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MODERN ENGLISH ADVERBS AND THEIR UZBEK EQUIVALENTS.

5220100 - филология (инглиз тили) таълим йўналиши бўйича бакалавр
даражасини олиш учун

БИТИРУВ МАЛАКАВИЙ ИШИ

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Тошкент – 2015

Yo'ldosheva Odina Shukhrat qizi

English Second Faculty group 408 B

MODERN ENGLISH ADVERBS AND THEIR UZBEK EQUIVALENTS.

5220100 – Philology (The English language) for granting

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QUALIFICATION   PAPER

"THE QUALIFICATION IS ADMITTED TO DEFENCE"
The head of the English Stylistics
Department associate
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INTRODUCTION

In order to ensure the implementation of the National staff training model, radial reforming of the current system there has been developed and is being implemented the National staff training program. Oliy Mazhilis (Parliament) of the Republic of Uzbekistan approved of this Program in August 29, 1997 as a Law. Mention should be made that this model is a unique one. International practice does not know similar models. Analysis of the experience in training system reforming that has been accumulated by developed democratic countries, makes it possible to come to the following conclusion: transformations have been done, as a rule, only in education system.

Practically speaking, other stakeholders – an individual, governmental and non-governmental institutions, production sector and science - have not been involved into the staff training and utilization process. Moreover, the reforms carried out had neither adequate width nor depth or scientific validity. The state and society have not been initiators and guarantors of these reforms.

The essence and the peculiarity of the National staff training model is its system integrity. The basic components of this system are - individual, state and society, continuous education, science and production.

Individual – is the key subject and object of the staff training system, the user and manufacturer of educational services;

State and society – are guarantors of staff training and utilization; they are carrying out regulation and control over the system of education and staff training;

Continuous education – is the basis for training qualified and competitive staff. It covers all types of education, public educational standards, structure and performance environment;

Science – is a producer and user of highly qualified specialists, designer of advanced pedagogic and information technologies;

Production – is the key client that determines the staffing needs, as well as the staff quality and competence level requirements. Production is a co-financier and co-supplier of staff training system.

In line with Article 3 of the Law "On Education" education is proclaimed to be a priority sphere of social development in the Republic of Uzbekistan aimed to meet economic, social, scientific-technical and cultural needs of an individual, society and state.

Basic **principles of state policy** in the field of education are:

Humanistic, democratic character of education and upbringing;

Education continuity and succession;

Higher education

It is based on secondary special or vocational education and has two stages or programs: Bachelor of Science and Master of Science Programs.

Students are admitted to higher schools on the basis of grants or on a fee paid contractual basis.

Bachelor of Science Program - is basic tertiary education with fundamental and applied knowledge in chosen specialties. The length of education is not less than four years.

On completing this program the graduates go through state attestation and based on its results they are awarded the degree of a "Bachelor of Science" in the chosen field and the state standard diploma. This diploma gives them the right to carry out professional activity.

Master of Science Program – higher education giving fundamental and applied knowledge in specific specialty. The length of education is not less than two years if it is based on Bachelor of Science Program.

Again, at the end of this Program the State Attestation Committee makes a decision on awarding the Master's degree. Masters of Science get state standard diplomas, and alongside with them they get the right to carry out professional activity.

Post-graduate education is meant to meet the needs of the society in highly qualified scientific and pedagogic staff, to satisfy creative educational-vocational interests of an individual.

Students can get post-graduate education in higher schools and scientific-research institutions (post-graduate courses, Doctor of Sciences programs), post-graduate studentship. Candidate of Sciences and Doctor of Sciences programs are topped by the thesis defense. Based on the results of final attestation graduates are awarded degrees of a Candidate of Sciences or that of a Doctor of Sciences accordingly and diplomas of state standard.

Due to this decree we have been studying at the University to get the higher level of education.

The subject of this qualification paper is to study English and Uzbek adverbs, its types, degrees of comparison and its functions in the sentence.

The object of this qualification paper is an English and Uzbek adverb, its types, degrees of comparison and its functions in the sentence.

The actuality of the qualification paper is that adverb as the subject of investigation plays the great role in the English grammar.

The novelty of the qualification paper is to define by the concrete results of investigation. Special emphasize is laid on the grammatical categories of adverbs.

The aim of the qualification paper is to study Adverb as a part of speech, its grammatical categories and its formation in the English and Uzbek languages.

According to the aim we put forward **the following tasks.** They are:

- to study grammar in the systemic conception of language;

- to study adverbs as a part of speech;

- to study grammatical categories in adverbs;

- to study order of adverbs.

The theoretical importance of the qualification paper is that the theoretical positions of this paper can be used in delivering lectures on theoretical Grammar.

The practical importance of the qualification paper is that the illustrated examples in each chapter can be used in practical lessons, seminars on theoretical Grammar and as well as during the practical lessons on this discipline.

The structure of the qualification paper. This qualification paper consists of Introduction, three Chapters, Conclusion, and the list of the used literature.

The sources of the qualification paper. We used many theoretical books to do our qualification work, such as: « Modern English language» (Theoretical course grammar) V.N. Zhigadlo, I.P. Ivanova, L.L. Moscow, 1956 y., Baker, Mark. 2005. Lexical Categories - Verbs, nouns and adverbs. Cambridge University Press, etc. Then we looked through the "Warren, Beatrice. (1984). Classifying adverbs. Gothenburg studies in English" to know their theories and thoughts about adverbs as a part of speech.

CHAPTER ONE. GRAMMAR AS A SCIENCE
1.1.GENERAL NOTES ON LINGUISTICS

Linguistics - the study of language in all its aspects - has been a central activity of SIL since its beginning. Besides the intrinsic value of understanding the intricate complexity of human language in general, whether spoken orsigned, the study of a particular individual language serves also as a tool used in language development projects of different kinds such as:

- dictionary production
- orthography development
- literacy
- translation
- language documentation

SIL workers living in a language community for any extended period of time generally learn that language, aided by the tools of linguistics. Language is intimately tied to society and culture, and the study of linguistics with respect to these constitutes another important aspect of understanding language[1].

There is a system of rules (known as grammar) which govern the communication between members of a particular speech community. Grammar is influenced by both sound and meaning, and includes morphology (the formation and composition of words), syntax (the formation and composition of phrases and sentences from these words), and phonology (sound systems[2]). Through corpus linguistics, large chunks of text can be analysed for possible occurrences of certain linguistic features, and for stylistic patterns within a written or spoken discourse[3].

The study of such cultural discourses and dialects is the domain of sociolinguistics, which looks at the relation between linguistic variation and social structures, as well as that of discourse analysis, which involves the structure of texts

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[1] **http://www.sil.org/linguistics**
[2] Adrian Akmajian, Richard A. Demers, Ann K. Farmer, Robert M. Harnish (2010). *Linguistics* (6th ed.). The MIT Press. ISBN 0-262-51370-6. Retrieved 25 July 2012.
[3] "Stylistics" by Joybrato Mukherjee. Chapter 49. *Encyclopedia of Linguistics.*

and conversations[4]. Research on language through historical and evolutionary linguistics focuses on how languages change, and the origin and growth of languages, particularly over an extended period of time.

During the 20th century, Ferdinand de Saussure distinguished between the notions of langue and parole in his formulation of structural linguistics. According to him, parole is the specific utterance of speech, whereas langue refers to an abstract phenomenon that theoretically defines the principles and system of rules that govern a language[5]. In classical Indian philosophy of language, Patanjali distinguished between sphota (meaning) and *dhvani* (sound) in the creation of shabda, which literally means "spoken word".

Katyayana, another Indian philosopher, further distinguished between shabda (utterance) and *artha* (meaning). In modern-day theoretical linguistics, Noam Chomsky distinguishes between the notions of competence and performance, where competence is the inherent capacity for language, while performance is the specific way in which it is used[6].

Traditionally, speech, or shabda, has thus been assigned the role of the central *signifier* in language, with writing being seen only as its reflection. But in his 1967 book, *Of Grammatology*, Jacques Derrida critiqued this arbitrary distinction between speech and writing, and emphasised on how written symbols are also legitimate signifiers in themselves[7].

The study of grammar led to fields like psycholinguistics, which explores the representation and function of language in the mind; neurolinguistics, which studies language processing in the brain; and language acquisition, which investigates how children and adults acquire a particular language. During the 1970s and 1980s, research developments also took shape in the field of cognitive linguistics through theorists such as George Lakoff, who view language as a

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[4] Raymond Mougeon and Terry Nadasdi (1998). Sociolinguistic Discontinuity in Minority Language Communities *pp. 40-55*. Linguistic Society of America.
[5] de Saussure, F. (1986). Course in general linguistics (3rd ed.). (R. Harris, Trans.). Chicago: Open Court Publishing Company. (Original work published 1972). p. 9-10, 15.
[6] Chomsky, Noam. (1965). *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
[7] Jacques Derrida (Author) and Gayatri Chakravarti Spivak (Translator) (1967 and 1976). Of Grammatalogy. The Johns Hopkins University Press. ISBN 0801858305.

conceptual function of the mind, as opposed to a pre-defined grammatical template.

Language is also influenced by social, cultural, historical and political factors, and linguistics can be applied to semiotics, for instance, which is the general study of signs and symbols both within language and without. Literary critics study the use of language in literature. Translation entails the conversion of a text from one language to another. Speech language pathologists work on corrective measures to remove communication disorders largely at the phonetic level, employing a combination of cognitive and phonological devices.

Language documentation combines anthropological inquiry with linguistic inquiry to describe languages and their grammars. Lexicographers map vocabularies in languages to write dictionaries and encyclopedias and edit other such educational material for publishing houses. In the age of digital technology, linguists, translators, and lexicographers work on computer language to facilitate and create web entities and digital dictionaries on both mobile as well as desktop machines, and create software through technical and human language that enables a large number of social functions, from designing to even machine-based translation itself. Actual knowledge of a language can be applied in the teaching of it as a second or foreign language. Research experiments in linguistics have in the recent years, seen communities of linguists build new constructed

languages like Esperanto, to test the theories of language in an abstract and artificial setting. Policy makers work with the government to implement new plans in education and teaching which are based on certain linguistic factors.

Before the 20th century, the term *philology*, first attested in 1716[8], was commonly used to refer to the science of language, which was then predominantly historical in focus[9][10]. Since Ferdinand de Saussure's insistence on the importance

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[8] Online Etymological Dictionary Definition of *Philology*
[9] JSTOR preview: *Introduction: Philology in a Manuscript Culture* by Stephen G. Nichols.
[10] McMahon, A. M. S. (1994). *Understanding Language Change*. Cambridge University Press. p. 19. ISBN 0-521-44665-1.

of synchronic analysis, however, this focus has shifted[11] and the term "philology" is now generally used for the "study of a language's grammar, history, and literary tradition", especially in the United States[12] (where philology has never been very popularly considered as the "science of language[13]").

Although the term "linguist" in the sense of "a student of language" dates from 1641, the term "linguistics" is first attested in 1847[14]. It is now the common academic term in English for the scientific study of language.

Today, the term *linguist* applies to someone who studies language or is a researcher within the field, or to someone who uses the tools of the discipline to describe and analyze specific languages[15].

While some theories on linguistics focus on the different varieties that language produces, among different sections of society, others focus on the universal properties that are common to all given languages at one given time on the planet. The theory of variation therefore would elaborate on the different usages of popular languages like French and English across the globe, as well as its smaller dialects and regional permutations within their national boundaries. The theory of variation looks at the cultural stages that a particular language undergoes, and these include the following.

The first stage is pidgin, or that phase in the creation of a language's variation when new, non-native speakers undertake a mainstream language and use its phrases and words in a broken manner that often attempts to be overly literal in meaning. At this junction, many of the linguistic characteristics of the native speakers' own language or mother tongue influence their use of the mainstream language, and that is when it arrives at the latter stage of being called a creole. Creoles are dialects or languages that have been nativised after synthesizing two

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[11] McMahon, A. M. S. (1994). *Understanding Language Change*. Cambridge University Press. p. 9. ISBN 0-521-44665-1.
[12] A. Morpurgo Davies Hist. Linguistics (1998) 4 I. 22.
[13] Online Etymological Dictionary of *Philology*
[14] Online Etymological Dictionary Definition of *Linguist*
[15] "Linguist". *The American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language*. Houghton Mifflin Harcourt. 2000. ISBN 978-0-395-82517-4.

parent languages, because there are people who grow up speaking a language when it is at that stage.

For instance, when a Chinese speaker just begins to speak English, he or she will at first use English at the level of a pidgin language: broken words, lack of grammatical form and structure, and weak or negligible vocabulary. Once the Chinese speaker begins to learn English and use it to its full capacity, the generations that follow and learn the language will become a variety of English, and this variety may be referred to as a creole language. "Chinese English" (as opposed to British English or American English, which have a longer history as varieties), is therefore a creole. Hence, this process in the creation of dialects and varieties of languages as globally popular as English and French, as well as others like Spanish, for instance, is one that is rooted in the changing evolution and growth of each language. These variating factors are studied in order to understand the different usages and dialects that a language develops over time. Some of the recent research done in this arena includes David Crystal's analysis of the use of English, as well as his study of changing trends in language usage on the Internet, through his formulation of a new field of study that has been titled Internet linguistics[16].

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[16] Homepage of Professor David Crystal

1.2. GRAMMAR IN THE SCIENCE OF LINGUISTICS

In linguistics, **grammar** is the set of structural rules governing the composition of clauses, phrases, and words in any given natural language. The term refers also to the study of such rules, and this field includes morphology, syntax, and phonology, often complemented by phonetics, semantics, and pragmatics.

The term *grammar* is often used by non-linguists with a very broad meaning. As Jeremy Butterfield puts it, "Grammar is often a generic way of referring to any aspect of English that people object to[17]." However, linguists use it in a much more specific sense. Speakers of a language have in their heads a set of rules[18] for using that language. This is a grammar, and the vast majority of the information in it is acquired—at least in the case of one's native language—not by conscious study or instruction, but by observing other speakers; much of this work is done during infancy. Learning a language later in life usually involves a greater degree of explicit instruction[19].

The term "grammar" can also be used to describe the rules that govern the linguistic behaviour of a group of speakers. The term "English grammar", therefore, may have several meanings. It may refer to the whole of English grammar—that is, to the grammars of all the speakers of the language—in which case, the term encompasses a great deal of variation[20]. Alternatively, it may refer only to what is common to the grammars of all, or of the vast majority of English speakers (such as subject–verb–object word order in simple declarative sentences). Or it may refer to the rules of a particular, relatively well-defined variety of English (such as Standard English).

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[17] Jeremy Butterfield, (2008) *Damp Squid: The English Language Laid Bare*, Oxford University Press, Oxford. 978-0-19-923906. p. 142.

[18] Traditionally, the mental information used to produce and process linguistic utterances is referred to as "rules." However, other frameworks employ different terminology, with theoretical implications. Optimality theory, for example, talks in terms of "constraints", while Construction grammar, Cognitive grammar, and other "usage-based" theories make reference to patterns, constructions, and "schemata"

[19] O'Grady, William; Dobrovolsky, Michael; Katamba, Francis (1996).*Contemporary Linguistics: An Introduction*. Harlow, Essex: Longman. pp. 4–7; 464–539. ISBN 9780582246911.

[20] Holmes, Janet (2001). *An Introduction to Sociolinguistics* (second ed.). Harlow, Essex: Longman. pp. 73–94. ISBN 9780582328617.; for more discussion of sets of grammars as populations, see: Croft, William (2000).*Explaining Language Change: An Evolutionary Approach*. Harlow, Essex: Longman. pp. 13–20. ISBN 9780582356771.

"An English grammar" is a specific description, study or analysis of such rules. A reference book describing the grammar of a language is called a "reference grammar" or simply "a grammar". A fully explicit grammar that exhaustively describes the grammatical constructions of a language is called a descriptive grammar. This kind oflinguistic description contrasts with linguistic prescription, an attempt to discourage or suppress some grammatical constructions, while promoting others. For example,preposition stranding occurs widely in Germanic languages and has a long history in English. John Dryden, however, objected to it (without explanation)[21], leading other English speakers to avoid the construction and discourage its use[22].

The word *grammar* is derived from Greek γραμματικὴ τέχνη (*grammatikē technē*), which means "art of letters", from γράμμα (*gramma*), "letter", itself from γράφειν(*graphein*), "to draw, to write[23]".

The first systematic grammars originated in Iron Age India, with Yaska (6th century BC), Pāṇini (4th century BC) and his commentators Pingala (c. 200 BC), Katyayana, and Patanjali (2nd century BC). In the West, grammar emerged as a discipline in Hellenism from the 3rd century BC forward with authors like Rhyanus and Aristarchus of Samothrace, the oldest extant work being the *Art of Grammar* (Τέχνη Γραμματική), attributed to Dionysius Thrax (c. 100 BC). Latin grammar developed by following Greek models from the 1st century BC, due to the work of authors such as Orbilius Pupillus, Remmius Palaemon, Marcus Valerius Probus, Verrius Flaccus, and Aemilius Asper.
Tolkāppiyam is the earliest Tamil grammar; it has been dated variously between 3rd century BC and 3rd century CE.
A grammar of Irish originated in the 7th century with the Auraicept na n-Éces.

[21] Rodney Huddleston and Geoffrey K. Pullum, 2002, The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language. Cambridge (UK): Cambridge University Press, p. 627f.
[22] Lundin, Leigh (2007-09-23). "The Power of Prepositions". *On Writing*. Cairo: Criminal Brief.
[23] Harper, Douglas. "Grammar". *Online Etymological Dictionary*. Retrieved 8 April 2010

Arabic grammar emerged with Abu al-Aswad al-Du'ali from the 7th century, who was taught the discipline by Ali ibn Abi Talib, the fourth historical caliph of Islam and first Imam for Shi'i Muslims.

The first treatises on Hebrew grammar appeared in the High Middle Ages, in the context of Mishnah (exegesis of the Hebrew Bible). The Karaite tradition originated in Abbasid Baghdad. The *Diqduq* (10th century) is one of the earliest grammatical commentaries on the Hebrew Bible[24]. Ibn Barun in the 12th century compares the Hebrew language with Arabic in the Islamic grammatical tradition[25]. Belonging to the *trivium* of the seven liberal arts, grammar was taught as a core discipline throughout the Middle Ages, following the influence of authors from Late Antiquity, such as Priscian. Treatment of vernaculars began gradually during the High Middle Ages, with isolated works such as the First Grammatical Treatise, but became influential only in the Renaissance and Baroque periods. In 1486, Antonio de Nebrija published *Las introduciones Latinas contrapuesto el romance al Latin*, and the first Spanish grammar, *Gramática de la lengua castellana*, in 1492. During the 16th-century Italian Renaissance, the *Questione della lingua* was the discussion on the status and ideal form of the Italian language, initiated by Dante's *de vulgari eloquentia* (Pietro Bembo, *Prose della volgar lingua* Venice 1525). The first grammar of Slovene language was written in 1584 by Adam Bohorič.

Grammars of non-European languages began to be compiled for the purposes of evangelization and Bible translation from the 16th century onward, such as *Grammatica o Arte de la Lengua General de los Indios de los Reynos del Perú* (1560), and a Quechua grammar by Fray Domingo de Santo Tomás.

In 1643 there appeared Ivan Uzhevych's *Grammatica sclavonica* and, in 1762, the *Short Introduction to English Grammar* of Robert Lowth was also published. The*Grammatisch-Kritisches Wörterbuch der hochdeutschen Mundart*, a High German grammar in five volumes by Johann Christoph Adelung, appeared as early as 1774.

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[24] Pinchas Wechter, Ibn Barūn's Arabic Works on Hebrew Grammar and Lexicography (1964)
[25] Pinchas Wechter, Ibn Barūn's Arabic Works on Hebrew Grammar and Lexicography (1964)

From the latter part of the 18th century, grammar came to be understood as a subfield of the emerging discipline of modern linguistics. The Serbian grammar by Vuk Stefanović Karadžić arrived in 1814, while the *Deutsche Grammatik* of the Brothers Grimm was first published in 1818. The *Comparative Grammar* of Franz Bopp, the starting point of modern comparative linguistics, came out in 1833.

Grammars evolve through usage and also due to separations of the human population. With the advent of written representations, formal rules about language usage tend to appear also. **Formal grammars** are codifications of usage that are developed by repeated documentation over time, and by observation as well. As the rules become established and developed, the prescriptive concept of grammatical correctness can arise. This often creates a discrepancy between contemporary usage and that which has been accepted, over time, as being correct. Linguists tend to view prescriptive grammars as having little justification beyond their authors' aesthetic tastes, although style guides may give useful advice about *standard language employment*, based on descriptions of usage in contemporary writings of the same language. **Linguistic prescriptions** also form part of the explanation for variation in speech, particularly variation in the speech of an individual speaker (an explanation, for example, for why some people say "I didn't do nothing", some say "I didn't do anything", and some say one or the other depending on social context).

The formal study of grammar is an important part of education for children from a young age through advanced learning, though the rules taught in schools are not a "grammar" in the sense most linguists use the term, particularly as they are often prescriptive rather than descriptive.

Constructed languages (also called *planned languages* or *conlangs*) are more common in the modern day. Many have been designed to aid human communication (for example, naturalistic Interlingua, schematic Esperanto,

and the highly logic-compatible artificial language Lojban). Each of these languages has its own grammar.

Syntax refers to linguistic structure above the word level (e.g. how sentences are formed)—though without taking into account intonation, which is the domain of phonology. Morphology, by contrast, refers to structure at and below the word level (e.g. how compound words are formed), but above the level of individual sounds, which, like intonation, are in the domain of phonology[26]. No clear line can be drawn, however, between syntax and morphology. Analytic languages use syntax to convey information that is encoded via inflection in synthetic languages. In other words, word order is not significant and morphology is highly significant in a purely synthetic language, whereas morphology is not significant and syntax is highly significant in an analytic language. Chinese and Afrikaans, for example, are highly analytic, and meaning is therefore very context-dependent. (Both do have some inflections, and have had more in the past; thus, they are becoming even less synthetic and more "purely" analytic over time.)

Latin, which is highly synthetic, uses affixes and inflections to convey the same information that Chinese does with syntax. Because Latin words are quite (though not completely) self-contained, an intelligible Latin sentence can be made from elements that are placed in a largely arbitrary order. Latin has a complex affixation and simple syntax, while Chinese has the opposite.

Various "grammar frameworks" have been developed in theoretical linguistics since the mid-20th century, in particular under the influence of the idea of a "universal grammar" in the United States. Of these, the main divisions are:

- Transformational grammar (TG)

- Systemic functional grammar (SFG)

- Principles and Parameters Theory (P&P)

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[26] Gussenhoven, Carlos; Jacobs, Haike (2005). *Understanding Phonology*(second ed.). London: Hodder Arnoldd. ISBN 9780340807354.

- Lexical-functional Grammar (LFG)

- Generalized Phrase Structure Grammar (GPSG)

- Head-Driven Phrase Structure Grammar (HPSG)

- Dependency grammars (DG)

- Role and reference grammar (RRG)

Prescriptive grammar is taught in primary school (elementary school). The term "grammar school" historically refers to a school teaching Latin grammar to future Roman citizens, orators, and, later, Catholic priests. In its earliest form, "grammar school" referred to a school that taught students to read, scan, interpret, and declaim Greek and Latin poets (including Homer, Virgil, Euripides, Ennius, and others). These should not be confused with the related, albeit distinct, modern British grammar schools.

A standard language is a particular dialect of a language that is promoted above other dialects in writing, education, and broadly speaking in the public sphere; it contrasts with vernacular dialects, which may be the objects of study in descriptive grammar but which are rarely taught prescriptively. The standardized "first language" taught in primary education may be subject to political controversy, because it establishes a standard defining nationality or ethnicity.

Recently, efforts have begun to update grammar instruction in primary and secondary education. The primary focus has been to prevent the use of outdated prescriptive rules in favor of more accurate descriptive ones and to change perceptions about relative "correctness" of standard forms in comparison to non standard dialects.

The pre-eminence of Parisian French has reigned largely unchallenged throughout the history of modern French literature. Standard Italian is not based on the speech of the capital, Rome, but on the speech of Florence because of the influence Florentines had on early Italian literature. Similarly, standard Spanish is not based on the speech of Madrid, but on the one of educated speakers from more northerly areas like Castile and León. In Argentina and Uruguay the Spanish standard is

based on the local dialects of Buenos Aires and Montevideo (Rioplatense Spanish). Portuguese has for now two official written standards, respectively Brazilian Portuguese and European Portuguese, but in a short term it will have a unified orthography[27].

The Serbian language is divided in a similar way; Serbia and the Republika Srpska use their own separate standards. The existence of a third standard is a matter of controversy, some consider Montenegrin as a separate language, and some think it's merely another variety of Serbian.

Norwegian has two standards, *Bokmål* and *Nynorsk*, the choice between which is subject to controversy: Each Norwegian municipality can declare one of the two its official language, or it can remain "language neutral". Nynorsk is endorsed by a minority of 27 percent of the municipalities. The main language used in primary schools normally follows the official language of its municipality, and is decided by referendum within the local school district. Standard German emerged from the standardized chancellery use of High German in the 16th and 17th centuries. Until about 1800, it was almost entirely a written language, but now it is so widely spoken that most of the former German dialects are nearly extinct.

Standard Chinese has official status as the standard spoken form of the Chinese language in the People's Republic of China (PRC), the Republic of China (ROC) and the Republic of Singapore. Pronunciation of Standard Chinese is based on the Beijing dialect of Mandarin Chinese, while grammar and syntax are based on modern vernacular written Chinese. Modern Standard Arabic is directly based on Classical Arabic, the language of the Qur'an. The Hindustani language has two standards, Hindiand Urdu.

In the United States, the Society for the Promotion of Good Grammar designated March 4 as National Grammar Day in 2008[28][29].

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[27] http://www.languagesandnumbers.com/how-to-count-in-portuguese-brazil/en/por-bra/
[28] National Grammar Day American Academic Press, The (ed.). William Strunk, Jr., et al. *The Cla*
[29] **http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Grammar**

grammar (noun): the structure and system of a language, or of languages in general, usually considered to consist of syntax and morphology[30].

Grammar is the system of a language. People sometimes describe grammar as the "rules" of a language; but in fact no language has rules*. If we use the word "rules", we suggest that somebody created the rules first and then spoke the language, like a new game. But languages did not start like that. Languages started by people making sounds which evolved into words, phrases and sentences. No commonly-spoken language is fixed. All languages change over time. What we call "grammar" is simply a reflection of a language at a particular time.

Do we need to study grammar to learn a language? The short answer is "no". Very many people in the world speak their own, native language without having studied its grammar. Children start to speak before they even know the word "grammar". But if you are serious about learning a foreign language, the long answer is "yes, grammar can help you to learn a language more quickly and more efficiently." It's important to think of grammar as something that can help you, like a friend. When you understand the grammar (or system) of a language, you can understand many things yourself, without having to ask a teacher or look in a book.

So think of grammar as something good, something positive, something that you can use to find your way - like a signpost or a map.

* Except invented languages like Esperanto. And if Esperanto were widely spoken, its rules would soon be very different[31].

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[30] **http://www.englishclub.com/grammar/**
[31] http://www.englishclub.com/grammar/grammar-what.htm

CHAPTER TWO.PROBLEM OF PARTS OF SPEECH
2.1.THEORETICAL BASIS ON PARTS OF SPEECH

In grammar, a **part of speech** (also a **word class**, a **lexical class**, or a **lexical category**) is a linguistic category of words (or more precisely *lexical items*), which is generally defined by the syntactic or morphological behaviour of the lexical item in question. Common linguistic categories include *noun* and *verb*, among others. There areopen word classes, which constantly acquire new members, and closed word classes, which acquire new members infrequently if at all.

Almost all languages have the lexical categories noun and verb, but beyond these there are significant variations in different languages[32]. For example, Japanese has as many as three classes of adjectives where English has one; Chinese, Korean and Japanese have nominal classifiers whereas European languages do not; many languages do not have a distinction between adjectives and adverbs, adjectives and verbs or adjectives and nouns, etc. This variation in the number of categories and their identifying properties entails that analysis be done for each individual language. Nevertheless the labels for each category are assigned on the basis of universal criteria[33].

Since the Greek grammar of 2nd century BC, parts of speech have been defined by morphological, syntactic and semantic criteria. However, there is currently no generally agreed-upon classification scheme that can apply to all languages, or even a set of criteria upon which such a scheme should be based.

Linguists recognize that the above list of eight word classes is drastically simplified and artificial[34]. For example, "adverb" is to some extent a catch-all class that includes words with many different functions. Some have even argued that the

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[32] Kroeger, Paul (2005). *Analyzing Grammar: An Introduction*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. p. 35. ISBN 978-0-521-01653-7.

[33] Kroeger, Paul (2005). *Analyzing Grammar: An Introduction*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. p. 35. ISBN 978-0-521-01653-7.

[34] Zwicky, Arnold (30 March 2006). "What part of speech is "the"". *Language Log*. Retrieved 26 December 2009. "...the school tradition about parts of speech is so desperately impoverished"

most basic of category distinctions, that of nouns and verbs, is unfounded[35], or not applicable to certain languages[36].

English words have been traditionally classified into eight lexical categories, or parts of speech (and are still done so in most dictionaries):

Noun

any abstract or concrete entity; a person (*police officer*,*Michael*), place (*coastline*, *London*), thing (*necktie*,*television*), idea (*happiness*), or quality (*bravery*)

Pronoun

any substitute for a noun or noun phrase

Adjective

any qualifier of a noun

Verb

any action (*walk*), occurrence (*happen*), or state of being (*be*)

Adverb

any qualifier of an adjective, verb, clause, sentence, or other adverb

Preposition

any establisher of relation and syntactic context

Conjunction

any syntactic connector

Interjection

any emotional greeting (or "exclamation")

Although these are the traditional eight English parts of speech, modern linguists have been able to classify English words into even more specific categories and subcategories based on function.

The four main parts of speech in English, namely nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs, are labelled form classes as well. This is because prototypical members of

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[35] Hopper, P; Thompson, S (1985). "The Iconicity of the Universal Categories 'Noun' and 'Verbs'". In John Haiman. *Typological Studies in Language: Iconicity and Syntax* **6**. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company. pp. 151–183.

[36] Broschart, Jürgen (1997). "Why Tongan does it differently: Categorial Distinctions in a Language without Nouns and Verbs". *Linguistic Typology* **1**(2): 123–165. doi:10.1515/lity.1997.1.2.123.

each class share the ability to change their form by accepting derivational or inflectional morphemes. The term form is used because it refers literally to the similarities in shape of the word in its pronunciation and spelling for each part of speech[37].

Neither written nor spoken English generally marks words as belonging to one part of speech or another, as they tend to be understood in the context of the sentence. Words like *neigh*, *break*, *outlaw*, *laser*, *microwave*, and *telephone* might all be either verb forms or nouns. Although *-ly* is a frequent adverb marker, not all adverbs end in *-ly* (*-wise* is another common adverb marker) and not all words ending in *-ly* are adverbs. For instance, *tomorrow*, *fast*, *very* can all be adverbs, while *early*, *friendly*, *ugly* are all adjectives (though *early* can also function as an adverb). Verbs can also be used as adjectives (e.g. "The *astonished* child watched the spectacle unfold" instead of the verb usage "The unfolding spectacle *astonished* the child"). In such cases, the verb is in its participle form. In certain circumstances, even words with primarily grammatical functions can be used as verbs or nouns, as in, "We must look to the *hows* and not just the *whys*."

The study of linguistics has expanded the understanding of lexical categories in various languages and allowed for better classifying words by function. Common lexical categories in English by function may include:

- **Open word classes:**
- adjectives
- adverbs
- nouns
- verbs (except auxiliary verbs)
- interjections
- **Closed word classes:**
- auxiliary verbs
- clitics

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[37] Klammer, Thomas; Schulz, Muriel R.; Della Volpe, Angela (2009). *Analyzing English Grammar* (6th ed.). Longman.

- coverbs
- conjunctions
- determiners (articles, quantifiers, demonstrative adjectives, and possessive adjectives)
- particles
- measure words
- adpositions (prepositions, postpositions, and circumpositions)
- preverbs
- pronouns
- contractions
- cardinal numbers[38]

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[38] http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Part_of_speech

2.2.SECONDARY PARTS OF SPEECH

Sentences are formed from words that belong to different categories depending on their function. The word "fire", for example, can be a noun or a verb depending on its usage.

Noun: "The fire burned the building."

Verb: "Fire the gun."

- ADJECTIVE - modifies a noun.

Examples: yellow, pretty, useful

Adjectives have three degrees: Positive, Comparative, and Superlative.

Example: old, older, oldest

- ARTICLE - specifies whether the noun is specific or a member of a class. The definite article "the" refers to specific objects. The indefinite articles "a", and "an" refer to an unspecified member of a class. The article "a" is used before a word starting with a consonant sound and "an" is used before a word starting with a vowel sound. Examples: a, an, the

- ADVERB - modifies a verb or an adjective. Many adverbs have the suffix **-ly**.

Examples: very, extremely, carefully

- CONJUNCTION - joins components of a sentence or phrase. *Coordinating conjunctions* join clauses which are equally important. A *subordinating conjunction* joins a dependent clause to a main clause. Some conjunctions occur in pairs, e.g., neither ... nor, either ... or.

Examples: and, but, or

- INTERJECTION - is used for exclamations.

Examples: Oh!, Aha!

- NOUN - names an object or action. *Common nouns* refer to ordinary things. *Proper nouns* are usually capitalized and refer to persons, specific things or specific   places.
  Examples: mouse, fire, Michael

- PREPOSITION - indicates relationship or relative position of objects.
  Examples: in, about, toward

- PRONOUN - is used in place of a noun. *Personal pronouns* are used to refer to persons. *Interrogative pronouns* introduce questions. *Demonstrative pronouns* refer to a previously mentioned object or objects. *Relative pronouns* introduce clauses.
  Examples: he, this

- VERB - specifies an action or links the subject to a complement. The tense of a verb indicates the time when the action happened, e.g., past, present, of future.
  Examples: take, is, go, fire[39]

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[39] **http://www.scientificpsychic.com/grammar/enggram3.html**

CHAPTER THREE. ADVERBS IN MODERN ENGLISH AND UZBEK.
3.1. THE USE OF ADVERBS IN CONTEMPORARYY ENGLISH

An adverb is a word that changes or simplifies the meaning of a verb, adjective, other adverb, clause, or sentence.

Adverbs typically answer questions such as *how?*, *in what way?*, *when?*, *where?*, and *to what extent?*. This function is called the adverbial function, and is realised not just by single words (i.e., adverbs) but by adverbial phrases andadverbial clauses.

Adverbs are words like *slowly*, *now*, *soon*, and *suddenly.* An adverb usually modifies a verb or a verb phrase. It provides information about the manner, place, time, frequency, certainty, or other circumstances of the activity denoted by the verb or verb phrase. Examples:

1. She was walking slowly (*Slowly* is the adverb.)

2. The kids are skating together. (Here, the adverb *together* provides information about how the kids are skating.)

Adverbs can also modify adjectives and other adverbs.

1. You are quite right. (Here, the adverb *quite* modifies the adjective *right*.)

2. She spoke very loudly. (Here, the adverb *very* modifies another adverb – *loudly*.)

In English, adverbs of manner (answering the question *how?*) are often formed by adding *-ly* to adjectives (this, however, is not required e.x quick). Other languages often have similar methods for deriving adverbs from adjectives (French, for example, uses the suffix *-ment*), or else use the same form for both adjectives and adverbs. Some examples are listed under Adverbs in specific languagesbelow. Where the meaning permits, adverbs may undergo comparison,

taking comparative and superlative forms. In English this is usually done by adding *more* and *most* before the adverb (*more slowly, most slowly*), although there are a few adverbs that take inflected forms, such as *well*, for

which *better* and *best* are used.

Adverbs are considered a part of speech in traditional English grammar and are still included as a part of speech in grammar taught in schools and used in dictionaries. However, modern grammarians recognize that words traditionally grouped together as adverbs serve a number of different functions. Some would go so far as to call adverbs a "catch all" category that includes all words that do not belong to one of the other parts of speech.

A more logical approach to dividing words into classes relies on recognizing which words can be used in a certain context. For example, the only type of word that can be inserted in the following template to form a grammatical sentence is a noun: The__is red. (For example, "The hat is red".)

When this approach is taken, it is seen that adverbs fall into a number of different categories. For example, some adverbs can be used to modify an entire sentence, whereas others cannot. Even when a sentential adverb has other functions, the meaning is often not the same. For example, in the sentences *She gave birth naturally* and*Naturally, she gave birth*, the word *naturally* has different meanings. *Naturally* as a sentential adverb means something like "of course" and as a verb-modifying adverb means "in a natural manner". This "naturally" distinction demonstrates that the class of sentential adverbs is a closed class (there is resistance to adding new words to the class), whereas the class of adverbs that modify verbs isn't.

Words like *very* and *particularly* afford another useful example. We can say *Perry is very fast*, but not *Perry very won the race*. These words can modify adjectives but not verbs. On the other hand, there are words like *here* and *there* that cannot modify adjectives. We can say *The sock looks good there* but not *It is a there beautiful sock*. The fact that many adverbs can be used in more than one of these functions can confuse this issue, and it may seem like splitting hairs to say that a single adverb is really two or more words that serve different functions. However, this distinction can be useful, especially considering adverbs like *naturally* that have different meanings in their different

functions. Huddleston distinguishes between a *word* and a *lexicogrammatical-word*[40].

Not is an interesting case. Grammarians have a difficult time categorizing it, and it probably belongs in its own class[41][42].

Adverbs in specific languages

Listed below are some of the principles for formation and use of adverbs in certain languages. For more information, see the articles on individual languages and their grammars.

In English adverbs can be formed from most adjectives with the ending *-ly*, and there are also many independent adverbs.

In Dutch adverbs have the basic form of their corresponding adjectives and are not inflected (except for comparison in which case they are inflected like adjectives, too).

In German the term *adverb* is differently defined than in the English language. German adverbs form a group of not inflectable words (except for comparison in which in rare cases some are inflected like adjectives, too). An English *adverb*, which is derived from an adjective, is arranged in the German language under the adjectives with *adverbial use* in the sentence. The others are also called adverbs in the German language.

In Scandinavian languages, adverbs are typically derived from adjectives by adding the suffix '-t', which makes it identical to the adjective's neuter form. Scandinavian adjectives, like English ones, are inflected in terms of comparison by

[40] Huddleston, Rodney (1988). *English grammar: an outline*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. p. 7. doi:10.2277/0521311527. ISBN 0-521-32311-8.
[41] Cinque, Guglielmo. 1999. *Adverbs and functional heads—a cross linguistic perspective*. Oxford: Oxford University press.
[42] Haegeman, Liliane. 1995. *The syntax of negation*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

adding '-ere'/'-are' (comparative) or '-est'/'-ast' (superlative). In inflected forms of adjectives the '-t' is absent. Periphrastic comparison is also possible.

In Romance languages many adverbs are formed from adjectives (often the feminine form) by adding '-mente' (Portuguese, Spanish, Galician, Italian) or '-ment' (French, Catalan) (from Latin *mens, mentis*: mind, intelligence, or suffix -*mentum*, result or way of action). Other adverbs are single forms which are invariable.

In the Romanian language, the vast majority of adverbs are simply the masculine singular form of the corresponding adjective – one notable exception being *bine*("well") / *bun* ("good"). However, there are some Romanian adverbs that are built from certain masculine singular nouns using the suffix *"-eṣte"*, such as the following ones: *băieṭ-eṣte* (boyishly), *tiner-eṣte* (youthfully), *bărbăt-eṣte* (manly), *frăṭ-eṣte* (brotherly), etc.

Interlingua also forms adverbs by adding '-mente' to the adjective. If an adjective ends in *c*, the adverbial ending is '-amente'. A few short, invariable adverbs, such as*ben*, "well", and *mal*, "badly", are available and widely used.

In Esperanto, adverbs are not formed from adjectives but are made by adding '-e' directly to the word root. Thus, from *bon* are derived *bone*, "well", and *bona*, "good".

Hungarian adverbs are formed from adjectives of any degree through the suffixes -*ul/ül* and -*an/en* depending on the adjective. E.g. *szép* (beautiful) -> *szépen*(beautifully) or the comparative *szebb* (more beautiful) -> *szebben* (more beautifully)

- Modern Standard Arabic forms adverbs by adding the indefinite accusative ending '-an' to the root. For example, *kathiir-*, "many", becomes *kathiiran* "much".

However, Arabic often avoids adverbs by using a cognate accusative plus an adjective.

- Austronesian languages generally form comparative adverbs by repeating the root (as in WikiWiki), similarly to the plural noun.

- Japanese forms adverbs from verbal adjectives by adding /ku/ (く) to the stem (e.g. haya- "rapid" hayai "quick/early", hayakatta "was quick", hayaku "quickly") and fromnominal adjectives by placing /ni/ (に) after the adjective instead of the copula /na/ (な) or /no/ (の) (e.g. rippa "splendid", rippa ni "splendidly"). These derivations are quite productive but there are a few adjectives from which adverbs may not be derived.

In Celtic languages, an adverbial form is often made by preceding the adjective with a preposition. This is *go* in Irish or *gu* in Scottish Gaelic, meaning 'until'. In Cornish,*yn* is used, meaning 'in'.
In Portuguese, there is just one suffix used to create adverbs from adjectives "-mente", the same suffix is used in Interlingua, which is equivalent to English's "-ly".

In Modern Greek, an adverb is most commonly made by adding the endings <-α> and/or <-ως> to the root of an adjective. Often, the adverbs formed from a common root using each of these endings have slightly different meanings. So, <τέλειος> (<téleios>, meaning "perfect" and "complete") yields <τέλεια> (<téleia>, "perfectly") and <τελείως> (<teleíos>, "completely"). Not all adjectives can be transformed into adverbs by using both endings. <Γρήγορος> (<grígoros>, "rapid") becomes <γρήγορα> (<grígora>, "rapidly"), but not normally *<γρηγόρως> (*<grigóros>). When the <-ως> ending is used to transform an adjective whose tonal accent is on the third syllable from the end, such as <επίσημος> (<epísimos>, "official"), the corresponding adjective is accented on the second syllable from the end; compare <επίσημα> (<epísima>) and <επισήμως> (<episímos>), which both mean "officially". There are also other

endings with particular and restricted use as <-í>, <-εí>, <-ιστί>, etc. For example, <ατιμωρητί> (<atimorití>, "with impunity") and <ασυζητητί> (<asyzitití>, "indisputably"); <αυτολεξεί> (<autolexeí> "word for word") and <αυτοστιγμεί> (<autostigmeí>, "in no time"); <αγγλιστί> [<anglistí> "in English (language)"] and <παπαγαλιστί> (<papagalistí>, "by rote"); etc.

- In Latvian, an adverb is formed from an adjective, by changing the masculine or feminine adjective endings -s and -a to -i. "Labs", meaning "good", becomes "labi" for "well". Latvian adverbs have a particular use in expressions meaning "to speak" or "to understand" a language. Rather than use the noun meaning "Latvian/English/Russian", the adverb formed form these words is used. "Es runāju latviski/angliski/krieviski" means "I speak Latvian/English/Russian", or very literally "I speak Latvianly/Englishly/Russianly". When a noun is required, the expression used means literally "language of the Latvians/English/Russians", "latviešu/angļu/krievu valoda".

In Ukrainian, and analogously in Russian and some other Slavic languages, most adverbs are formed by removing the adjectival suffices "-ий" "-a" or "-e" from an adjective, and replacing them with the adverbial "-o". For example, "швидкий", "гарна", and "смачне" (fast, nice, tasty) become "швидко", "гарно", and "смачно" (quickly, nicely, tastefully). Another wide group of adverbs are formed by gluing preposition to following oblique case form (now often dialectical or deprecated): з*from*+рідка *the rare*→зрідка *rarely*, на *onto*+долину *bottom*→надолину *downwards*. As well, note that adverbs are mostly placed before the verbs they modify: A good son sings nicely/well. Although, there is no specific word order in East Slavic languages.

- In Korean, adverbs are formed by replacing 다 of the dictionary form of a verb with 게. So, 쉽다 (easy) becomes 쉽게 (easily).
- In Turkish, the same word usually serves as adjective and adverb: *iyi bir kız* ("a good girl"), *iyi anlamak* ("to understand well*)*.

- In Chinese, adverbs end in the word "地（的)", of which the English equivalent is "-ly".

- In Persian, many adjectives serve as adverbs too (e.g. "سریع", "خوب ", "تند") so there is no obvious way to recognize them out of context. The only exceptions are those Arabic adverbs with a "أ" suffix such as "واقعاً", "ظاهراً" , etc[43].

Adverbs are words that modify

a verb (He drove slowly. — How did he drive?)

an adjective (He drove a very fast car. — How fast was his car?)

- another adverb (She moved quite slowly down the aisle. — How slowly did she move?)

    As we will see, adverbs often tell when, where, why, or under what conditions something happens or happened. Adverbs frequently end in *-ly*; however, many words and phrases not ending in *-ly* serve an adverbial function and an *-ly* ending is not a guarantee that a word is an adverb. The words *lovely, lonely, motherly, friendly, neighborly*, for instance, are adjectives:

- That lovely woman lives in a friendly neighborhood.

If a group of words containing a subject and verb acts as an adverb (modifying the verb of a sentence), it is called an Adverb Clause:

- When this class is over, we're going to the movies.

    When a group of words not containing a subject and verb acts as an adverb, it is called an **adverbial phrase**. Prepositional phrases frequently have adverbial functions (telling place and time, modifying the verb):

- He went to the movies.

- She works on holidays.

- They lived in Canada during the war.

And Infinitive phrases can act as adverbs (usually telling why):

- She hurried to the mainland to see her brother.

- The senator ran to catch the bus.

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[43] **http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Adverb**

But there are other kinds of adverbial phrases:

-      He calls his mother as often as possible.

Adverbs can modify adjectives, but an adjective cannot modify an adverb. Thus we would say that "the students showed a really wonderful attitude" and that "the students showed a wonderfully casual attitude" and that "my professor is really tall, but not "He ran real fast."

Like adjectives, adverbs can have comparative and superlative forms to show degree.

- Walk faster if you want to keep up with me.
- The student who reads fastest will finish first.
- We often use *more* and *most*, *less* and *least* to show degree with adverbs:
- With sneakers on, she could move more quickly among the patients.
- The flowers were the most beautifully arranged creations I've ever seen.
- She worked less confidently after her accident.
- That was the least skillfully done performance I've seen in years.

The as — as construction can be used to create adverbs that express sameness or equality: "He can't run as fast as his sister."

A handful of adverbs have two forms, one that ends in *-ly* and one that doesn't. In certain cases, the two forms have different meanings:

- He arrived late.
- Lately, he couldn't seem to be on time for anything.

In most cases, however, the form without the *-ly* ending should be reserved for casual situations:

- She certainly drives slow in that old Buick of hers.
- He did wrong by her.
- He spoke sharp, quick, and to the point.

Adverbs often function as **intensifiers**, conveying a greater or lesser emphasis to something. Intensifiers are said to have three different functions: they can emphasize, amplify, or downtone. Here are some examples:

Emphasizers:

I really don't believe him.

He literally wrecked his mother's car.

She simply ignored me.

They're going to be late, for sure.

Amplifiers:

The teacher completely rejected her proposal.

I absolutely refuse to attend any more faculty meetings.

They heartily endorsed the new restaurant.

I so wanted to go with them.

We know this city well.

Downtoners:

I kind of like this college.

Joe sort of felt betrayed by his sister.

His mother mildly disapproved his actions.

We can improve on this to some extent.

The boss almost quit after that.

The school was all but ruined by the storm.

Adverbs (as well as adjectives) in their various degrees can be accompanied by premodifiers:

She runs very fast.

We're going to run out of material all the faster

This issue is addressed in the section on degrees in adjectives.

For this section on intensifiers, we are indebted to *A Grammar of Contemporary English* by Randolph Quirk, Sidney Greenbaum, Geoffrey Leech, and Jan Svartvik. Longman Group: London. 1978. pages 438 to 457. Examples our own.

Using Adverbs in a Numbered List

Within the normal flow of text, it's nearly always a bad idea to number items beyond three or four, at the most. Anything beyond that, you're better off with a vertical list that uses numbers (1, 2, 3, etc.). Also, in such a list, don't use adverbs (with an *-ly* ending); use instead the uninflected ordinal number (first, second,

third, fourth, fifth, etc.). First (not firstly), it's unclear what the adverb is modifying.

Second (not secondly), it's unnecessary. Third (not thirdly), after you get beyond "secondly," it starts to sound silly. Adverbs that number in this manner are treated as *disjuncts*

Adverbs We Can Do Without

Review the section on Being Concise for some advice on adverbs that we can eliminate to the benefit of our prose: **intensifiers** such as *very, extremely*, and *really* that don't intensify anything and **expletive constructions** ("There are several books that address this issue.")

Kinds of Adverbs

Adverbs of Manner

She moved slowly and spoke quietly.

Adverbs of Place

She has lived on the island all her life.

She still lives there now.

Adverbs of Frequency

She takes the boat to the mainland every day.

She often goes by herself.

Adverbs of Time

She tries to get back before dark.

It's starting to get dark now.

She finished her tea first.

She left early.

Adverbs of Purpose

She drives her boat slowly to avoid hitting the rocks.

She shops in several stores to get the best buys.

Positions of Adverbs

One of the hallmarks of adverbs is their ability to move around in a sentence. Adverbs of manner are particularly flexible in this regard.

- Solemnly the minister addressed her congregation.
- The minister solemnly addressed her congregation.
- The minister addressed her congregation solemnly.
- The following adverbs of frequency appear in various points in these sentences:
- Before the main verb: I never get up before nine o'clock.
- Between the auxiliary verb and the main verb: I have rarely written to my brother without a good reason.
- Before the verb *used to:* I always used to see him at his summer home.
- Indefinite adverbs of time can appear either before the verb or between the auxiliary and the main verb:
- He finally showed up for batting practice.
- She has recently retired.

Order of Adverbs

There is a basic order in which adverbs will appear when there is more than one. It is similar to The Royal Order of Adjectives, but it is even more flexible.

The Royal Order of Adjectives

Verb	Manner	Place	Frequency	Time	Purpose
Beth swims	enthusiastically	in the pool	every morning	before dawn	to keep in shape.
Dad walks	impatiently	into town	every afternoon	before supper	to get a newspaper.
Tashonda naps		in her room	every morning	before lunch.	

In actual practice, of course, it would be highly unusual to have a string of adverbial modifiers beyond two or three (at the most). Because the placement of adverbs is so flexible, one or two of the modifiers would probably move to the beginning of the sentence: "Every afternoon before supper, Dad impatiently walks into town to get a newspaper." When that happens, the introductory adverbial modifiers are usually set off with a comma.

More Notes on Adverb Order

As a general principle, shorter adverbial phrases precede longer adverbial phrases, regardless of content. In the following sentence, an adverb of time precedes an adverb of frequency because it is shorter (and simpler):

- Dad takes a brisk walk before breakfast every day of his life.

- A second principle: among similar adverbial phrases of kind (manner, place, frequency, etc.), the more specific adverbial phrase comes first:

- My grandmother was born in a sod house on the plains of northern Nebraska.

- She promised to meet him for lunch next Tuesday.

- Bringing an adverbial modifier to the beginning of the sentence can place special emphasis on that modifier. This is particularly useful with adverbs of manner:

- Slowly, ever so carefully, Jesse filled the coffee cup up to the brim, even above the brim.

- Occasionally, but only occasionally, one of these lemons will get by the inspectors.

Inappropriate Adverb Order

Review the section on Misplaced Modifiers for some additional ideas on placement. Modifiers can sometimes attach themselves to and thus modify words that they ought not to modify.

- They reported that Giuseppe Balle, a European rock star, had died on the six o'clock news.

Clearly, it would be better to move the underlined modifier to a position immediately after "they reported" or even to the beginning of the sentence — so the poor man doesn't die on television.

Misplacement can also occur with very simple modifiers, such as *only* and *barely*:

- She only grew to be four feet tall.

It would be better if "She grew to be only four feet tall."

Adjuncts, Disjuncts, and Conjuncts

Regardless of its position, an adverb is often neatly integrated into the flow of a sentence. When this is true, as it almost always is, the adverb is called an adjunct. (Notice the underlined adjuncts or adjunctive adverbs in the first two sentences of this paragraph.) When the adverb does not fit into the flow of the clause, it is called a disjunct or a conjunct and is often set off by a comma or set of commas. A disjunct frequently acts as a kind of evaluation of the rest of the sentence. Although it usually modifies the verb, we could say that it modifies the entire clause, too. Notice how "too" is a disjunct in the sentence immediately before this one; that same word can also serve as an adjunct adverbial modifier: It's too hot to play outside. Here are two more disjunctive adverbs:

- Frankly, Martha, I don't give a hoot.
- Fortunately, no one was hurt.
- Conjuncts, on the other hand, serve a connector function within the flow of the text, signaling a transition between ideas.
- If they start smoking those awful cigars, then I'm not staying.
- We've told the landlord about this ceiling again and again, and yet he's done nothing to fix it.
- At the extreme edge of this category, we have the purely conjunctive device known as the conjunctive adverb (often called the adverbial conjunction):
- Jose has spent years preparing for this event; nevertheless, he's the most nervous person here.
- I love this school; however, I don't think I can afford the tuition.

Some Special Cases

- The adverbs *enough* and *not enough* usually take a postmodifier position:

- Is that music loud enough?

- These shoes are not big enough.

- In a roomful of elderly people, you must remember to speak loudly enough.

- (Notice, though, that when *enough* functions as an adjective, it can come before the noun:

- Did she give us enough time?

- The adverb *enough* is often followed by an infinitive:

- She didn't run fast enough to win.

- The adverb *too* comes before adjectives and other adverbs:

- She ran too fast.

- She works too quickly.

- If *too* comes after the adverb it is probably a disjunct (meaning *also*) and is usually set off with a comma:

- Yasmin works hard. She works quickly, too.

- The adverb *too* is often followed by an infinitive:

- She runs too slowly to enter this race.

- Another common construction with the adverb *too* is *too* followed by a prepositional phrase — *for* + the object of the preposition — followed by an infinitive:

- This milk is too hot for a baby to drink.

Relative Adverbs

Adjectival clauses are sometimes introduced by what are called the **relative adverbs**: *where, when,* and *why.* Although the entire clause is adjectival and will modify a noun, the relative word itself fulfills an adverbial function (modifying a verb within its own clause).

The relative adverb *where* will begin a clause that modifies a noun of place:

My entire family now worships in the church where my great grandfather used to be minister.

The relative pronoun "where" modifies the verb "used to be" (which makes it adverbial), but the entire clause ("where my great grandfather used to be minister") modifies the word "church."

A *when* clause will modify nouns of time:

My favorite month is always February, when we celebrate Valentine's Day and Presidents' Day.

And a *why* clause will modify the noun *reason:*

Do you know the reason why Isabel isn't in class today?

We sometimes leave out the relative adverb in such clauses, and many writers prefer "that" to "why" in a clause referring to "reason":

- Do you know the reason ~~why~~ Isabel isn't in class today?
- I always look forward to the day ~~when~~ we begin our summer vacation.
- I know the reason that men like motorcycles.

Authority for this section: *Understanding English Grammar* by Martha Kolln. 4rth Edition. MacMillan Publishing Company: New York. 1994.

Viewpoint, Focus, and Negative Adverbs

A **viewpoint adverb** generally comes after a noun and is related to an adjective that precedes that noun:

- A successful athletic team is often a good team scholastically.
- Investing all our money in snowmobiles was probably not a sound idea financially.

You will sometimes hear a phrase like "scholastically speaking" or "financially speaking" in these circumstances, but the word "speaking" is seldom necessary.

A **focus adverb** indicates that what is being communicated is limited to the part that is focused; a focus adverb will tend either to limit the sense of the sentence ("He got an A just for attending the class.") or to act as an additive ("He got an A in addition to being published."

Although negative constructions like the words "not" and "never" are usually found embedded within a verb string — "He has never been much help to his mother." — they are technically not part of the verb; they are, indeed, adverbs. However, a so-called **negative adverb** creates a negative meaning in a sentence *without* the use of the usual no/not/neither/nor/never constructions:

- He seldom visits.

- She hardly eats anything since the accident.

- After her long and tedious lectures, rarely was anyone awake[44].

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[44] http://grammar.ccc.commnet.edu/grammar/adverbs.htm

3.2. THE USE OF ADVERBS IN CONTEMPORARY UZBEK

Types of adverbs from semantic and grammatical point of view

Semantically and grammatically the adverbs are divided into six groups:

- Adverbs of manner
- Adverbs of quantity and degree
- Adverbs of time
- Adverbs of place
- Adverbs of reason
- Adverbs of aim[45].

Adverbs of manner

Adverbs of manner expresses the manner of an action.

There are the following Adverbs of manner in Modern Uzbek:

аста,

секин,

жим,

яёв,

пиёда,

очин-тўкин,

хомлигича,

дарҳол,

бирдан,

кўққисдан,

мажбуран,

тасодифан,

яққол,

қаҳрамонларча,

янгича,

қаторасига,

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[45] Она тили, Маъруза матнлари, Низомий номидаги Тошкент Давлат Педагогика Университети, Тошкент-2003

ёнма-ён,

битталаб,

қушдай

Syntactical function of the Adverbs of manner in the sentence is adverbial modifier of manner, attribute or predicate.

e.g.:

Мирза ота совиб қолган чойни бирдан шимирди.

Хона жим-жит, ҳамма унга қарар.

- Unaqa dema, bolam,- dedi ammam xo'rsinib.- Xudo uni shunga yaratgan, daraxtning qurtini yeb tozalaydi...- Uzoq **jim** qoldi-da, qo'shib qo'ydi.- Qaniydi, Olloh odamzotning ko'nglidagi qurtlarni tozalaydigan shundoq jonivor yaratsa. Hamma jannatga tusharmidi...

(Daftar hoshiyasidagi bitiklar. O'tkir Hoshimov)

Kecha buyuk ixtirolar qilgan olim, bugun eng yaxshi shogirdidan ayrilgani uchun ma'yuslanib bekatda tursa-yu, "kontrakt" bilan o'qishga kirgan birinchi kurs talabasi"inomarka"sida unga loy sachratib o'tsa, hayratlanmay ilojim yo'q.

Olim shu ahvolda tramvayga chiqishdan iymanib, uyiga **piyoda** ketsa,

hayratlanmay

ilojim yo'q!

(Daftar hoshiyasidagi bitiklar. O'tkir Hoshimov)

Majnuntol va qamish

Majnuntolning bosh egib sukut saqlashi donoligi va chayirligidan.

Qamishning g'oz turib shovullashi nodonligi va mo'rtligidan... qiziq, ikkalasi ko'pincha **yonma-yon** o'sadi...

(Daftar hoshiyasidagi bitiklar. O'tkir Hoshimov)

Adverbs of quantity and degree

Adverbs of quantity and degree expresses the quantity and degree of an action.

Adverbs of quantity and degree exaggerates the meaning of the other word. From this point of view it is divided into two types:

- Adverbs of quantity
- Adverbs of degree

There are the following Adverbs of quantity in Modern Uzbek:

кўп,

оз,

кам,

бир оз,

сал,

пича,

қиттак,

хиёл

Hayot falsafasi

Munkillab qolgan ammam bo'lardi. O'ta xudojo'y kampir edi. Bolaligimda oldiga o'tkazibqo'yib, bir gapni ko'p aytardi.

- U quloq, bu qulog'ing bilan ham eshitib ol, bolam. Odamning u yelkasida ham, bu yelkasida ham bittadan farishta o'tiradi. O'ng yelkangdagi farishta umr bo'yi qilgan savob ishlaringni, chap yelkangdagisi gunohlaringni hisoblab boradi. U dunyoga borganingda hisob-kitob qilib ko'rishadi. Savobing ortiq bo'lsa, jannatga, gunohing ortiq bo'lsa, do'zaxga tushasan…

(Daftar hoshiyasidagi bitiklar. O'tkir Hoshimov)

Qo'g'irchoq

Bu odam loydan yasalgan qo'g'irchoqqa o'xshaydi. Zamon **sal** o'zgarsa, boshidan jinday suv quyadi-da, loyini iylab-iylab, o'zini qaytadan yasab, boshqa qiyofaga kirib oladi…

Qattiqroq yomg'ir yog'sa, balchiqqa aylanib ketadi-yov!

(Daftar hoshiyasidagi bitiklar. O'tkir Hoshimov)

There are the following Adverbs of degree in Modern Uzbek:

жуда,

ғоят,

ниҳоятда,

ҳар қанча,

оз-мунча,

сира,

асло.

Syntactical function of the Adverbs of quantity and degree in the sentence is adverbial modifier.

e.g.:

Ўрмонжон акамнинг бир гаплари сира-сира эсимдан чиқмайди.

Кўп гап қулоққа ёқмас.

Nigilist

Millatchilik **juda** xavfli illat. Milliy nigilizm esa undan ham xatarli. Millatchi qo'shnisini

yomon ko'radi. Milliy nigilist esa o'zini ham yomon ko'radi!

(Daftar hoshiyasidagi bitiklar. O'tkir Hoshimov)

Donishmand

Nar lochin yemish topib kelarkan. Moda lochin o'ljani polaponlariga bo'lashib berarkan.

Biron falokat bo'lib, moda lochin o'lib qolsa, nar lochin **har qancha** yemish topib keltirmasin, baribir, polaponlar ochidan nobud bo'lar ekan. Negaki, nar lochin o'ljani

bolalariga burdalab berishni eplolmas ekan…

Tabiat naqadar beshafqat, tabiat naqadar dono!

(Daftar hoshiyasidagi bitiklar. O'tkir Hoshimov)

Syntactical function of the Adverbs of quantity and degree in the sentence can also be predicate.

Вилоятимизда бу йил пахтадан мўл ҳосил олган бригадалар кўп[46].

Adverbs of time

Adverbs of time expresses the time of an action.

e.g.:

Бугун 25 май куни, тўгарак аъзоларининг йиғилиши бўлади.

There are the following Adverbs of time in Modern Uzbek:

Тунов кун,

ҳануз,

ҳали,

сўнгра,

бугун,

аввал,

олдин,

кечаси,

тезда,

яқинда,

йилига,

ҳеч қачон,

ҳар куни,

кўпи билан

эрта-индин,

қишин-ёзин

Katta iste'dod avval xalq e'tiborini, keyin xalq muhabbatini va nihoyat xalq e'tiqodini

qozonadi. Aslida mana shu uch bosqichning har bittasi bir umrga teng.

(Daftar hoshiyasidagi bitiklar. O'tkir Hoshimov)

Oshkoralik

Oshkoralik shunday daraxtki, uning mevasini eng **avval** chinqiroq maymunlar yeydi. (Daftar hoshiyasidagi bitiklar. O'tkir Hoshimov)

Oftob

Yaxshiyamki Xudo oftobni bag'rikeng qilib yaratgan. Bo'lmasa yer yuzidagi odamlarning illatlarini **har kuni** ko'raverib, allaqachon so'nib qolgan bo'larmidi…(Daftar hoshiyasidagi bitiklar. O'tkir Hoshimov)

Qaldirg'och

E'tibor berganmisiz: qaldirg'ochlar fayzsiz, noahil xonadonga **hech qachon** in qurmaydi. Goho qaldirg'och odamdan aqlliroqmikin, deb o'ylab qolaman. (Daftar hoshiyasidagi bitiklar. O'tkir Hoshimov)

Chinakam asar tug'ilmasdan **oldin** uning ohangi, muzikasi paydo bo'ladi. Bu-g'oya emas, syujet ham emas, aynan OHANGdir. Mana shu ohang adibni qo'lidan sudrab kelib, stolga "mixlab" qo'yadi. Asarning joni degani shu bo'lsa kerak. (Daftar hoshiyasidagi bitiklar. O'tkir Hoshimov)

Syntactical function of the Adverbs of time in the sentence is adverbial modifier of time or predicate.

Adverbs of place

Adverbs of place expresses the place of action.

There are the following Adverbs of place in Modern Uzbek:

нари,

бери,

унда-бунда,

аллақаердан,

буёққа,

у ёққа

Syntactical function of the Adverbs of place in the sentence is adverbial modifier.

Бунда булбул китоб ўқийди.

Қани бу ёққа ўтиринг-чи!

Adverbs of reason

Adverbs of reason expresses the reason of action.

There are the following Adverbs of reason in Modern Uzbek:

ноиложликдан,

чорасизликдан

Syntactical function of the Adverbs of reason in the sentence is often adverbial modifier.

Кундузойнинг қисташи билан ноилож биринчи қаторга бориб ўтирди.

Adverbs of aim

Adverbs of aim expresses the aim of action.

There are the following Adverbs of aim in Modern Uzbek:

- атайи(н),
- атайлаб,
- жўрттага,
- қасддан

Syntactical function of the Adverbs of reason in the sentence is often adverbial modifier.

- Эрталаб атайин спорт костюмини кийдим[47].

The degrees of comparison of adverbs

There are also degrees of comparison of adverbs in Modern Uzbek as in adjectives. It is often used in adverbs of manner.

The formation of the category of degree is as in adjectives:

оддий даража-simple,

қиёсий даража -comparative

орттирма -superlative.

e.g.:

Oddiy daraja

Ona tili

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[47] Она тили, Маъруза матнлари, Низомий номидаги Тошкент Давлат Педагогика Университети, Тошкент-2003

Qancha ko'p tilni bilsangiz, shuncha **yaxshi**. Biroq odam ona tilida tafakkur qiladi,ona tilida tush ko'radi, ona tilida yig'laydi... o'lim oldida onasini ona tilida yo'qlaydi...

(Daftar hoshiyasidagi bitiklar. O'tkir Hoshimov)

… Shunday qilib, Odamning ko'nglida hasad degan qora niyat paydo bo'libdi. Ollohning qahri kelib, farmon qilibdi:
" Odamzot mengaki hasad qildimi, bir-biriga omonlik bermaydi. Hasadgo'y do'zaxga kunda bo'lsin!"
O'sha-o'sha do'zax **lang'illab** yonarmish.
(Daftar hoshiyasidagi bitiklar. O'tkir Hoshimov)

Sharqda ne-ne saltanatlar o'gay aka-ukalar o'rtasida **xomtalash**
bo'lib, parchalanib ketgan.
Ga'rbda bu muammo bo'lmagan…
 (Daftar hoshiyasidagi bitiklar. O'tkir Hoshimov)

қиёсий даража simple degree:
Qaldirg'och
E'tibor berganmisiz: qaldirg'ochlar fayzsiz, noahil xonadonga hech qachon in qurmaydi.
Goho qaldirg'och odamdan aqlli**roq**mikin, deb o'ylab qolaman.
(Daftar hoshiyasidagi bitiklar. O'tkir Hoshimov)

To'la va chala
Yarim haqiqat chin bilan yolg'onning o'rtasida turadi, degan odam yanglishadi.
Yarim haqiqat hamisha chindan ko'ra yolg'onga yaqin**roq** turadi.
(Daftar hoshiyasidagi bitiklar. O'tkir Hoshimov)

Farzand ko'rdilar…

To'ng'ichi nimjon**roq** edi. Kasal bo'lib, ko'p kuydirdi…

O'rtanchasi o'yinqaroq edi… Qamalib chiqdi…

Kenjasi qiz edi… Erka**roq** o'sdi. Turmushi buzildi…

Bir kuni erkak kechasi uyg'onib ketdi. Uzoq o'y o'ylab yotdi. Qarasa, ayoli ham uyg'oq ekan.

(Daftar hoshiyasidagi bitiklar. O'tkir Hoshimov)

орттирма даража superlative degree:

Eng aqlli jonivor

Dunyoda **eng aqlli** jonivor-baliq! Birinchidan, soqov. Ikkinchidan, muttasil dumini likillatadi!

 (Daftar hoshiyasidagi bitiklar. O'tkir Hoshimov)

Inson shu qadar buyukki, uning fazilatlarini o'lchash- dunyodagi **eng baland** tog'ning eng baland cho'qqisiga emaklab chiqish zahmati bilan teng. Inson shu qadar tubanki, uning illatlarini o'lchash- dunyodagi **eng baland** tog'ning **eng baland** cho'qqisidan emaklab tushish zahmati bilan teng.

 (Daftar hoshiyasidagi bitiklar. O'tkir Hoshimov)

Eng oliy tuyg'u

Eng toza tuyg'u nima?

Birinchi maoshingizni keltirib berib, otangizning duosini olganingizmi?

Birinchi marta sovg'a keltirib berganingizda onangizning ko'zida qalqigan yoshmi?

 (Daftar hoshiyasidagi bitiklar. O'tkir Hoshimov)

Zulm

Odamlarni qo'rqib yashashga majbur qiladigan jamiyat- **eng omonat** jamiyatdir.

(Daftar hoshiyasidagi bitiklar. O'tkir Hoshimov)

FORMATION OF THE ADVERB

In contemporary Uzbek the adverb is formed in two ways:

Morphologic or affixal

Synthetic or compositional

When formed in morphologic (or affixal) way the adverb is formed with adding affixes to the stem.

Adverb forming affixes are often added to a noun, sometimes to a pronoun, adjective, infinitive and gerund

Adverbs of manner are often formed in this way:

- ан: мажбуран, қисман, тамоман

Adibning bu asari menga tamoman yoqdi.

- сиз: тўхтовсиз, тўловсиз

Qarsaklar to'xtovsiz yangradi.

- лаб: яхшилаб, аравалаб, кўплаб

Ko'plab kishilar texnikaning bu turiga qiziqish bildirdilar.

- ча: янгича, ўзбекча, чопганича

O'zbekcha urf-odatlar baribir boshqachada!

- ларча: дўстларча, қаҳрамонларча

Ular el-yurt tinchligi uchun qahramonlarcha kurashgan insonlar.

- н(-ин): кечин, қишин, ёзин

Archa daraxti yozin-qishin yam yashil bo'lib turaveradi.

- инча: яширинча, кўпинча

Men oyimdan yashirincha muzqaymoq eb oldim.

- лигича: тириклигича, бутунлигича

Qizcha olmani butunicha olib oldi.

- она: шукурона, мардона, дўстона

Ular Vatani uchun mardona jang qilib, mardona jon berdilar.

- лай(-лайин): бутунлай, тириклайин

Men bu musiqaga butunlay maftun bo'lib qoldim.

- дай(-дек): қушдай, тухумдек

Bu qandaydir yashil jism bo'lib, kattaligi tuxumdek keladi.

Synthetic or compositional way is used in forming compound adverbs.

Compound adverbs are formed in the following way:

1) before words with the meaning of place and time or before the interrogative pronoun:

алланечук,

аллақачон

аллақайда

алланима

аллаким

2) With combining of the words which are not used independently бир or оз:

бирмунча

биратўла

бирваракай

бирпас

озмунча,

озроқ

озгина

Compound adverb is a combination of two independently used adverbs. It is a new adverb which expresses the feature of an action.

Compound adverb is formed in the following way:

1) words with the meaning of place and time or before the interrogative pronoun with the words saving their meaning, independence and stress ҳар, ҳеч:

ҳар вақт,

ҳар қачон,

ҳар дам,

ҳар гал,

ҳар замон,

бир лаҳза,

бир оз,

бир йўла,

бир замон,

бир зум,

бир нафас,

бир ёққа,

ҳеч вақт,

ҳеч қачон

2) with combining word forms in their lexical meaning:

ҳамма вақт,

ўтган кун(й),

шу заҳоти,

тунов кун,

куни кеча,

шу ерда,

бу ерга,

бу ёқдан

Two adverbs are combined freely in Modern Uzbek and is called жуфт равиш. It is formed in the following way:

1) маънодош сўзлардан:

аста-секин,

эсон-омон,

очиқ-ойдин,

узил-кесил

2) from the words of antonymous meaning

қишин-ёзин,

остин-устин,

очин-тўкин

3) some compound(which is called жуфт равиш) adverbs are formed with repeating nouns or pronouns in Cases or with the elements of –ма, -ба in Modern Uzbek:

кўпдан-кўп,

йилдан-йилга,

шундан-шунга,

юзма-юз,

кўчама-кўча

That kind of adverb expresses the way or manner of an action[48].

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[48] Она тили, Маъруза матнлари, Низомий номидаги Тошкент Давлат Педагогика Университети, Тошкент-2003

CONCLUSION

There is a system of rules (known as grammar) which govern the communication between members of a particular speech community. Grammar is influenced by both sound and meaning, and includes morphology (the formation and composition of words), syntax (the formation and composition of phrases and sentences from these words), and phonology (sound systems[49]). Through corpus linguistics, large chunks of text can be analysed for possible occurrences of certain linguistic features, and for stylistic patterns within a written or spoken discourse[50].

The study of such cultural discourses and dialects is the domain of sociolinguistics, which looks at the relation between linguistic variation and social structures, as well as that of discourse analysis, which involves the structure of texts and conversations[51]. Research on language through historical and evolutionary linguistics focuses on how languages change, and the origin and growth of languages, particularly over an extended period of time.

During the 20th century, Ferdinand de Saussure distinguished between the notions of langue and parole in his formulation of structural linguistics. According to him, parole is the specific utterance of speech, whereas langue refers to an abstract phenomenon that theoretically defines the principles and system of rules that govern a language[52]. In classical Indian philosophy of language, Patanjali distinguished between sphota (meaning) and *dhvani* (sound) in the creation of shabda, which literally means "spoken word".

In linguistics, **grammar** is the set of structural rules governing the composition of clauses, phrases, and words in any given natural language. The term refers also to the study of such rules, and this field includes morphology, syntax, and phonology, often complemented by phonetics, semantics, and pragmatics.

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[49] Adrian Akmajian, Richard A. Demers, Ann K. Farmer, Robert M. Harnish (2010). *Linguistics* (6th ed.). The MIT Press. ISBN 0-262-51370-6. Retrieved 25 July 2012.
[50] "Stylistics" by Joybrato Mukherjee. Chapter 49. *Encyclopedia of Linguistics.*
[51] Raymond Mougeon and Terry Nadasdi (1998). Sociolinguistic Discontinuity in Minority Language Communities *pp. 40-55*. Linguistic Society of America.
[52] de Saussure, F. (1986). Course in general linguistics (3rd ed.). (R. Harris, Trans.). Chicago: Open Court Publishing Company. (Original work published 1972). p. 9-10, 15.

The term *grammar* is often used by non-linguists with a very broad meaning. As Jeremy Butterfield puts it, "Grammar is often a generic way of referring to any aspect of English that people object to[53]." However, linguists use it in a much more specific sense. Speakers of a language have in their heads a set of rules[54] for using that language. This is a grammar, and the vast majority of the information in it is acquired—at least in the case of one's native language—not by conscious study or instruction, but by observing other speakers; much of this work is done during infancy. Learning a language later in life usually involves a greater degree of explicit instruction[55].

An adverb is a word that changes or simplifies the meaning of a verb, adjective, other adverb, clause, or sentence.

Adverbs typically answer questions such as *how?*, *in what way?*, *when?*, *where?*, and *to what extent?*. This function is called the adverbial function, and is realised not just by single words (i.e., adverbs) but by adverbial phrases andadverbial clauses.

Adverbs are words like *slowly*, *now*, *soon*, and *suddenly.* An adverb usually modifies a verb or a verb phrase. It provides information about the manner, place, time, frequency, certainty, or other circumstances of the activity denoted by the verb or verb phrase. Examples:

1. She was walking slowly (*Slowly* is the adverb.)

2. The kids are skating together. (Here, the adverb *together* provides information about how the kids are skating.)

Adverbs can also modify adjectives and other adverbs.

1. You are quite right. (Here, the adverb *quite* modifies the adjective *right*.)

2. She spoke very loudly. (Here, the adverb *very* modifies another adverb – *loudly*.)

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[53] Jeremy Butterfield, (2008) *Damp Squid: The English Language Laid Bare*, Oxford University Press, Oxford. 978-0-19-923906. p. 142.

[54] Traditionally, the mental information used to produce and process linguistic utterances is referred to as "rules." However, other frameworks employ different terminology, with theoretical implications. Optimality theory, for example, talks in terms of "constraints", while Construction grammar, Cognitive grammar, and other "usage-based" theories make reference to patterns, constructions, and "schemata"

[55] O'Grady, William; Dobrovolsky, Michael; Katamba, Francis (1996).*Contemporary Linguistics: An Introduction*. Harlow, Essex: Longman. pp. 4–7; 464–539. ISBN 9780582246911.

In English, adverbs of manner (answering the question *how?*) are often formed by adding -*ly* to adjectives (this, however, is not required e.x quick). Other languages often have similar methods for deriving adverbs from adjectives (French, for example, uses the suffix -*ment*), or else use the same form for both adjectives and adverbs. Some examples are listed under Adverbs in specific languagesbelow. Where the meaning permits, adverbs may undergo comparison,

taking comparative and superlative forms. In English this is usually done by adding *more* and *most* before the adverb (*more slowly, most slowly*), although there are a few adverbs that take inflected forms, such as *well*, for

which *better* and *best* are used.

An adverb is a word that changes or simplifies the meaning of a verb, adjective, other adverb, clause, or sentence.

Adverbs typically answer questions such as *how?*, *in what way?*, *when?*, *where?*, and *to what extent?*. This function is called the adverbial function, and is realised not just by single words (i.e., adverbs) but by adverbial phrases andadverbial clauses.

Adverbs are words like *slowly*, *now*, *soon*, and *suddenly*. An adverb usually modifies a verb or a verb phrase. It provides information about the manner, place, time, frequency, certainty, or other circumstances of the activity denoted by the verb or verb phrase. Examples:

1. She was walking slowly (*Slowly* is the adverb.)

2. The kids are skating together. (Here, the adverb *together* provides information about how the kids are skating.)

Adverbs can also modify adjectives and other adverbs.

1. You are quite right. (Here, the adverb *quite* modifies the adjective *right*.)

2. She spoke very loudly. (Here, the adverb *very* modifies another adverb – *loudly*.)

In English, adverbs of manner (answering the question *how?*) are often formed by adding -*ly* to adjectives (this, however, is not required e.x quick). Other languages often have similar methods for deriving adverbs from adjectives (French, for

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Types of adverbs from semantic and grammatical point of view
Semantically and grammatically the adverbs are divided into six groups:

- Adverbs of manner
- Adverbs of quantity and degree
- Adverbs of time
- Adverbs of place
- Adverbs of reason
- Adverbs of aim[56].

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[56] Она тили, Маъруза матнлари, Низомий номидаги Тошкент Давлат Педагогика Университети, Тошкент-2003

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