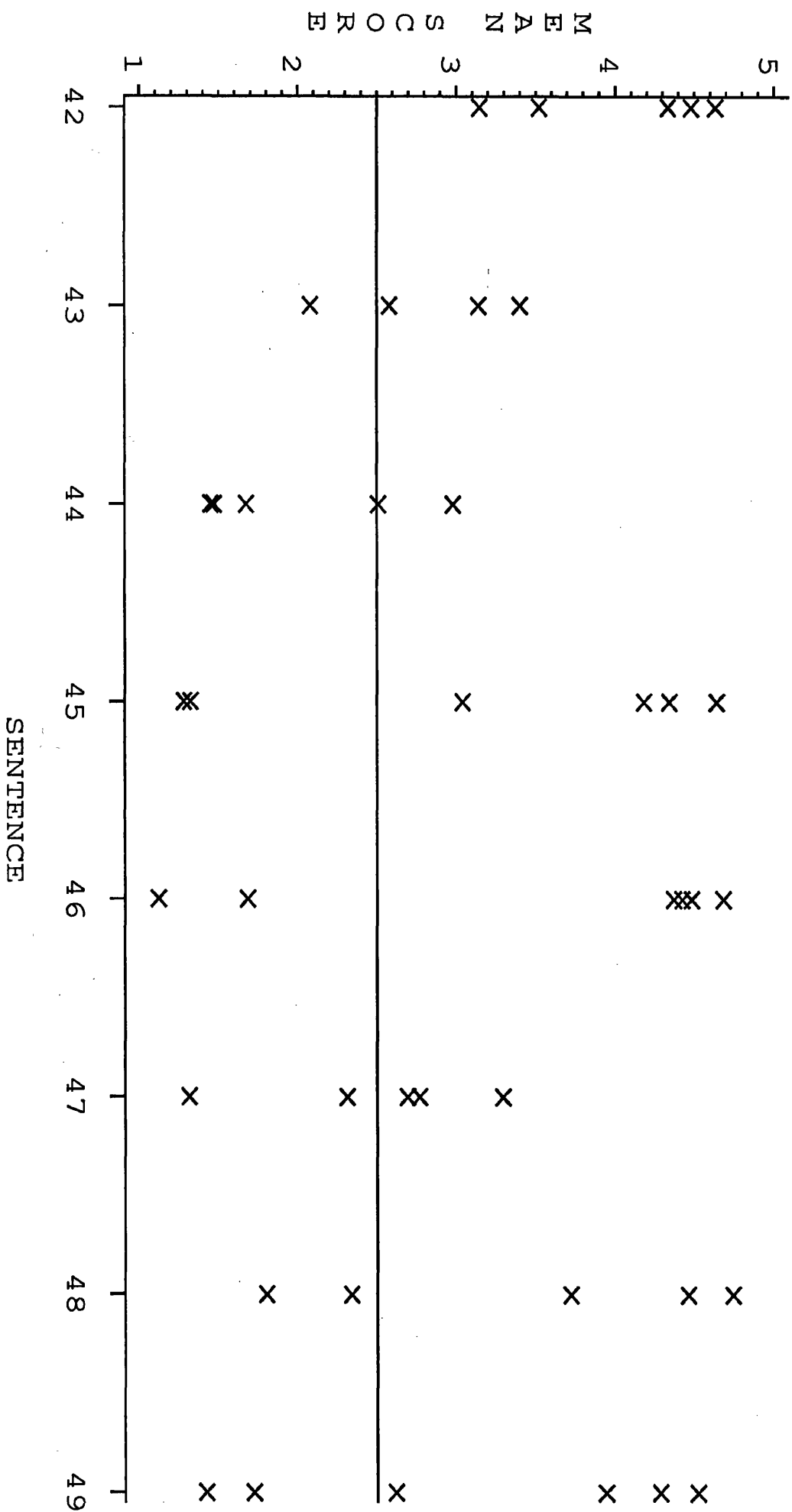
POSITIONAL RANGE
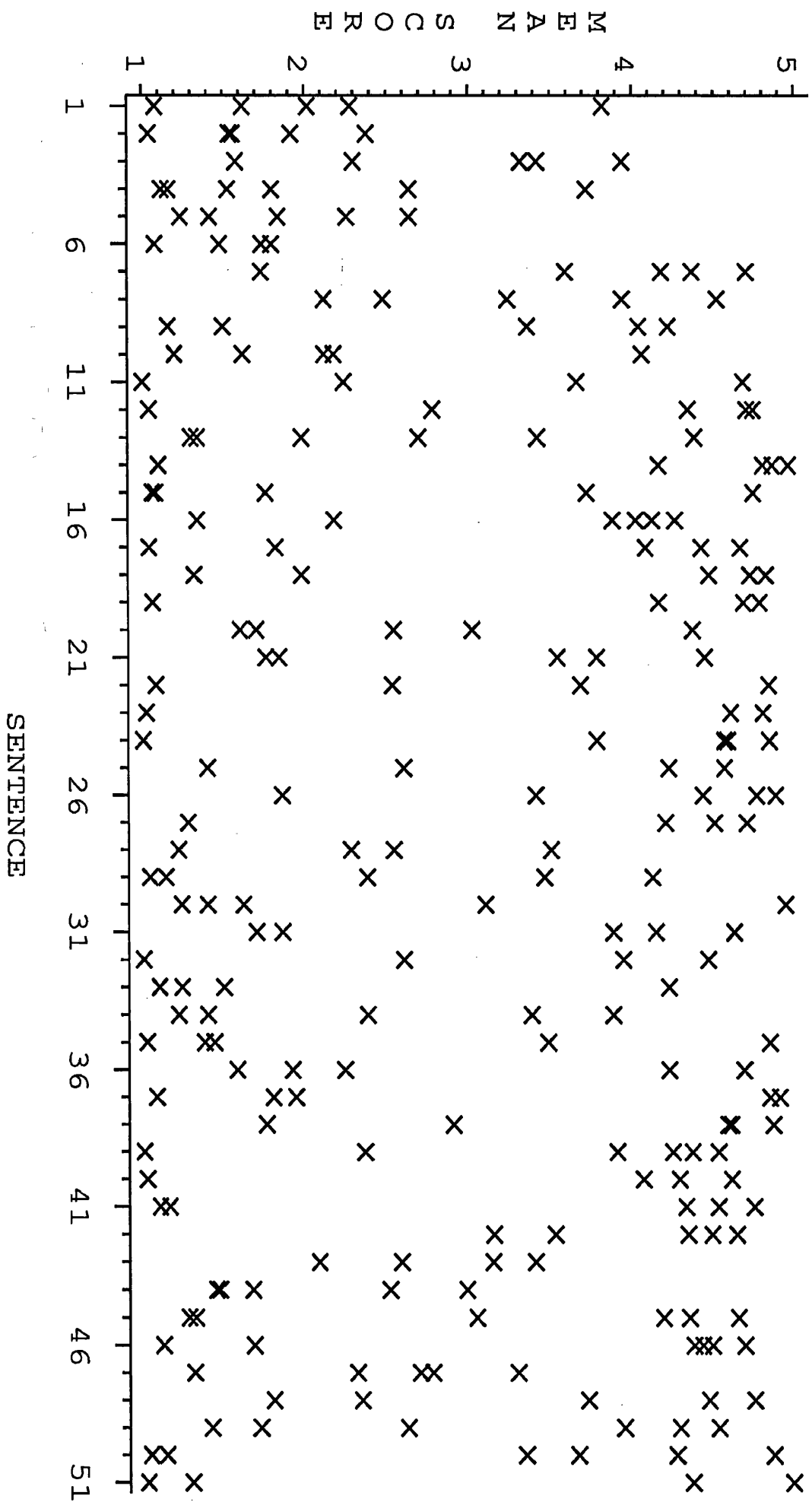
SENTENCE

SCATTERPLOT E6

Sentences ranked by mean score
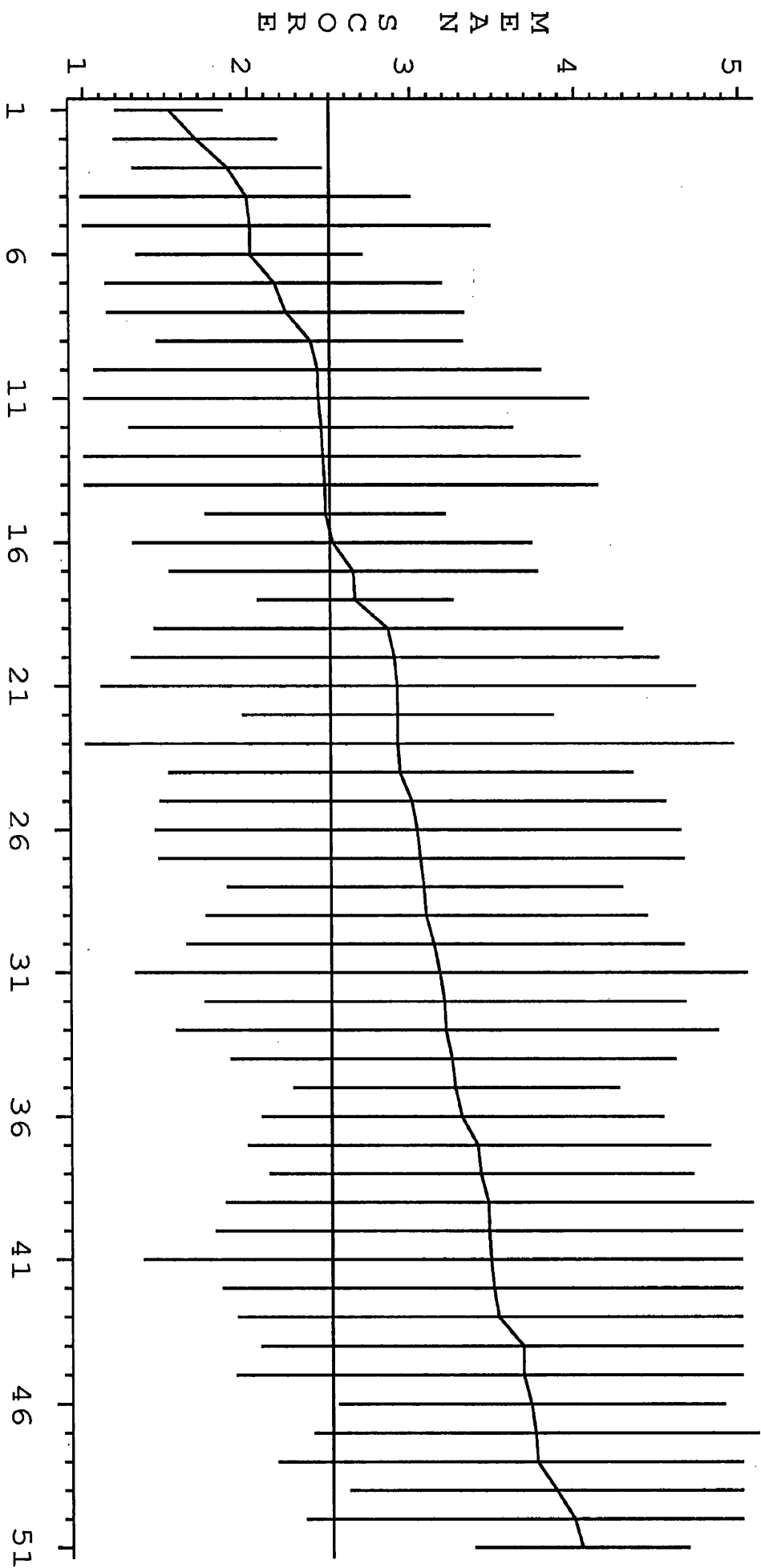
SCATTERPLOT A1
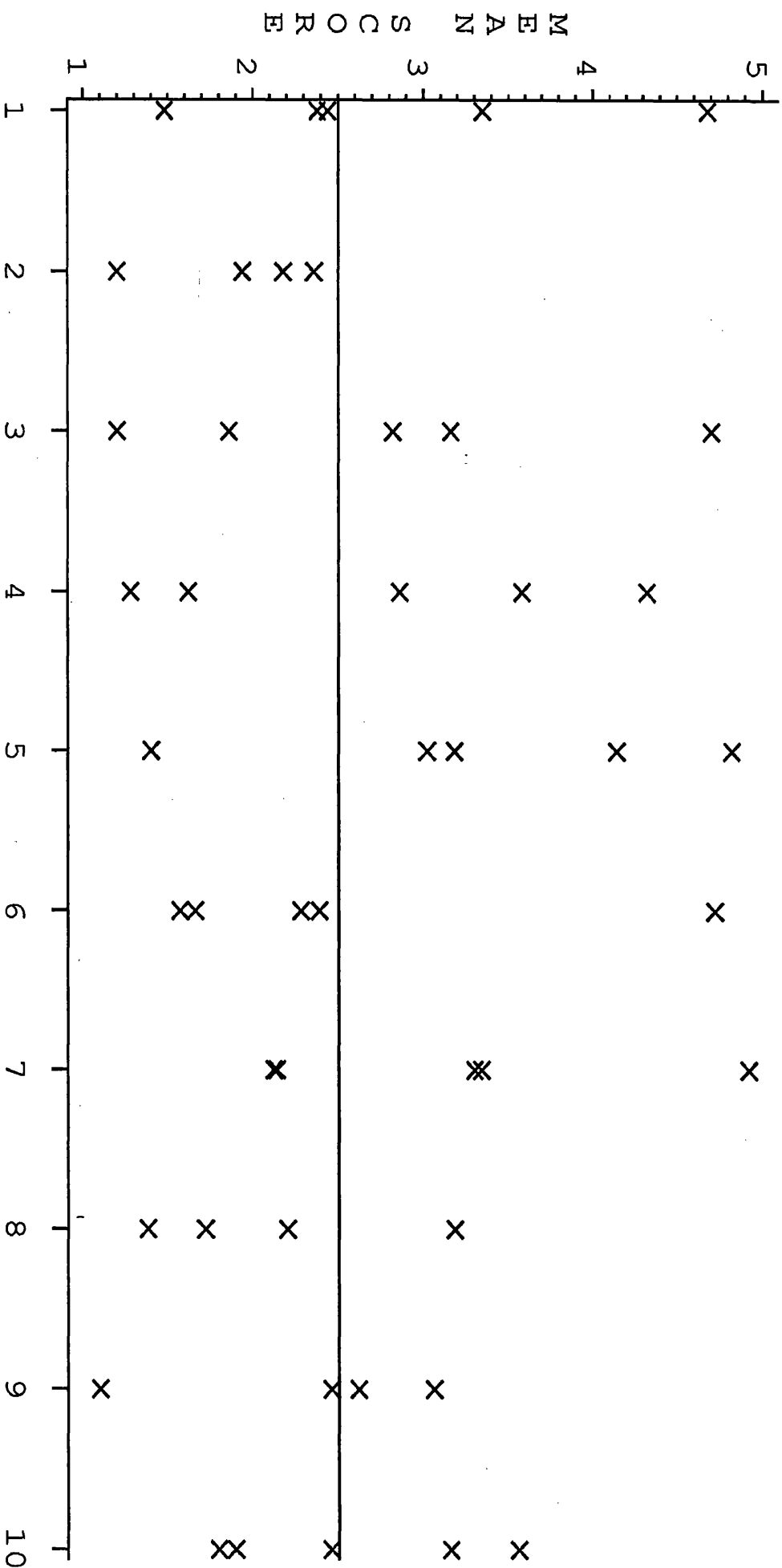
SENTENCE-MODIFYING ADVERBIALS
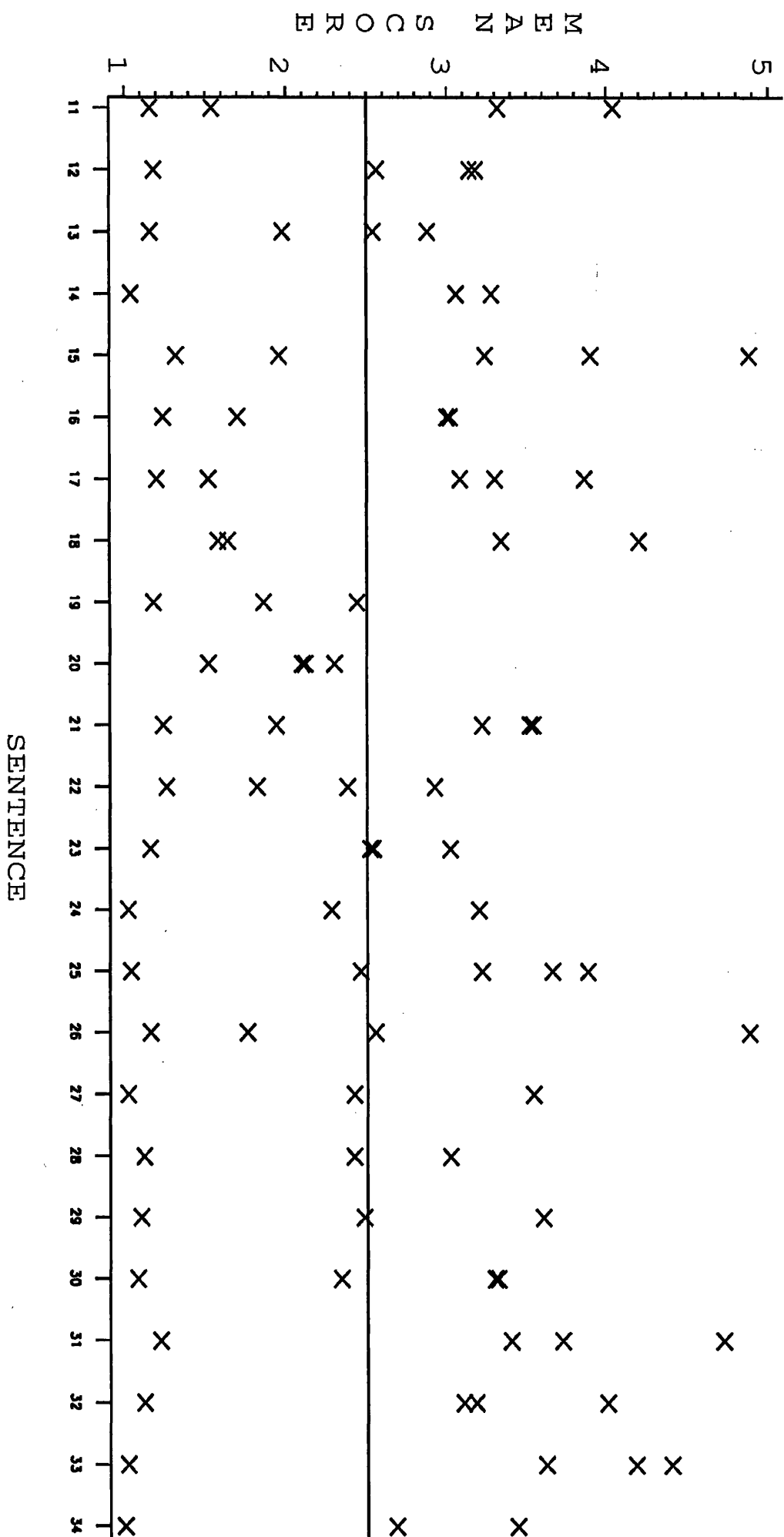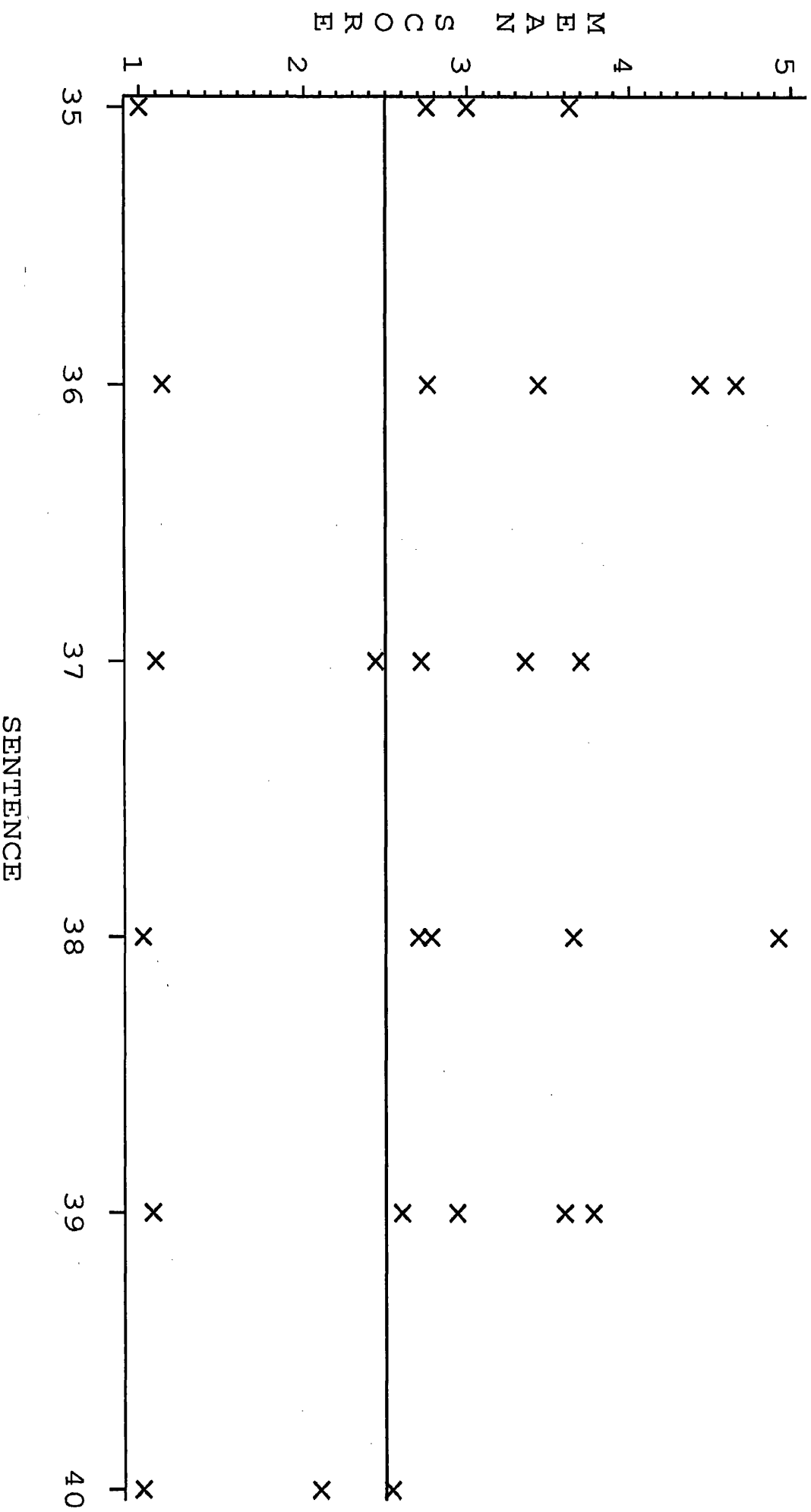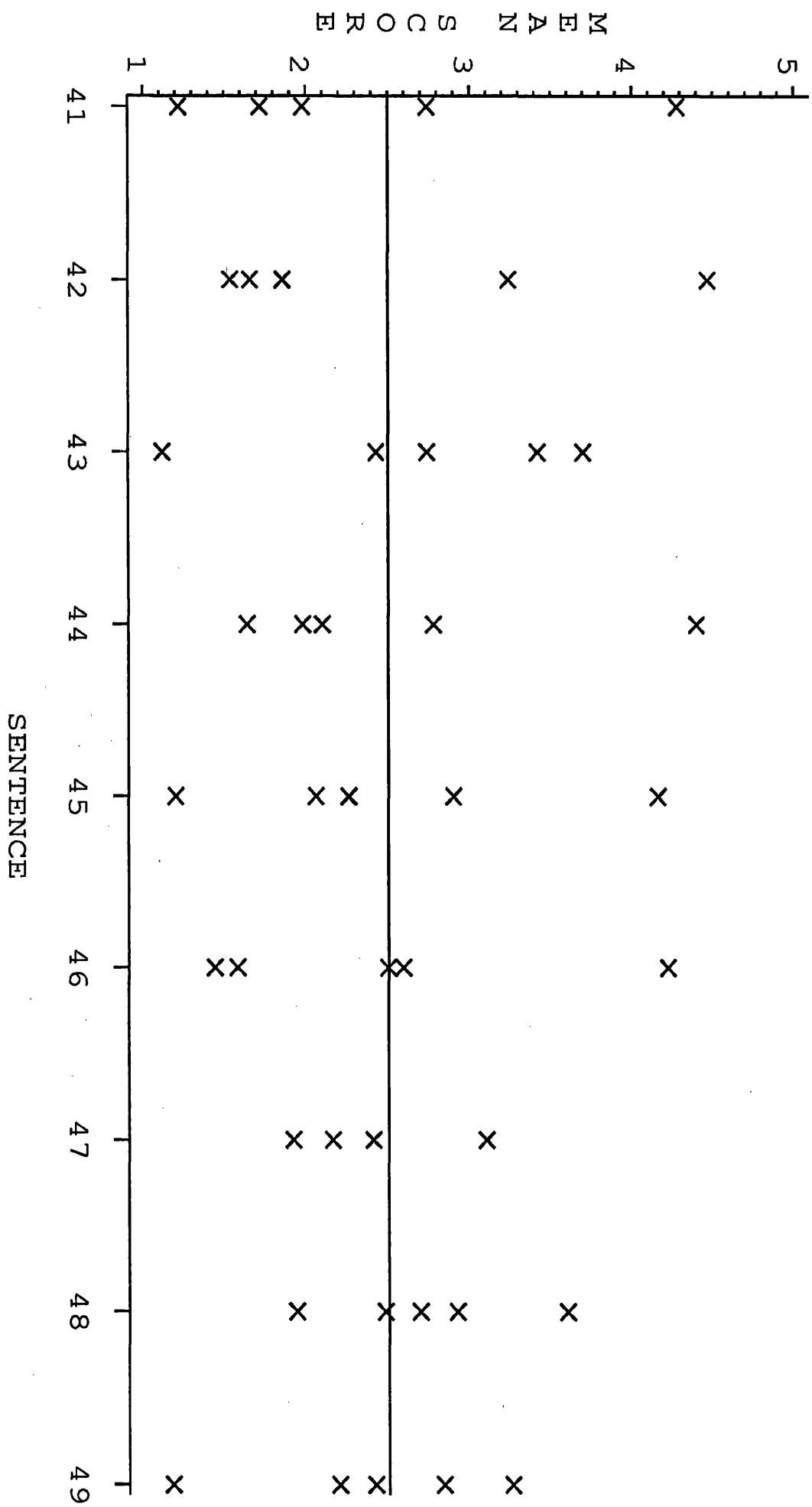
SENTENCE

SCATTERPLOT A2

CLAUSE ELEMENT–MODIFYING ADVERBIALS

SENTENCE

MEAN SCORE

SCATTERPLOT A3

VERB PHRASE—MODIFYING ADVERBIALS

SCATTERPLOT A4

MEAN SCORE

SUCCESSIVE ORDER OF ADVERBIALS

SENTENCE

SCATTERPLOT A5

SCATTERPLOT A6

SENTENCES RANKED BY MEAN SCORE
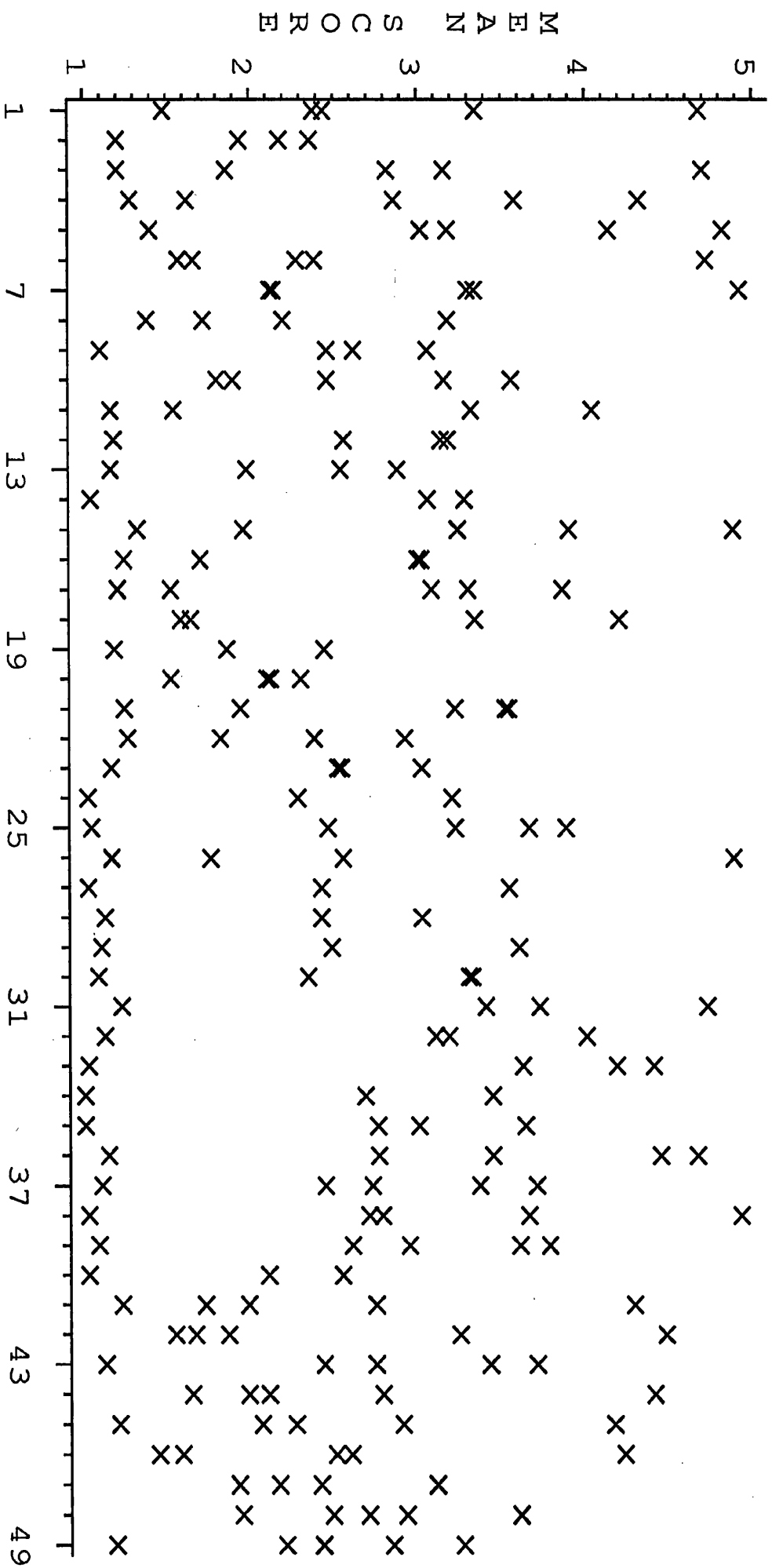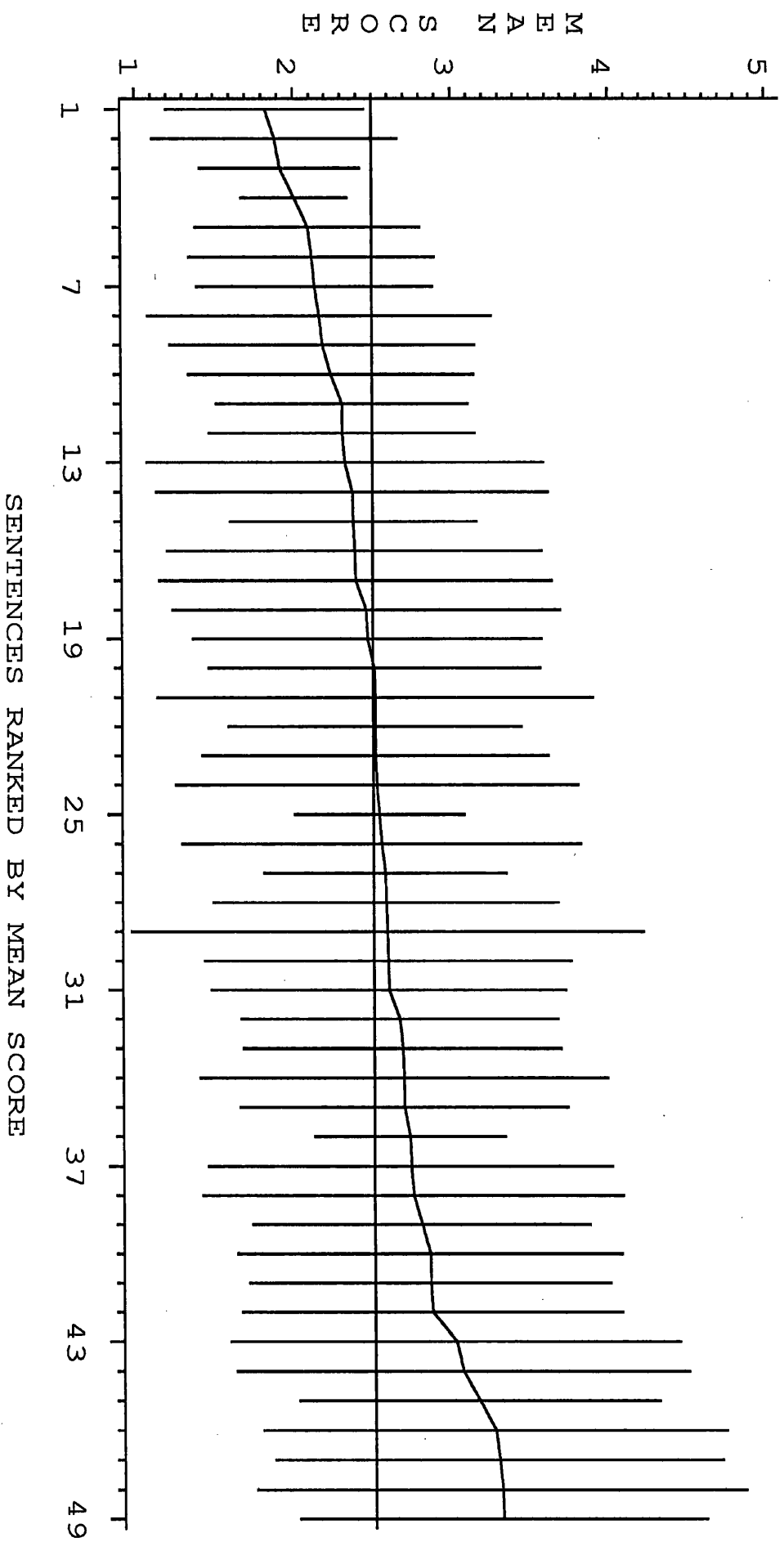
APPENDIX 11: TABLES OF CORRESPONDENCE

TABLE 52

The following table displays the order of the tables used in chapter five with their corresponding order used in the English scatterplot E6

ORDER OF THE TABLES APPEARED IN SCATTERPLOT E6	FREQUENCY	MEANS SCORE	ORDER OF THE TABLES USED IN CHAPTER 5
1	4	1.525	6
2	5	1.687	2
3	5	1.880	5
4	6	1.995	4
5	4	2.015	33
6	5	2.016	44
7	5	2.164	1
8	5	2.236	10
9	4	2.385	28
10	5	2.428	29
11	5	2.432	35
12	5	2.451	34
13	5	2.460	30
14	5	2.472	15
15	5	2.476	47
16	6	2.519	13
17	5	2.645	20
18	5	2.656	43
19	5	2.856	9
20	4	2.895	11
21	5	2.911	37
22	5	2.912	3
23	4	2.915	51
24	5	2.928	36
25	4	3.000	32
26	4	3.032	22
27	6	3.050	50
28	5	3.072	21
29	6	3.083	49
30	6	3.133	45
31	5	3.168	41
32	4	3.195	25
33	5	3.204	17
34	5	3.240	31
35	5	3.260	8

36	6	3.299	16
37	6	3.396	39
38	5	3.412	48
39	6	3.457	46
40	5	3.461	18
41	3	3.473	23
42	4	3.490	40
43	5	3.520	12
44	4	3.670	27
45	4	3.6701	19
46	5	3.714	7
47	5	3.740	38
48	5	3.752	24
49	5	3.867	26
50	5	3.976	14
51	5	4.022	42

TABLE 51

The following table displays the order of the tables used in chapter seven with their corresponding order used in the Arabic scatterplot A6

ORDER OF THE TABLES APPEARED IN SCATTERPLOT A6	FREQUENCY	MEANS SCORE	ORDER OF THE TABLES USED IN CHAPTER 7
1	3	1.826	16
2	3	1.886	40
3	4	1.920	2
4	4	2.010	20
5	4	2.095	22
6	4	2.120	8
7	4	2.140	13
8	3	2.166	24
9	3	2.186	28
10	4	2.240	16
11	4	2.310	23
12	4	2.310	9
13	3	2.326	27
14	3	2.373	34
15	5	2.380	49
16	5	2.388	41
17	3	2.393	29
18	3	2.460	14
19	5	2.466	46
20	4	2.510	30
21	4	2.515	11
22	4	2.5151	12
23	5	2.516	45
24	5	2.523	6
25	5	2.537	47
26	5	2.553	42
27	5	2.576	10
28	5	2.580	44
29	4	2.587	26
30	5	2.592	17
31	4	2.597	35
32	5	2.664	37
33	5	2.682	43
34	4	2.690	18
35	5	2.692	21
36	5	2.726	48

37	5	2.732	4
38	5	2.748	3
39	5	2.799	39
40	4	2.850	32
41	5	2.852	25
42	5	2.865	1
43	5	3.014	38
44	5	3.060	15
45	5	3.164	7
46	4	3.265	31
47	5	3.288	36
48	4	3.305	33
49	5	3.312	5

APPENDIX 111: ENGLISH AND ARABIC QUESTIONNAIRES

Dear respondent

This questionnaire is part of a study, the primary concern of which is to identify the meanings of adverbials and their most natural positions. We would like you help us explore this area by completing this questionnaire.

You are invited to tick the appropriate box to indicate how strongly you feel about the adverbial positions.

N= NORMAL FN= FAIRLY NORMAL R= RARE D= DUBIOUS AB= ABNORMAL

	N	FN	R	D	AB
1.1 He _quite_ forgot about her birthday.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.2 _Quite_ he forgot about her birthday.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.3 He forgot _quite_ about her birthday.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.4 He forgot about her birthday _quite_.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.5 He forgot about _quite_ her birthday.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.1 _Resentfully_, they have packed their luggage.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.2 They have _resentfully_ packed their luggage.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.3 They _resentfully_ have packed their luggage.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.4 They have packed _resentfully_ their luggage.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.5 They have packed their luggage, _resentfully_.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.1 The nurse attended the patient _each day hourly_.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.2 _Hourly_ the nurse attended the patient _each day_.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.3 The nurse attended the patient _hourly each day_.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.4 _Each day_ the nurse attended the patient _hourly_.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.5 The nurse _hourly each day_ attended the patient.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4.1 _When I get back home_ I will tell you the story.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4:2 I will tell you the story _when I get back home_.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4.3 I will _when I get back home_ tell you the story.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4.4 I _when I get back home_ will tell you the story.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4.5 I will tell _when I get back home_ you the story.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4.6 I will tell you _when I get back_ home the story.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

1.1 John will, <u>unfortunately</u>, come to the party. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

1.2 John will come to the party, <u>unfortunately</u>. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

1.3 <u>Unfortunately</u>, John will come to the party. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

1.4 John will come, <u>unfortunately</u>, to the party. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

1.5 John, <u>unfortunately</u>, will come to the party. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

2.1 I <u>simply</u> do not believe it. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

2.2 <u>Simply</u> I do not believe it. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

2.3 I do not <u>simply</u> believe it. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

2.4 I do not believe <u>simply</u> it. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

2.5 I do not believe it <u>simply</u>. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

3.1 She came <u>here</u> <u>last</u> <u>year</u> <u>regularly</u> <u>by</u> <u>car</u>. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

3.2 She <u>regularly</u> came <u>here</u> <u>last</u> <u>year</u> <u>by</u> <u>car</u>. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

3.3 She came <u>here</u> <u>by</u> <u>car</u> <u>regularly</u> <u>last</u> <u>year</u>. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

3.4 She came <u>here</u> <u>regularly</u> <u>by</u> <u>car</u> <u>last</u> <u>year</u>. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

3.5 She came <u>here</u> <u>by</u> <u>car</u> <u>last</u> <u>year</u> <u>regularly</u>. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

4.1 Put <u>somewhere</u> <u>else</u> this book. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

4.2 <u>Somewhere</u> <u>else</u> put this book. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

4.3 Put this <u>somewhere</u> <u>else</u> book. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

4.4 Put this book <u>somewhere</u> <u>else</u>. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

.

1.1 He made <u>off</u> <u>blindly</u> for his cottage. □ □ □ □ □

1.2 He made <u>blindly</u> for his cottage <u>off</u>. □ □ □ □ □

1.3 He made <u>blindly</u> <u>off</u> for his cottage. □ □ □ □ □

1.4 He <u>blindly</u> made <u>off</u> for his cottage. □ □ □ □ □

1.5 He made <u>off</u> for his cottage <u>blindly</u>. □ □ □ □ □

2.1 The match starts <u>on</u> <u>Friday</u> <u>at</u> <u>three</u> o'clock. □ □ □ □ □

2.2 The match starts <u>at</u> <u>three</u> o'clock <u>on</u> <u>Friday</u>. □ □ □ □ □

2.3 <u>At</u> <u>three</u> o'clock the match starts <u>on</u> <u>Friday</u>. □ □ □ □ □

2.4 <u>On</u> <u>Friday</u> the match starts <u>at</u> <u>three</u> o'clock. □ □ □ □ □

2.5 The match <u>at</u> <u>three</u> o'clock <u>on</u> <u>Friday</u> starts. □ □ □ □ □

3.1 A hermit has lived <u>on</u> <u>the</u> <u>very</u> <u>top</u> <u>of</u> <u>the</u> <u>hill</u>. □ □ □ □ □

3.2 <u>On</u> <u>the</u> <u>very</u> <u>top</u> <u>of</u> <u>the</u> <u>hill</u> a hermit has lived. □ □ □ □ □

3.3 A hermit <u>on</u> <u>the</u> <u>very</u> <u>top</u> <u>of</u> <u>the</u> <u>hill</u> has lived. □ □ □ □ □

3.4 A hermit has <u>on</u> <u>the</u> <u>very</u> <u>top</u> <u>of</u> <u>the</u> <u>hill</u> lived. □ □ □ □ □

4.1 <u>Normally</u> we do not go to bed before midnight. □ □ □ □ □

4.2 we do not <u>normally</u> go to bed before midnight. □ □ □ □ □

4.3 we <u>normally</u> do not go to bed before midnight. □ □ □ □ □

4.4 we do not go <u>normally</u> to bed before midnight. □ □ □ □ □

4.5 we do not go to bed <u>normally</u> before midnight. □ □ □ □ □

4.6 we do not go to bed before midnight <u>normally</u>. □ □ □ □ □

.

1.1 <u>Always</u> carry out the instructions of the manager. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

1.2 Carry out <u>always</u> the instructions of the manager. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

1.3 Carry out the instructions of the manager <u>always</u>. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

1.4 Carry <u>always</u> out the instructions of the manager. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

2.1 I do need the money this week, <u>confidentially</u>. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

2.2 I, <u>confidentially</u>, do need the money this week. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

2.3 <u>Confidentially</u>, I do need the money this week. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

2.4 I do, <u>confidentially</u>, need the money this week. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

2.5 I do need, <u>confidentially</u>, the money this week. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

2.6 I do need the money, <u>confidentially</u>, this week. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

3.1 The professor <u>tonight</u> will give a lecture. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

3.2 The professor will give <u>tonight</u> a lecture. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

3.3 <u>Tonight</u> the professor will give a lecture. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

3.4 The professor will <u>tonight</u> give a lecture. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

3.5 The professor will give a lecture <u>tonight</u>. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

4.1 They <u>humbly</u> asked the manager to accept the invitation. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

4.2 <u>Humbly</u> they asked the manager to accept the invitation. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

4.3 They asked <u>humbly</u> the manager to accept the invitation. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

4.4 They asked the manager to accept the invitation <u>humbly</u>. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

4.5 They asked the manager to accept <u>humbly</u> the invitation. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

1.1 He read the book <u>loudly</u> <u>in</u> <u>the</u> <u>room</u>.   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

1.2 He read the book <u>in</u> <u>the</u> <u>room</u> <u>loudly</u>.   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

1.3 <u>Loudly</u> <u>in</u> <u>the</u> <u>room</u> He read the book.   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

1.4 <u>In</u> <u>the</u> <u>room</u> <u>loudly</u> he read the book.   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

1.5 He <u>loudly</u> <u>in</u> <u>the</u> <u>room</u> read the book.   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

1.6 He <u>in</u> <u>the</u> <u>room</u> <u>loudly</u> read the book.   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

2.1 I <u>literarily</u> did not know what to do next.   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

2.2 <u>Literarily</u> I did not know what to do next.   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

2.3 I did not know <u>literarily</u> what to do next.   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

2.4 I did not know what to do next <u>literarily</u>.   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

2.5 I did not <u>literarily</u> know what to do next.   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

3.1 Mary is cutting <u>with</u> <u>a</u> <u>knife</u> the bread.   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

3.2 <u>with</u> <u>a</u> <u>knife</u> Mary is cutting the bread.   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

3.3 Mary is cutting the bread <u>with</u> <u>a</u> <u>knife</u>.   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

3.4 Mary is <u>with</u> <u>a</u> <u>knife</u> cutting the bread.   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

3.5 Mary <u>with</u> <u>a</u> <u>knife</u> is cutting the bread.   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

4.1 I studied <u>in</u> <u>drama</u> <u>school</u> <u>in</u> <u>Paris</u>.   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

4.2 I studied <u>in</u> <u>Paris</u> <u>in</u> <u>drama</u> <u>school</u>.   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

4.3 <u>In</u> <u>drama</u> <u>school</u> I studied <u>in</u> <u>Paris</u>.   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

4.4 <u>In</u> <u>Paris</u> I studied <u>in</u> <u>drama</u> <u>school</u>.   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

4:5 I <u>in</u> <u>drama</u> <u>school</u> studied <u>in</u> <u>Paris</u>.   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

1.1 <u>Slowly</u> John did not approach Harry.   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

1.2 John <u>Slowly</u> did not approach Harry.   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

1.3 John did not approach Harry <u>slowly</u>.   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

1.4 John did not approach <u>slowly</u> Harry.   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

1.5 John did not <u>slowly</u> approach Harry.   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

2.1 Does your teacher sit <u>often</u> there?   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

2.2 Does your teacher sit there <u>often</u>?   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

2.3 <u>Often</u> does your teacher sit there?   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

2.4 Does your teacher <u>often</u> sit there?   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

2.5 Does <u>often</u> your teacher sit there?   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

3.1 I agree with you <u>entirely</u>.   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

3.2 I agree <u>entirely</u> with you.   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

3.3 I agree with <u>entirely</u> you.   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

3.4 I <u>entirely</u> agree with you.   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

3.5 <u>Entirely</u> I agree with you.   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

4.1 I <u>sincerely</u> will apologise for being rude.   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

4.2 I will <u>sincerely</u> apologise for being rude.   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

4.3 <u>Sincerely</u> I will apologise for being rude.   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

4.4 I will apologise sincerely for being rude.   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

4.5 I will apologise for being rude, <u>sincerely</u>.   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

1.1 The boys played <u>sometimes</u> <u>outside</u> <u>happily</u> <u>yesterday</u>. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

1.2 The boys played <u>outside</u> <u>happily</u> <u>sometimes</u> <u>yesterday</u>. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

1.3 The boys played <u>happily</u> <u>outside</u> <u>sometimes</u> <u>yesterday</u>. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

1.4 The boys played <u>sometimes</u> <u>yesterday</u> <u>happily</u> <u>outside</u>. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

1.5 The boys played <u>yesterday</u> <u>sometimes</u> <u>outside</u> <u>happily</u>. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

2.1 They plan a meeting <u>at</u> <u>my</u> <u>house</u>. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

2.2 <u>At</u> <u>my</u> <u>house</u> they plan a meeting. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

2.3 They plan <u>at</u> <u>my</u> <u>house</u> a meeting. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

2.4 They <u>at</u> <u>my</u> <u>house</u> plan a meeting. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

3.1 Will you be there after lunch? ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

3.2 Will you be there after lunch? ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

3.3 Will you be there after lunch? ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

3.4 Will you be there after lunch? ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

3.5 Will you be there after lunch? ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

4.1 He <u>softly</u> pushed the button. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

4.2 <u>Softly</u> he pushed the button. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

4.3 He pushed <u>softly</u> the button. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

4.4 He pushed the button <u>softly</u>. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

1.1 He let it <u>lamely</u> hang.   □ □ □ □ □

1.2 He <u>lamely</u> let it hang.   □ □ □ □ □

1.3 He let it hang <u>lamely</u>.   □ □ □ □ □

1.4 <u>lamely</u> he let it hang.   □ □ □ □ □

1.5 He let <u>lamely</u> it hang.   □ □ □ □ □

2.1 Jim has, <u>surprisingly,</u> arrived on time.   □ □ □ □ □

2.2 <u>Surprisingly,</u> Jim has arrived on time.   □ □ □ □ □

2.3 Jim, <u>surprisingly,</u> has arrived on time.   □ □ □ □ □

2.4 Jim has arrived, <u>surprisingly,</u> on time.   □ □ □ □ □

2.5 Jim has arrived on time, <u>surprisingly</u>.   □ □ □ □ □

3.1 I do not know, honestly, what he wants.   □ □ □ □ □

3.2 I, honestly, do not know what he wants.   □ □ □ □ □

3.3 I do not, honestly, know what he wants.   □ □ □ □ □

3.4 Honestly, I do not know what he wants.   □ □ □ □ □

3.5 I do not know what he wants, honestly.   □ □ □ □ □

4.1 They followed him <u>wherever</u> <u>he</u> <u>went</u>.   □ □ □ □ □

4.2 <u>Wherever</u> <u>he</u> <u>went</u> they followed him.   □ □ □ □ □

4.3 They <u>wherever</u> <u>he</u> <u>went</u> followed him.   □ □ □ □ □

4.4 They followed <u>wherever</u> <u>he</u> <u>went</u> him.   □ □ □ □ □

1.1 I do not remember its name <u>completely</u>.   □ □ □ □ □

1.2 <u>Completely</u> I do not remember its name.   □ □ □ □ □

1.3 I <u>completely</u> do not remember its name.   □ □ □ □ □

1.4 I do not <u>completely</u> remember its name.   □ □ □ □ □

1.5 I do not remember <u>completely</u> its name.   □ □ □ □ □

2.1 I was there <u>for</u> <u>a</u> <u>day</u> <u>or</u> <u>so</u> <u>three</u> <u>times</u> during my <u>childhood</u>.☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

2.2 I was there <u>three</u> <u>times</u> <u>for</u> <u>a</u> <u>day</u> <u>or</u> <u>so</u> during my <u>childhood</u>.☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

2.3 I was there <u>during</u> <u>my</u> <u>childhood</u> <u>three</u> <u>times</u> <u>for</u> <u>a</u> <u>day</u> <u>or</u> <u>so</u>.☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

2.4 I was there <u>during</u> <u>my</u> <u>childhood</u> <u>for</u> <u>a</u> <u>day</u> <u>or</u> <u>so</u> <u>three</u> <u>times</u>.☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

2.5 <u>For</u> <u>a</u> <u>day</u> <u>or</u> <u>so</u> I was there <u>three</u> <u>times</u> during my <u>childhood</u>.☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

3.1 This matter would <u>probably</u> not have been included.   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

3.2 This matter would not <u>probably</u> have been included.   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

3.3 This matter <u>probably</u> would not have been included.   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

3.4 <u>Probably</u> this matter would not have been included.   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

3.5 This matter would not have been <u>probably</u> included.   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

3.6 This matter would not have been included <u>probably</u>.   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

4.1 He decided to treat the patient <u>surgically</u>.   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

4.2 He <u>surgically</u> decided to treat the patient.   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

4.3 <u>Surgically</u> he decided to treat the patient.   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

4.4 He decided <u>surgically</u> to treat the patient.   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

4.5 He decided to <u>surgically</u> treat the patient.   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

4.6 He decided to treat <u>surgically</u> the patient.   ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

1.1 John, <u>evidently</u>, has never chosen such a suit. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

1.2 <u>Evidently</u>, John has never chosen such a suit. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

1.3 John has, <u>evidently</u>, never chosen such a suit. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

1.4 John has never, <u>evidently</u>, chosen such a suit. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

1.5 John has never chosen such a suit, <u>evidently</u>. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

1.6 John has never chosen, <u>evidently</u>, such a suit. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

2.1 He came <u>yesterday</u> <u>on his bicycle</u>. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

2.2 He came <u>on his bicycle</u> <u>yesterday</u>. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

2.3 <u>Yesterday</u> he came <u>on his bicycle</u>. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

2.4 He <u>yesterday</u> came <u>on his bicycle</u>. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

2.5 <u>yesterday</u> <u>on his bicycle</u> he came. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

2.6 He <u>on his bicycle</u> came <u>yesterday</u>. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

3.1 I can ignore his views <u>scarcely</u>. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

3.2 I can ignore <u>scarcely</u> his views. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

3.3 I <u>scarcely</u> can ignore his views. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

3.4 I can <u>scarcely</u> ignore his views. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

3.5 <u>scarcely</u> I can ignore his views. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

4.1 <u>Permanently</u> the professor has his lunch out. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

4.2 The professor <u>permanently</u> has his lunch out. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

4.3 The professor has his lunch out <u>permanently</u>. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

4.4 The professor <u>permanently</u> has his lunch out. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

4.5 The professor has his lunch <u>permanently</u> out. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

5.1 John used to falsely believe that Paul is a thief. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

5.2 <u>Falsely</u> John used to believe that Paul is a thief. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

5.3 John <u>falsely</u> used to believe that Paul is a thief. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

5.4 John used to believe <u>falsely</u> that Paul is a thief. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

5.5 John used to believe that Paul is a thief <u>falsely</u>. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

6.1 He is <u>into</u> <u>the</u> <u>garage</u> driving his car. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

6.2 He is driving <u>into</u> <u>the</u> <u>garage</u> his car. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

6.3 <u>Into</u> <u>the</u> <u>garage</u> he is driving his car. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

6.4 He <u>into</u> <u>the</u> <u>garage</u> is driving his car. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

6.5 He is driving his car <u>into</u> <u>the</u> <u>garage</u>. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

7.1 He <u>microscopically</u> examined the specimen. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

7.2 <u>Microscopically</u> he examined the specimen. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

7.3 He examined <u>microscopically</u> the specimen. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

7.4 He examined the specimen <u>microscopically</u>. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

8.1 Bus drivers <u>happily</u> take people <u>to York once aweek on Sundays</u>. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

8.2 <u>Happily</u> bus drivers take people <u>once aweek to York on Sundays</u>. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

8.3 Bus drivers take people <u>happily</u> <u>to York once aweek on Sundays</u>. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

8.4 Bus drivers take people <u>to York happily once aweek on Sundays</u>. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

8.5 Bus drivers <u>happily</u> take people <u>once aweek on Sundays to York</u>. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

.

5.1 You should write <u>as I told you</u>.   □ □ □ □ □

5.2 You should <u>as I told you</u> write.   □ □ □ □ □

5.3 <u>as I told you</u>, you should write.   □ □ □ □ □

5.4 You <u>as I told you</u> should write.   □ □ □ □ □

6.1 I am going <u>next week</u> to meet my friend.   □ □ □ □ □

6.2 <u>next week</u> I am going to meet my friend.   □ □ □ □ □

6.3 I am going to meet my friend <u>next week</u>.   □ □ □ □ □

6.4 I am <u>next week</u> going to meet my friend.   □ □ □ □ □

7.1 Leave the room <u>kindly</u>.   □ □ □ □ □

7.2 <u>kindly</u> leave the room.   □ □ □ □ □

7.3 Leave <u>kindly</u> the room.   □ □ □ □ □

8.1 You will find <u>always</u> my teacher in that room.   □ □ □ □ □

8.2 <u>Always</u> you will find my teacher in that room.   □ □ □ □ □

8.3 You will find my teacher in that room <u>always</u>.   □ □ □ □ □

8.4 You will <u>always</u> find my teacher in that room.   □ □ □ □ □

5.1 We invite you <u>cordially</u> to our party. □ □ □ □ □

5.2 <u>Cordially</u> we invite you to our party. □ □ □ □ □

5.3 We invite <u>cordially</u> you to our party. □ □ □ □ □

5.4 We <u>cordially</u> invite you to our party. □ □ □ □ □

5.5 We invite you to our party <u>cordially</u>. □ □ □ □ □

6.1 They broke the dishes <u>as</u> <u>well</u>. □ □ □ □ □

6.2 <u>As</u> <u>well</u> they broke the dishes. □ □ □ □ □

6.3 They <u>as</u> <u>well</u> broke the dishes. □ □ □ □ □

6.4 They broke <u>as</u> <u>well</u> the dishes. □ □ □ □ □

7.1 <u>To</u> <u>our</u> <u>surprise</u> they arrived earlier. □ □ □ □ □

7.2 They arrived <u>to</u> <u>our</u> <u>surprise</u> earlier. □ □ □ □ □

7.3 They arrived earlier <u>to</u> <u>our</u> <u>surprise</u>. □ □ □ □ □

7.4 They <u>to</u> <u>our</u> <u>surprise</u> arrived earlier. □ □ □ □ □

8.1 I spend <u>in</u> <u>Leicester</u> my vacation <u>each</u> <u>Spring</u>. □ □ □ □ □

8.2 I spend my vacation <u>each</u> <u>Spring</u> <u>in</u> <u>Leicester</u>. □ □ □ □ □

8.3 I spend my vacation <u>in</u> <u>Leicester</u> <u>each</u> <u>Spring</u>. □ □ □ □ □

8.4 <u>Each</u> <u>Spring</u> <u>in</u> <u>Leicester</u> I spend my vacation. □ □ □ □ □

8.5 I spend <u>each</u> <u>Spring</u> my vacation <u>in</u> <u>Leicester</u>. □ □ □ □ □

5.1 Does Sue <u>frankly</u> know about it. □ □ □ □ □

5.2 <u>Frankly</u> does Sue know about it. □ □ □ □ □

5.3 Does Sue know <u>frankly</u> about it. □ □ □ □ □

5.4 Does Sue know about it <u>frankly</u>. □ □ □ □ □

5.5 Does <u>frankly</u> Sue know about it. □ □ □ □ □

6.1 I only like fish <u>outside</u>. □ □ □ □ □

6.2 I only <u>outside</u> like fish. □ □ □ □ □

6.3 <u>Outside</u> I only like fish. □ □ □ □ □

6.4 I only like <u>outside</u> fish. □ □ □ □ □

6.5 I <u>outside</u> only like fish. □ □ □ □ □

7.1 The boys <u>quickly</u> snatched the cake <u>evidently</u>. □ □ □ □ □

7.2 The boys <u>evidently</u> snatched the cake <u>quickly</u>. □ □ □ □ □

7.3 The boys <u>evidently</u> <u>quickly</u> snatched the cake. □ □ □ □ □

7.4 The boys <u>quickly</u> <u>evidently</u> snatched the cake. □ □ □ □ □

7.5 <u>Quickly</u> the boys snatched the cake <u>evidently</u>. □ □ □ □ □

7.6 <u>Evidently</u> the boys <u>quickly</u> snatched the cake. □ □ □ □ □

8.1 I appreciate your help <u>indeed</u>. □ □ □ □ □

8.2 <u>Indeed</u> I appreciate your help. □ □ □ □ □

8.3 I <u>indeed</u> appreciate your help. □ □ □ □ □

8.4 I appreciate <u>indeed</u> your help. □ □ □ □ □

5.1 <u>Many times</u> have you been drunk? ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

5.2 Have you <u>many times</u> been drunk? ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

5.3 Have you <u>many times</u> been drunk? ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

5.4 Have you been drunk <u>many times</u>? ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

6.1 That address, <u>undoubtedly</u>, does not suit you. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

6.2 That address does not, <u>undoubtedly</u>, suit you. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

6.3 <u>Undoubtedly</u>, that address does not suit you. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

6.4 That address does not suit you, <u>undoubtedly</u>. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

7.1 She will leave home <u>soon</u>. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

7.2 <u>Soon</u> she will leave home. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

7.3 She <u>soon</u> will leave home. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

7.4 She will <u>soon</u> leave home. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

7.5 She will leave <u>soon</u> home. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

8.1 I have never <u>personally</u> been to New York. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

8.2 I have personally never been to New York. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

8.3 I have never been to New York <u>personally</u>. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

8.4 <u>Personally</u> I have never been to New York. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

8.5 I <u>personally</u> have never been to New York. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

5.1 He may have been serving here <u>for many years</u>. □ □ □ □ □

5.2 He may <u>for many years</u> have been serving here. □ □ □ □ □

5.3 He may have <u>for many years</u> been serving here. □ □ □ □ □

5.4 He may have been <u>for many years</u> serving here. □ □ □ □ □

5.5 <u>For many years</u> he may have been serving here. □ □ □ □ □

6.1 We shall move <u>in York</u> <u>into a new house</u>. □ □ □ □ □

6.2 We shall move <u>into a new house</u> <u>in York</u>. □ □ □ □ □

6.3 <u>Into a new house</u> we shall move <u>in York</u>. □ □ □ □ □

6.4 <u>In York</u> we shall move <u>into a new house</u>. □ □ □ □ □

6.5 <u>In York</u> <u>into a new house</u> we shall move. □ □ □ □ □

7.1 He put the glasses <u>on the table</u> <u>with care</u>. □ □ □ □ □

7.2 He put the glasses <u>with care</u> <u>on the table</u>. □ □ □ □ □

7.3 <u>With care</u> he put the glasses <u>on the table</u>. □ □ □ □ □

7.4 <u>On the table</u> he put the glasses <u>with care</u>. □ □ □ □ □

7.5 <u>On the table</u> <u>with care</u> he put the glasses. □ □ □ □ □

7.6 <u>With care</u> <u>on the table</u> he put the glasses. □ □ □ □ □

8.1 He is <u>wisely</u> studying at home today. □ □ □ □ □

8.2 <u>Wisely</u> he is studying at home today. □ □ □ □ □

8.3 He is studying at home today <u>wisely</u>. □ □ □ □ □

8.4 He is studying <u>wisely</u> at home today. □ □ □ □ □

8.5 He <u>wisely</u> is studying at home today. □ □ □ □ □

5.1 <u>Today</u> I have not spoken to him. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

5.2 I have not <u>today</u> spoken to him. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

5.3 I have not spoken to him <u>today</u>. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

5.4 I <u>today</u> have not spoken to him. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

5.5 I have <u>today</u> not spoken to him. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

5.6 I have not spoken <u>today</u> to him. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

6.1 He is being a fool <u>simply</u>. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

6.2 He is being <u>simply</u> a fool. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

6.3 He is <u>simply</u> being a fool. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

6.4 He <u>simply</u> is being a fool. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

6.5 <u>Simply</u> he is being a fool. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

7.1 I believe you did it <u>deliberately</u>. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

7.2 <u>Deliberately</u> I believe you did it. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

7.3 I <u>deliberately</u> believe you did it. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

7.4 I believe <u>deliberately</u> you did it. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

7.5 I believe you <u>deliberately</u> did it. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

8.1 <u>By all means</u> carry on with your studies. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

8.2 Carry on <u>by all means</u> with your studies. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

8.3 Carry on with your studies <u>by all means</u>. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

5.1 My father was working _in the garden the whole day quietly._ ☐☐☐☐☐

5.2 My father was working _quietly the whole day in the garden._ ☐☐☐☐☐

5.3 My father was working _quietly in the garden the whole day._ ☐☐☐☐☐

5.4 My father was working _in the garden quietly the whole day._ ☐☐☐☐☐

5.5 My father was working _the whole day quietly in the garden._ ☐☐☐☐☐

6.1 Bob may not _even_ have been protesting. ☐☐☐☐☐

6.2 Bob may not have _even_ been protesting. ☐☐☐☐☐

6.3 Bob may not have been _even_ protesting. ☐☐☐☐☐

6.5 _Even_ Bob may not have been protesting. ☐☐☐☐☐

7.1 He does not _usually_ take medicine. ☐☐☐☐☐

7.2 He does not take medicine _usually_. ☐☐☐☐☐

7.3 _Usually_ he does not take medicine. ☐☐☐☐☐

7.4 He _usually_ does not take medicine. ☐☐☐☐☐

8.1 My brother has _recently_ left home. ☐☐☐☐☐

8.2 _Recently_ my brother has left home. ☐☐☐☐☐

8.3 My brother has left home _recently_. ☐☐☐☐☐

8.4 My brother _recently_ has left home. ☐☐☐☐☐

8.2 My brother has left _recently_ home. ☐☐☐☐☐

5.1 The girls are running <u>around</u> <u>upstairs</u>. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

5.2 <u>Around</u> the girls are running <u>upstairs</u>. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

5.3 The girls are running <u>upstairs</u> <u>around</u>. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

5.4 <u>Upstairs</u> <u>around</u> the girls are running. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

5.5 <u>Upstairs</u> the girls are running <u>around</u>. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

5.6 The girls are <u>upstairs</u> running <u>around.</u> ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

6.1 I <u>presently</u> will come to see you. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

6.2 I will come <u>presently</u> to see you. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

6.3 <u>Presently</u> I will come to see you. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

6.4 I will come to see you <u>presently</u>. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

6.5 I will <u>presently</u> come to see you. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

7.1 Jim <u>wisely</u> did not drop his cup. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

7.2 <u>Wisely</u> Jim did not drop his cup. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

7.3 Jim did not drop his cup <u>wisely</u>. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

7.4 Jim did not drop <u>wisely</u> his cup. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

7.5 Jim did not <u>wisely</u> drop his cup. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

8.1 I am <u>sometimes</u> jealous of somebody in my family. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

8.2 <u>Sometimes</u> I am jealous of somebody in my family. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

8.3 I <u>sometimes</u> am jealous of somebody in my family. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

8.4 I am jealous <u>sometimes</u> of somebody in my family. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

8.5 I am jealous of somebody in my family <u>sometimes</u>. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

5.1 Do you, _seriously_, intend to resign ? □ □ □ □ □

5.2 Do you intend, _seriously_, to resign ? □ □ □ □ □

5.3 Do you intend to resign, _seriously_ ? □ □ □ □ □

5.4 _Seriously_, do you intend to resign ? □ □ □ □ □

6.1 They were looking _very hard_ for a job. □ □ □ □ □

6.2 They _very hard_ were looking for a job. □ □ □ □ □

6.3 _very hard_ they were looking for a job. □ □ □ □ □

6.4 They were _very hard_ looking for a job. □ □ □ □ □

6.5 They were looking for a job _very hard_. □ □ □ □ □

7.1 He is eager to live _in Chicago_. □ □ □ □ □

7.2 _In Chicago_ he is eager to live. □ □ □ □ □

7.3 He is _in Chicago_ eager to live. □ □ □ □ □

7.4 He is eager _in Chicago_ to live. □ □ □ □ □

8.1 _Intentionally_, he did not write to them about it. □ □ □ □ □

8.2 He did not _intentionally_ write to them about it. □ □ □ □ □

8.3 He did not write _intentionally_ to them about it. □ □ □ □ □

8.4 He did not write to them about it _intentionally_. □ □ □ □ □

8.5 He _intentionally_ did not write to them about it. □ □ □ □ □

عزيزي القارئ

هذا الاستبيان جزء من بحث علمي يهدف الى تمكين الباحث من معرفة
مواقع الظروف في اللغة العربية . نشكرك على تعاونك بالاجابة على جميع

الجمل التي يتضمنها الاستبيان .

يهمنا اختيارك المباشر حيث ليس هناك خطأ أو صح في الاجابة

الاسم :
الاختصاص :
البلد :
العمر :

ضع علامة (س) في المربع الذي يمثل اختيارك المباشر . الأرقام التي فوق المربعات تمثل القيم أدناه
بالنسبة للجمل موضوعة البحث . ١= الكثر تقبلاً ٢= أقل تقبلاً ٣= نادرة الوقوع ٤= مشكوك فيها ٥= شاذة

٥ ٤ ٣ ٢ ١

١
- ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ أ. حقاً أن العلاقات بيننا في تحسن مستمر .
- ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ب. أن العلاقات حقاً بيننا في تحسن مستمر .
- ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ج. أن العلاقات بيننا حقاً في تحسن مستمر .
- ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ د. أن العلاقات بيننا في تحسن مستمر حقاً .
- ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ هـ. أن حقاً العلاقات بيننا في تحسن مستمر .

٢
- ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ أ. وصل الطيار الى المطار سالماً .
- ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ب. وصل الطيار سالماً الى المطار .
- ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ج. سالماً وصل الطيار الى المطار .
- ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ د. وصل سالماً الطيار الى المطار .

٣
- ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ أ. أشتري دائماً حاجياتي من هذا المخزن .
- ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ب. أشتري حاجياتي دائماً من هذا المخزن .
- ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ج. دائماً أشتري حاجياتي من هذا المخزن .
- ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ د. أشتري حاجياتي من هذا المخزن دائماً .

٤
- ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ أ. مزق الولد الكراس سهواً .
- ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ب. مزق الولد سهواً الكراس .
- ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ج. مزق سهواً الولد الكراس .
- ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ د. سهواً مزق الولد الكراس .

٥
- ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ أ. أعود الى البيت في الليل عادة .
- ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ب. أعود في الليل الى البيت عادة .
- ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ج. أعود عادة في الليل الى البيت .
- ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ د. عادة أعود الى البيت في الليل .
- ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ هـ. أعود الى البيت عادة في الليل .

٥ ٤ ٣ ٢ ١

١. أ. تم أخيراً الزواج بين الخطيبين .
ب. أخيراً تم الزواج بين الخطيبين .
ج. تم الزواج أخيراً بين الخطيبين .
د. تم الزواج بين الخطيبين أخيراً .

٢. أ. لم يأت الأستاذ إلى القاعة مبتسماً .
ب. مبتسماً لم يأت الأستاذ إلى القاعة .
ج. لم يأت مبتسماً الأستاذ إلى القاعة .
د. لم يأت الأستاذ مبتسماً إلى القاعة .
هـ. لم مبتسماً يأت الأستاذ إلى القاعة .

٣. أ. في الغرفة المجاورة يقرأ محمد القصة بصوت عالٍ .
ب. يقرأ محمد القصة في الغرفة المجاورة بصوت عالٍ .
ج. بصوت عالٍ يقرأ محمد القصة في الغرفة المجاورة .
د. يقرأ محمد القصة بصوت عالٍ في الغرفة المجاورة .
هـ. في الغرفة المجاورة بصوت عالٍ يقرأ محمد القصة .

٤. أ. دعوت الله سميعاً .
ب. دعوت سميعاً الله .
ج. سميعاً دعوت الله .

٥. أ. أحياناً يزور قيس بيت عمه .
ب. يزور قيس بيت عمه أحياناً .
ج. يزور أحياناً قيس بيت عمه .
د. يزور قيس أحياناً بيت عمه .
هـ. يزور قيس بيت أحياناً عمه .

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أ. أن الفتاة قد تغيرت كثيراً عجباً .
ب. أن الفتاة عجباً قد تغيرت كثيراً .
ج. عجباً أن الفتاة قد تغيرت كثيراً .
د. أن الفتاة قد تغيرت عجباً كثيراً .
هـ. أن الفتاة قد عجباً تغيرت كثيراً .

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أ. قرأت شفاء مفصلاً الكتابَ .
ب. قرأت شفاء الكتابَ مفصلاً .
ج. مفصلاً قرأت شفاء الكتابَ .
د. قرأت مفصلاً شفاء الكتابَ .

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أ. يعرف الرئيسُ خطورةَ الموقف بدقةٍ .
ب. يعرف الرئيسُ بدقةٍ خطورةَ الموقف .
ج. يعرف بدقةٍ الرئيسُ خطورةَ الموقف .
د. بدقةٍ يعرف الرئيسُ خطورةَ الموقف .

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أ. لا أتناول السكر عادةً مع الشاي .
ب. لا أتناول السكر مع الشاي عادةً .
ج. لا أتناول عادةً السكر مع الشاي .
د. عادةً لا أتناول السكر مع الشاي .
هـ. لا عادةً أتناول السكر مع الشاي .

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أ. جاءت المعلمة تضحك .
ب. تضحك جاءت المعلمة .
ج. جاءت تضحك المعلمة .

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١
أ. سوف يبدأ الرجلُ قريباً العملَ .
ب. قريباً سوف يبدأ الرجلُ العملَ .
ه. سوف قريباً يبدأ الرجلُ العملَ .
د. سوف يبدأ قريباً الرجلُ العملَ .
هـ. سوف يبدأ الرجلُ العملَ قريباً .

٢
أ. رأيت المشرفَ مرتين اليومَ .
ب. اليومَ رأيت المشرفَ مرتين .
ه. رأيت المشرفَ اليومَ مرتين .
د. مرتين رأيت المشرفَ اليومَ .
هـ. رأيت مرتين اليومَ المشرفَ .

٣
أ. بسرعةٍ كانت المعلمةُ تكتب الخطابَ .
ب. كانت المعلمةُ بسرعةٍ تكتب الخطابَ .
ه. كانت بسرعةٍ المعلمةُ تكتب الخطابَ .
د. كانت المعلمةُ تكتب الخطابَ بسرعةٍ .
هـ. كانت المعلمةُ تكتب بسرعةٍ الخطابَ .

٤
أ. دخَل المديرُ القاعةَ مسرعاً .
ب. دخَل مسرعاً المديرُ القاعةَ .
ه. مسرعاً دخل المديرُ القاعةَ .
د. دخَل المديرُ مسرعاً القاعةَ .

٥
أ. ضمّت الأمُ بنتها ضماً شديداً الى صدرها .
ب. ضمّت الأمُ بنتها الى صدرها ضماً شديداً .
ه. ضمّت ضماً شديداً الأمُ بنتها الى صدرها .
د. ضمّت الأمُ ضماً شديداً بنتها الى صدرها .
هـ. ضماً شديداً ضمّت الأمُ بنتها الى صدرها .

١. أ. هل تكلمت في المؤتمر شخصياً ؟

ب. شخصياً هل تكلمت في المؤتمر ؟

ﺟ. هل شخصياً تكلمت في المؤتمر ؟

د. هل تكلمت شخصياً في المؤتمر ؟

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٢. أ. صراحةً هل أنت راضٍ عن عملك الجديد ؟

ب. هل أنت راضٍ صراحةً عن عملك الجديد ؟

ﺟ. هل أنت راضٍ عن عملك الجديد صراحةً ؟

د. هل صراحةً أنت راضٍ عن عملك الجديد ؟

ﻫ. هل أنت صراحةً راضٍ عن عملك الجديد ؟

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٣. أ. أقرأ الدرس كاملاً .

ب. كاملاً أقرأ الدرس .

ﺟ. أقرأ كاملاً الدرس .

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٤. أ. لا أوافق مطلقاً على أقتراحك .

ب. مطلقاً لا أوافق على أقتراحك .

ﺟ. لا أوافق على أقتراحك مطلقاً .

د. لا مطلقاً أوافق على أقتراحك .

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٥. أ. أكتب واجبك بعناية .

ب. بعناية أكتب واجبك .

ﺟ. أكتب بعناية واجبك .

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١
أ. خارج البيت يجب نزار تناول السمك .

ب. يجب نزار تناول السمك خارج البيت .

ج. يجب نزار خارج البيت تناول السمك .

د. يجب نزار تناول خارج البيت السمك .

هـ. يجب خارج البيت نزار تناول السمك .

٢
أ. وضعت الأم الأقداح على الرف بحذر .

ب. وضعت الأم بحذر الأقداح على الرف .

ج. على الرف وضعت الأم الأقداح بحذر .

د. بحذر وضعت الأم الأقداح على الرف .

هـ. وضعت الأم على الرف بحذر الأقداح .

٣
أ. اذكروا الله كثيراً .

ب. كثيراً اذكروا الله .

ج. اذكروا كثيراً الله .

٤
أ. بهدوء ناقشى الموضوع .

ب. ناقشى الموضوع بهدوء .

ج. ناقشى بهدوء الموضوع .

٥
أ. هل تحب الطعام حاراً ؟

ب. هل حاراً تحب الطعام ؟

ج. حاراً هل تحب الطعام ؟

د. هل تحب حاراً الطعام ؟

٥	٤	٣	٢	١

١. م. اِشْتَغَلَ أَبِي صامِتاً طُولَ اليومِ .

ب. صامِتاً اُشْتَغَلَ أَبِي طُولَ اليومِ .

هـ. اُشْتَغَلَ أَبِي طُولَ اليومِ صامِتاً .

د. طُولَ اليومِ اُشْتَغَلَ أَبِي صامِتاً .

هـ. اُشْتَغَلَ طُولَ اليومِ صامِتاً أَبِي .

٢. م. سَمِعَ مصطفى مِن قِبَلِ الكاتِبَ .

ب. مِن قِبَلِ سَمِعَ مصطفى الكاتِبَ .

هـ. سَمِعَ مصطفى الكاتِبَ مِن قِبَلُ .

د. سَمِعَ مِن قِبَلِ مصطفى الكاتِبَ .

٣. م. يَذهبُ نبيلٌ ماشِياً الى المدرسةِ .

ب. يَذهبُ ماشِياً نبيلٌ الى المدرسةِ .

هـ. يَذهبُ نبيلٌ الى المدرسةِ ماشِياً .

د. ماشِياً يَذهبُ نبيلٌ الى المدرسةِ .

٤. م. سيغادرُ الطلابُ بعد يومينِ الى العاصمةِ .

ب. سيغادرُ الطلابُ الى العاصمةِ بعد يومينِ .

هـ. بعد يومينِ سيغادرُ الطلابُ الى العاصمةِ .

د. الى العاصمةِ سيغادرُ الطلابُ بعد يومينِ .

هـ. بعد يومينِ الى العاصمةِ سيغادرُ الطلابُ .

٥. م. عن غيرِ قَصدٍ لم تُخبرك هندُ البِشرى .

ب. لم تُخبرك عن غيرِ قَصدٍ هندُ البِشرى .

هـ. لم تُخبرك هندُ البِشرى عن غيرِ قَصدٍ .

د. لم تُخبرك هندُ عن غيرِ قَصدٍ البِشرى .

هـ. لم عن غيرِ قَصدٍ تُخبرك هندُ البِشرى .

٥	٤	٣	٢	١

١. م. شربَ الرجلُ معاً الشاي والحليب .

ب. معاً شربَ الرجلُ الشاي والحليب .

هـ. شربَ الرجلُ الشاي والحليب معاً .

د. شربَ معاً الرجلُ الشاي والحليب .

٢. م. أعتقد أن الفتاة كسرتِ الشباك محمدٌ .

ب. محمدٌ أعتقد أن الفتاة كسرتِ الشباك .

هـ. أعتقد أن الفتاة محمدٌ كسرتِ الشباك .

د. أعتقد محمدٌ أن الفتاة كسرتِ الشباك .

هـ. أعتقد أن الفتاة كسرتِ محمدٌ الشباك .

٣. م. سعيداً هل عاشَ حسن ؟

ب. هل عاشَ حسن سعيداً ؟

هـ. هل سعيداً عاشَ حسن ؟

د. هل عاشَ سعيداً حسن ؟

٤. م. سافر المراسلون الى الجنوب اليوم في الصباح .

ب. سافر المراسلون الى الجنوب في الصباح اليوم .

هـ. اليوم سافر المراسلون الى الجنوب في الصباح .

د. في الصباح سافر المراسلون الى الجنوب اليوم .

هـ. سافر المراسلون في الصباح الى الجنوب اليوم .

٥. م. واضحةٌ أعجبني شكل النجوم .

ب. أعجبني واضحةً شكل النجوم .

هـ. أعجبني شكل النجوم واضحةً .

د. أعجبني شكل واضحةٌ النجوم .

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م١. هل كتب بعنايةٍ زيدٌ الرسالةَ؟
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
ب. هل كتب زيدٌ بعنايةٍ الرسالةَ؟
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
ج. هل كتب زيدٌ الرسالةَ بعنايةٍ؟
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
د. بعنايةٍ هل كتب زيدٌ الرسالةَ؟
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
هـ. هل بعنايةٍ كتب زيدٌ الرسالةَ؟

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

م٢. أرأيتَ هذا المعلم ضاحكاً في الصف؟
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
ب. أرأيت ضاحكاً هذا المعلم في الصف؟
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
ج. أرأيت هذا المعلم في الصف ضاحكاً؟
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
د. ضاحكاً أرأيت هذا المعلم في الصف؟

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م٣. تعلم عماد فن النحت في مدرسة الفن بروما
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
ب. تعلم عماد فن النحت بروما في مدرسة الفن
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
هـ. بروما تعلم عمادُ فن النحت في مدرسة الفن
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
د. في مدرسة الفن تعلم عماد فن النحت بروما
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
هـ. تعلم في مدرسة الفن بروما عماد فن النحت

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

م٤. اليومَ هل سيفتتح المعرضُ؟
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
ب. هل اليومَ سيفتتح المعرضُ؟
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
هـ. هل سيفتتح المعرضُ اليومَ؟
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
د. هل سيفتتح اليومَ المعرضُ؟

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

م٥. لم ينجز الرجلُ العملَ بأتقانٍ.
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
ب. لم ينجز بأتقان الرجلُ العملَ.
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
هـ. لم ينجز الرجلُ بأتقان العملَ.
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
د. بأتقان لم ينجز الرجلُ العملَ.
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
هـ. لم بأتقانٍ ينجز الرجلُ العملَ.

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١. أ. جرى الأرنبُ سريعاً .

ب. سريعاً جرى الأرنبُ .

هـ. جرى سريعاً الأرنبُ .

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٢. أ. راكضةً هل جاءت الطالبةُ الى المدرسةَ ؟

ب. هل جاءت راكضةً الطالبةُ الى المدرسةَ ؟

هـ. هل جاءت الطالبةُ راكضةً الى المدرسةَ ؟

د. هل راكضةً جاءت الطالبةُ الى المدرسةَ ؟

هـ هل جاءت الطالبةُ الى المدرسةَ راكضةً ؟

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٣. أ. أتحب فعلاً العملَ في هذه المدينةِ ؟

ب. أتحب العملَ في هذه المدينةِ فعلاً ؟

هـ. فعلاً أتحب العملَ في هذه المدينةِ ؟

د. أتحب العملَ فعلاً في هذه المدينةِ ؟

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٤. أ. تكلم مع الناسِ هادئاً .

ب. هادئاً تكلم مع الناسِ .

هـ. تكلم هادئاً مع الناسِ .

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٥. أ. يزرع الفلاح أشجار الزيتون مرةً كل عامٍ في بستانه .

ب. يزرع الفلاح أشجار الزيتون في بستانه مرةً كل عامٍ .

هـ. في بستانه يزرع الفلاح أشجار الزيتون مرةً كل عامٍ .

د. مرةً كل عامٍ يزرع الفلاح أشجار الزيتون في بستانه .

هـ. يزرع الفلاح في بستانه مرةً كل عامٍ أشجار الزيتون .

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(44) ... He <u>recently</u> told doctors and the rapists at
the Bristol Cancer Help centre the results of
initial research which he has ....

G 3/3/1988; 21/6

(45) The Queen's private secretary <u>normally</u> stays at
Craigowan. DMr 2/3/1988; 2/1

(46) We are <u>obviously</u> very worried about Peter, but we
have confidence in Oxfam which is doing all it can
establish his whereabouts. DMr 5/3/1988; 2/1

(47) The reason it was all hidden away may be that his
son, later the sixth earl, lost a court case which
would <u>normally</u> have entitled him to half the
Tutankhamon hoard. DM 8/3/1988; 6/3

(48) This is a valuation which, <u>paradoxically</u>, appears
to suit the Irish just fine. G 5/3/1988; 15/4

This variation in position does not entail a discernible
change in the sentence meaning. Thus, it is often noted that
(49a) is likely to be interpreted as synonymous with (49c)
while clearly nonsynonmous with (49b)

(49a) <u>Happily</u>, Jane arrived on time

(49b) Jane arrived on time <u>happily</u>

(49c) Jane arrived on time, <u>happily</u>

In (49b) <u>happily</u> should be viewed as a VMA indicating how Jane
arrived on time; but (49a ; 49c) represent some kind of
positive evaluation (by the speaker) of the fact that Jane
arrived on time. Generally, postverbal position of -ly
adverbials is ruled out for SMAs unless preceded by a comma.
This type of adverbial behaves slightly differently at medial
position where a compound auxiliary is present. They may
appear before or after the first auxiliary irrespective of
whether it is stressed or not.

(50) A lot of sides <u>recently</u> have threatened to bring
them down...Portsmouth, Watford, now us.

DM 7/3/1988; 23/2