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**"THE PROBLEMS OF ADVERBS IN
ENGLISH"**

mavzusida bajarilgan

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INTRODUCTION

Language is a means of forming and storing ideas as reflections of reality and exchanging them in the process of human intercourse. Without it, we could not represent the world to ourselves, nor could we share our thoughts with others. However, if we wish to understand fully this most basic form of communication, we must as a practical necessary study at least one other language gives us an objective viewpoint from which to observe the phenomenon of language itself. At the same time, it requires us to project ourselves into the mental and psychological dimensions of another people, an effort that will likewise reflect ourselves giving us insight into our own way of speaking and thinking.

The late twentieth century has already given us a glimpse of a future in which instantaneous global communication will be the norm. As the world draws closer together, knowledge of other languages besides English will prove to be more important.

In recent years existing and emerging technology have brought the world closer and have erased many of the existing borders. As boundaries between countries are being dissolved, the need for foreign language instruction has become a necessary component for linking with the rest of the world and for producing an enlightened citizenship able to function in today's ever-shrinking world.

The study of language helps students and pupils develop a sense of cultural pluralism. Through the study of another language students interact with others and discover various cultures.

The study of language increases travel opportunities and increase chances of meeting people from other lands.

An institute education begins with the premise that one's world and oneself are at the core of the pursuit of knowledge. It leads to viewing the world from more than one perspective and learning something about its social, cultural, intellectual and spiritual dimensions¹.

¹ O'zbekiston Buyuk Kelajak sari., Toshkent 1999y 12-14 pages

As we approach, the communities of the world are becoming more and more independent communication skills in both their native language and at least one foreign language because they need to equip themselves to communicate with others within their own culture and within different cultures. This ability to communicate requires insights into diverse patterns of thought and modes of expression. Such insights allow students to identify universal, as well as unique aspects of their culture.

As our president mentioned “In our global community we must make a careful study of both local and international human communities. Students need to cultivate an informed sensitivity to global issues ”.

He also mentioned “Students need to be informed sensitivity to global and environmental issues by exploring the range of social, geographic, economic, political, and cultural realities influencing world events.”²

Now Uzbekistan is an independent republic. Our president Islom Karimov said that: “Uzbekistan is a state with a great future”, It means that this future is in our hands. That’s why our president and government are taking a great care of the youth of Uzbekistan.³

In recent years existing and emerging technology have brought the world closer and have erased many of the existing borders. As boundaries between countries are being dissolved, the need for foreign language instruction has become a necessary component for linking with the rest of the world and for producing an enlightened citizenship able to function in today’s ever-shrinking world.

In addition to the need for communication within a global world, the study of a foreign language is needed to ensure economic competitiveness, to maintain national (security) and to teach tolerance and respect for others. To be competitive on a global world business world of tomorrow needs individuals with strong skills in a second language who can work within a culturally diverse environment.

² O’zbekiston Buyuk Kelajak sari., Toshkent 1999y p34

³ President Islam Karimov . For Peace and Security in Afganistan., Tashkent., Islam University Press 2002. p77

Over 19 years of Independent development of Uzbekistan, the country with unilateral hypertrophy, commodity-dependent economy with the destructive monopoly of raw cotton, primitive production and social infrastructure, has reached new horizons of development which completely changed its look and position in the global community.⁴

The aims of foreign language teaching are three: practical, educational and cultural. Its practical aims are consequent on the basic function of language, which is, to serve as a means of communication.

The educational aims of foreign language teaching in schools consist in inculcating in the children through instruction in the foreign language the principles of morality.

The cultural aims mentioned on school programme of foreign languages imply the following tasks: widening the pupils' general outlook, developing their powers abstract thinking, cultivating their sense of beauty and their appreciation of art. The reading of English texts acquainting the pupils with the life and culture of the English-speaking nations, and with their manner and customs, will contribute to the mental growth of the pupils.

The theme of my qualification work sounds as following: **“The problems of Adverbs in English”** This qualification work can be characterized by the following:

The actuality of this work caused by several important points. We seem to say that the distinguishing of adverbs and its differentiation from adjectives is one of the main problems for those who learn English. This qualification work will try to make this problem clearer.

So the significance of our work can be proved by the following reasons:

- a) Adverbs is a traditionally difficult theme for learning together with prepositions and articles.
- b) The adverbs are studied rather inattentively by modern scholars, so this

⁴ Address by President of the Republic of Uzbekistan Islam Karimov at the Plenary Session of the UN Millennium Development Goals Summit., Tashkent: “Uzbekistan”, 2011, p 70

qualification work will add this insufficient list of works in grammar.

- c) Adverbs are often used in colloquial layer of the language and their development as speech units has not stopped yet.
- d) Being a developing branch of linguistics it requires a special attention of teachers to be adequate to their specialization in English.

Having based upon the actuality of the theme we are able to formulate the general goals of our qualification work.

- a) To study, analyze, and sum up all the possible changes happened in the studied branch of linguistics for the past fifty years.
- b) To teach the problem of adverbs to young English learners.
- c) To demonstrate the significance of the problem for those who want to brush up their English.
- d) To mention all the major of linguists' opinions concerning the subject studied.

If we say about the new information used within our work we may note that the work studies the problem from the modern positions and analyzes the modern trends appeared in this subject for the last ten years. In particular, the wide use of internet forums of the English teachers was taken into consideration in the given qualification work.

The practical significance of the work can be concluded in the following items:

- a) The work could serve as a good source of learning English by young teachers at schools and colleges.
- b) Those who would like to communicate with the English-speaking people through the Internet will find useful to study the adverbial expressions popular among the internet users.

Having said about the linguists studied the material before we can mention that our qualification work was based upon the investigations made by a number of well known English, Russian and Uzbek lexicologists as Randolph Quirk, Sidney Greenbaum, Geoffrey Leech, Jan Svartvik, Martha Kolln, Guglielmo Cinque, Thomas Ernst, Liliane Haegeman, Ray Jackendoff, B.A. Ilyish, N. Buranov, V.V. Vinogradov, O. Jespersen and some others.

If we say about **the methods of scientific approaches** used in our work we can mention that the method of typological analysis was used.

The novelty of the work is concluded in including the language of charts to one of the chapter of the qualification work.

The general structure of our qualification work looks as follows:

The work consists of an Introduction, two chapters, conclusion and the list of used literature and appendix.

Introduction highlights actuality, aim, tasks, theoretical and practical values and others.

In the first chapter of the main part we can study general definition of adverbs, their role in a language and their structure in the English language in comparative analysis with other languages.

In the second chapter we may see such obvious problem solving method concerning the position of single adverbs in a sentence.

The conclusion of the qualification work sums up the ideas discussed in the main part and shows the ways of implying of the qualification work.

CHAPTER- I. GENERAL DEFINITION OF ADVERBS AND ITS ROLE IN ENGLISH AND OTHER LANGUAGES.

1.1. Adverbs in English

An adverb is a part of speech. It is any word that modifies any other part of language: verbs, adjectives, (including numbers), clauses, sentences and other adverbs, except for nouns; modifiers of nouns are primarily determiners and adjectives.

Adverbs typically answer such questions as how?, when?, where?, To what extent?, In what kind or how often? This function is called the adverbial function, and is realized not just by single words (i.e., adverbs) but by adverbial phrases and adverbial clauses. Adverbs also describe adjectives, verbs, and other adverbs.

An adverb as an adverbial may be a sentence element in its own right.

They treated her well. (subject + verb + object + adverbial)

Alternatively, an adverb may be contained within a sentence element.

An extremely small child entered the room. (subject + adverbial + object + verb)

Examples

- The waves came in **quickly** over the rocks.
- I found the film **amazingly** dull.
- The meeting went **well**, and the directors were **extremely** happy with the outcome.
- Crabs are known for walking **sideways**.
- I **often** have eggs for breakfast.

The adverb is a word denoting circumstances or characteristics which attend or modify an action, state, or quality. It may also intensify a quality or characteristics. From this definition it is difficult to define adverbs as a class, because they comprise a most heterogeneous group of words, and there is considerable overlap between the class and other word classes. They have many kinds of form, meaning and function. Alongside such undoubted adverbs as *here*, *now*, *often*, *seldom*,

always, there are many others which also function as other word classes. Thus, adverbs like *dead* (dead tired), *clear* (to get clear away), *clean* (I've clean forgotten), *slow*, *easy* (he would say that slow and easy) coincide with adjectives (*a dead body*, *clear waters*, *clean hands*). Adverbs like *past*, *above* are homonymous with prepositions. There is also a special group of pronominal adverbs *when*, *where*, *how*, *why* used either as interrogative words or as connectives to introduce subordinate clauses.

The adverb is a part of speech characterized by the following features:

1. The lexico-grammatical meaning of “qualitative, quantitative or circumstantial characteristics of actions, states or qualities”.
2. The category of the degrees of comparison.
3. Typical stem-building affixes, as in *quick-ly*, *sideways*, *clock-wise*, *back-wards*, *a-shore*, etc.
4. Its unilateral combinability with verbs, adjectives, adverbs, less regularly with adlinks and nouns.
5. The function of adverbial complement, sometimes other functions.

There are several different classes of adverb. They are often formed from adjectives or nouns by adding the suffix -ly. For example: Quick becomes quickly, sudden becomes suddenly, intelligent becomes intelligently.

To form an adverb from adjectives ending in -y change the y to i before adding the -ly. For example: angry becomes angrily, busy becomes busily. To form an adverb from adjectives ending in -e drop the -e before adding the -ly. For example: feeble becomes feebly, true becomes truly. Some adjectives ending in -ly need no changes. For example: heavenly. However there are exceptions. For example: sly becomes slyly, shy becomes shyly. Some adverbs do not end in -ly. For example: fast, hard, straight.

The degrees of comparison of Adverbs

The category of the degrees of comparison of adverbs is similar to that of adjectives. It is a system of three-member opposemes (*soon — sooner — soonest; actively — more actively — most actively*) showing whether the characteristic the adverb contains is absolute or relative. In Russian these three-member opposemes have the same forms: поздно, позднее, самый поздний. When compare with Russian second form, i.e. comparative degree has suffix –ee and in superlative degree the word самый is put before an adverb. The ‘comparative’ and ‘superlative’ members of the opposeme are built up either synthetically (by means of affixation or suppletivity), or analytically (by means of word-morphemes). The synthetic and analytical forms are in complementary distribution like those of the adjective, only the number of synthetic forms is smaller inasmuch as there are fewer monosyllabic and disyllabic adverbs. For example: *lazy — lazier — (the) laziest, lazily — more lazily — most lazily*.

With regard to the category of the degrees of comparison adverbs (like adjectives) fall into comparables and non-comparables. The number of non-comparables is much greater among adverbs than among adjectives. In other words, there are many adverbs whose lexemes contain but one word (*yesterday, always, northward, upstairs, etc.*). In Russian we can meet the same thing: вчера, здесь, всегда.

As the definition of the lexico-grammatical meaning shows, adverbs may be divided into three lexico-grammatical subclasses: qualitative, quantitative and circumstantial.

Qualitative adverbs like *loudly, quickly, brightly, etc.* usually modify verbs, less often adlinks. They show the quality of an action or state much in the same way as a qualitative adjective shows the quality of some substance. For instance, *speaks loudly and loud speech, walks quickly and a quick walk*. But in Russian adverb is used: говорить громко, громкий голос, быстро ехать.

The connection between qualitative adverbs and adjectives is obvious. In most cases the adverb is derived from the adjective with the help of the most

productive adverb-forming suffix *-ly*. Like the corresponding adjectives qualitative adverbs usually have opposites of the comparative and superlative degrees.

On the strength of this likeness **A. I. Smirnitsky** advances the view that *quick* and *quickly* might be treated as belonging to the same part of speech, but having different combinability⁵. In other words, *quick* — *quickly* might be regarded as an adjectival grammatical opposeme, and *-ly* as a grammatical morpheme of “adverbiality”. We must take issue with Prof. Smirnitsky over this theory.

1. The most typical feature of a grammatical morpheme distinguishing it from a lexico-grammatical one is its relativity.⁶ As stated in page 10, the morpheme *-s* in *books* denotes ‘plurality’ because *books* is opposed to *book* with the zero morpheme of ‘singularity’. In the opposeme *quick* — *quickly* it is also possible to assert that *-ly* denotes ‘adverbiality’ because *quickly* is opposed to *quick* with the zero morpheme of ‘adjectivity’. But in *purpose* — *purposely*, *part* — *partly*, *night* — *nightly* *-ly* denotes ‘adverbiality’, though it is not opposed to the zero morpheme of ‘adjectivity’, but rather to that of ‘substance’. In *first* — *firstly*, *second* — *secondly*, *third* — *thirdly*, etc. *-ly* denotes ‘adverbiality’ though it is opposed to ‘numerality’. In *mocking* — *mockingly*, *admiring* — *admiringly*, *confused* — *confusedly*, *broken* — *brokenly*, etc. the ‘adverbiality’ of *-ly* is opposed to ‘participiality’, etc. In short, the ‘adverbial’ meaning in *-ly* is not relative, and *-ly* is not a grammatical morpheme.

2. The suffix *-ly* is a lexico-grammatical morpheme which accounts for its being common to all the words of an adverb lexeme (see A.I. Smirnitsky, op. cit. p. 14), e. g. *violently* — *more violently* — *most-violently*.

wonderfully- more wonderfully – most wonderfully

fluently - more fluently - most fluently

3. Though *-ly* is very productive, there are other lexico-grammatical morphemes forming the stems of qualitative adverbs from adjective stems, or else

⁵ А.И. Смирницкий, О.С. Ахманова. Образования типа *stone wall*, *speech sound* в английском языке. Инст. Язык-я, доклады. М., т. 2. стр. 97

⁶ W. N. Francis. *The Structure of American English*. New York, 1958, p. 284.

adverbs and adjectives are related by conversion. For example, loud (a.) — loudly, loud (adv.), aloud; long (a.) — long (adv.), longways, longwise.

4. There are many adjectives in -ly related by conversion with corresponding adverbs early, daily, deadly, etc.

There are other adjectives in -ly which have no corresponding adverbs, e. g. lovely, lonely, lively, etc.

5. The comparison of such words as

high a. — high adv., highly,

late a. — late adv., lately,

hard a. — hard adv., hardly,

near a. — near adv., nearly

soon – sooner – soonest

early – earlier – earliest

It shows that the suffix -ly introduces changes in the lexical meanings of words, so that words with and without -ly cannot belong to the same opposeme or lexeme.

Some adverbs have superlative forms of comparison.

well - better – best

badly – worse - worst

The words probably, possibly, luckily, etc., derived from adjective stems, are no longer adverbs but modal words, so that the adjectives probable, possible, lucky have no corresponding adverbs, but they have corresponding modal words with the suffix -ly.

All these and similar facts show that -ly is not an inflexion but a highly productive stem-building suffix. Therefore quick and quickly are not members of a grammatical opposeme. They have different stems and belong to different lexemes. These lexemes with different stems, different combinability and different syntactical functions, naturally, belong to different parts of speech.

Russian in this case has ending –(н)о (most Russian adverbs end in this suffix: скоро, поздно, быстро, современно, дурно и т.д.).

Thus, qualitative adverbs, with or without -ly, are a subclass of adverbs with peculiar lexico-grammatical features. As they characterize the quality of an action or state, they are inwardly bound with a verb or an adlink and are usually placed as close as possible to the verb or adlink they modify.

And then nature mercifully intervened.

Tony and the daughter of the Polish governor catch one glimpse of each other and are madly aflame.

Quantitative adverbs like very, rather, too, nearly, greatly, fully, hardly, quite, utterly, twofold, etc. show the degree, measure, quantity of an action, quality, state, etc.

The combinability of this subclass is more extensive than that of the qualitative adverbs. Besides verbs and adlinks quantitative adverbs modify adjectives, adverbs, numerals, modals, even nouns.

You've quite vamped the foreman.

Rather disconsolate she wandered out into the cathedral.

She knew it only too well.

He had become fully aware of her.

It was nearly ten.

He is wholly master of the situation.

Very probably he won't budge.

The combinability of some adverbs of this subclass can be rather narrow. The adverb very (frightfully, awfully, etc.), for instance, mostly precedes those adjectives and adverbs which have opposites of comparison. It does not, as a rule, modify verbs, adlinks or numerals.

The combinability of nearly or almost, on the other hand, is so extensive, that these words are close to particles.

Quantitative adverbs are correlative with quantitative pronouns, such as much, (a) little, enough.

Circumstantial adverbs serve to denote various circumstances (mostly local and temporal) attending an action. Accordingly they fall under two heads:

a) adverbs of time and frequency (yesterday, to-morrow, before, often, again, twice, etc.),

b) adverbs of place and direction (upstairs, inside, behind, homewards).

Circumstantial adverbs are not inwardly connected with the verbs they are said to modify. They do not characterize the action itself but name certain circumstances attending the action described in the sentence and usually referring to the situation as a whole. Therefore a circumstantial adverb can be used in a sentence in which the only verb is a link-verb, i. e. where no action is described.

He will be ten to-morrow.

This accounts for the fact that, unlike qualitative and quantitative adverbs, circumstantial adverbs are not necessarily placed near the verb, they may occupy different places in the sentence. E. g.

It wasn't any too warm yesterday.

Yesterday they had a snow-squall out west.

When H. Sweet⁷ speaks of adverbs, as showing "almost the last remains of normal free order in Modern English", it concerns, mostly, circumstantial adverbs. Similarly G. Curme's⁸ words that "An adverb can freely stand in almost any position" mainly apply to circumstantial adverbs.

Barring some adverbs with the -ward(s) suffix (backwards, inwards), the -ice suffix (twice, thrice), circumstantial adverbs have no typical stem-building elements (compare with the -ly suffix incident to qualitative adverbs). They are often morphologically indivisible (north, home, down, etc.), even more often are they related by conversion with prepositions (in, out, behind), conjunctions (since, before), nouns (north, home), adjectives (late, far) or they are homonymous with lexical word-morphemes.

Only a small group of circumstantial adverbs denoting indefinite time and place (soon, late, often, near, far) have opposites of comparison. Most adverbs of this subclass form no opposemes of any grammatical category.

⁷ H. Sweet. A new English grammar. Logical and historical. Oxford. parag. 58

⁸ G. Curme. Syntax. N.Y. 1931. p. 542

Circumstantial adverbs are mostly used in the function of adverbial modifiers of time and place.

See you tonight. Going clear down-town?

But sometimes they can be used in other functions, e. g. as attributes. E. g.

See the notes above.

The room upstairs is vacant.

The words of an adverb lexeme like soon — sooner— soonest represent three grammemes with one actual grammatical meaning each. Lexemes like forward, yesterday, ahead contain but one word each with the oblique grammatical meaning of the ‘positive degree’. There are no adverbs in English with the oblique meaning of the ‘comparative’ and the ‘superlative’ degrees. Thus we may speak of but four grammemes in the class of adverbs.

When comparing English and Russian adverbs as parts of speech, one may say that they differ but slightly. Their lexico-grammatical meanings, morphological categories, combinability and syntactical functions are fundamentally the same.

Nevertheless, certain distinctions are worth noting.

1. The stem-building (lexico-grammatical) morphemes of Russian adverbs are somewhat more numerous and varied.

2. Among the adverb building morphemes we find several suffixes of subjective appraisal (**-онько\енько, -онечко\-енечко, -охонько\-ехонько, -овато**), which are absolutely alien to English.

3. The adverbialization of substantival or adjectival grammemes, (e. g. шагом, стрелой, весной) is the most productive way of forming adverbs in Russian ⁹, whereas in English it is less common.

4. As to the degrees of comparison one might say that the synthetic form of the superlative grammeme (подробнейше, нижайше, малейше) is no longer used colloquially and is employed for some stylistic purpose. The corresponding English grammeme (oftenest, soonest) occurs in different speech styles.

⁹ see any Russian Grammar book.

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

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.")

1.2. Adverbs in other languages

Other languages may form adverbs in different ways, if they are used at all:

In Dutch and German, 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 Danish adverbs are typically derived from adjectives by adding the suffix '-t'. Danish adjectives, like English ones, are inflected in terms of comparison by adding '-ere' (comparative) or '-est' (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, Italian) or '-ment' (French, Catalan). Other adverbs are single forms which are invariable. In Romanian, the vast majority of adverbs are simply the masculine singular form of the corresponding adjective – one notable exception being bine ("well") / bun ("good").

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'.

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

Japanese forms adverbs, depending on the adjective's nature, either by changing the final syllable from *to* to *ku* or by changing the particle that follows from *to* to *ku*. Certain adjectives cannot be made into adverbs, among other restrictions on their use. In Irish, an adverbial form is made by preceding the adjective with "*go*" (literally "until").

In Modern Greek, an adverb is most commonly made by adding the ending *-α* 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, *καλός* (/kalós/, meaning "good" or "correct") yields *καλά* (/kalá/, "well") and *καλώς* (/kalós/, "correctly"). Not all adjectives can be transformed into adverbs by using both endings. *Γρήγορος* (/ghríghoros/ "fast") becomes *γρήγορα* (/ghríghora/, "quickly"), but not normally **γρηγόρως*. 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 *επισήμως* (/episímos/) and *επίσημα* (/epísima/), which both mean "officially".

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 from 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, an adverb is formed by removing the adjectival suffixes "-ий" "-а" or "-е" from an adjective, and replacing them with the adverbial "-о". For example, "швидкий", "гарна", and "добре" (fast, nice, good) become "швидко", "гарно", and "добро" (quickly, nicely, well). As well, note that adverbs are placed before the verbs they modify: "Добрий син гарно співає." (A good son sings nicely/well)

A word should be said about *adverb-qualifiers*.

Among adverbs there are some which have degrees of comparison and others which have not.

Adverbs in the comparative degree, whether formed by adding the suffix *-er* or analytically by adding *more* and *most* may take the same qualifiers that comparative adjectives do, e. g.: *still more difficult, a little louder*.

The adverbial meaning can be intensified by adding *right, far, by far*, e. g. : *far ahead, right ahead, far better, better by far, far down, far below*, etc.

Intensity of adverbial meaning may also be produced by the use of *full* and *well* as intensifiers. The latter are survivals of Old English and less frequent in present-day use, e. g.: *He was well out of sight; well ahead*, etc.

A special point of linguistic interest is presented by the development of "merged" or "separable" adverbs. The term "merged" is meant here to bring out the fact that such separable compounds are lexically and grammatically indivisible and form a single idea.

Considered in their structure, such "separable" compounds may be classified as follows:

a)preposition + noun: *at hand, at home, by heart, on horseback, on foot* (= *by foot* — *arch.*), *in turn, to date*;

b)noun + preposition + noun: *arm in arm, day by day, day after day, day to day, face to face, word for word, year by year*;

c) **preposition + substantivised adjective:** *at last, at first, at large, in large, in full, in quiet, in short, in vain, of late, of old;*

d) **preposition + verbal noun** made through conversion: *at a guess, at a run, in a rush, on the move, on the run;*

e) **preposition + numeral:** *at first, at once, at one, by twos;*

f) **coordinate adverbs:** *by and by, on and off (= off and on), on and on;*

g) **pronoun + adjective (or participle):** *all right, all told, O. K. (all correct);*

h) **preposition + pronoun:** *after all, in all, at all.*

In point of fact most adverbs of that kind may be reasonably referred to as grammatical idioms. This can be seen, for instance, in the unusual absence of the article before their noun components and specialised use of the noun in its singular form only: *on foot* (but not *on the foot*, or *on feet* which may occur in free prepositional word-groups), *in fact* (but not *in the fact*), *at first* (but not *at the first*), etc.

Denoting subtle shades of adverbial meaning, adverbs of this type are quite plentiful not only in Modern English but in other European languages.

Russian: *на бегу, на лету, в сердцах.*

Ukrainian: *на льоту, в гості, в гостях.*

French: *en bas, en vain, par сьур.*

German: *nach Hause, zu Hause, von Hand*, etc.

Discussing the nature of such adverbs in Russian V. V. Vinogradov points out:

«У ряда слов смешанное употребление формы, совмещающей значения имени существительного и наречия, ведет к тонким и изменчивым смысловым нюансам. Происходит своеобразное колебание формы между функциями имени существительного и наречия. Например, *на ходу*: «На скором ходу мы сбросили телегу и не слышали толчка» (Л. Толстой); «Он на ходу шатался от изнеможения» (Тургенев), но «Бросил несколько слов на ходу» (т. е. мельком, торопливо) и т. п.; *на бегу*: «И свист саней на всем бегу» (А. Толстой); «Алешка, щелкая на бегу подсолнухи, скрылся за воротами» (Чехов) Ср. «Успел на бегу перекусить и ушел на вечернюю работу», «перекинуться

словами набегу» и т. п. *Ср. на лету и налету»* .

The frequency value of merged adverbs is on a marked increase in present-day English contributing very much to the development of structural synonyms, such as, for instance:

*chiefly — in chief finally — in fine fully —
in full partly — in part quietly — in quiet
suddenly — of a sudden vainly — in vain
kindly — in kind*

He spoke so warmly that I had to answer in kind. (Snow) These are not always interchangeable and may differ not only in shades of adverbial meaning but in their stylistic value. Thus, for instance, such compounds as *in fine*, *in vain*, *in chief* are decidedly more bookish, more formal than the simple adverbs of similar meaning. Some of them are interchangeable with simple adverbs only in some contexts of their use.

1. 3. Kinds of adverbs

According to their meaning adverbs may be divided into several groups:

1. Adverbs of Place and Direction (O'rin-joy va yo'nalishni bildiruvchi ravishlar):

here, there, near, behind, within, outside, upstairs.

2. Adverbs of Time (Payt ravishi): **today, tomorrow, then, after, now, soon.**

3. Adverbs of Manner (Holat ravishi) : **quickly, strongly, slowly, well, thus.**

4. Adverbs of Repetition and Frequency (Takroriy ravishlar):

often, seldom, ever, never, sometimes, always.

5. Adverbs of Cause and Consequence (Sabab va natija ravishi):

therefore, consequently, accordingly, because

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.

Then she heard the kitchen door open.

“Tomorrow we’ll sleep in the king’s bed,” Bonello said ¹⁰

Sometimes we talked and were good friends.

He used to come **here** with a blind beggar he used.

Well I am going to be **there** several weeks.

But as he came **downstairs**, he noticed that the bolts on the front door had been shot bask.

He stopped **forward** and handed Mrs. Hall something

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.

¹⁰ U.Hoshimov.,J.Buronov., “Ingliz tili grammatikasining normativ kursi”, Toshkent “O’qituvchi” 1989 y., p.35

When a group of words not containing a subject and verb acts as an adverb, it is called an adverbial phrase. Prepositional Phrase 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 Phrase can act as adverbs (usually telling why):

She hurried to the mainland to see her brother.

The senator ran to catch the bus.

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

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

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She still lives there now.

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Adverbs of Time

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It's starting to get dark now.

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Adverbs of Purpose

She drives her boat slowly to avoid hitting the rocks.

She shops in several stores to get the best buys.

1.4. Position of adverbs

The place of adverbs in the sentence is not fixed. They may be used at the beginning, in the middle and in the end of the sentence.

a) at the beginning of the sentence (gapning boshida)

Sometimes we talked and were good friends but tonight it was difficult.

“Tomorrow,” he said, “You come down here and buy yourself a skirt.”

b) in the middle of the sentence (gapning o’rtasida)

He was **nearly** home now.

I **never** thought about anything.

c) in the end of the sentence (gapning oxirida)

“Now,” said Druet, “Why don’t you move **tonight?**”

Is anything wrong, son? She asked **anxiously**.

Adverbs are mainly used as an adverbial modifier in the sentence.

Then she heard the kitchen door open. “Tomorrow we’ll sleep in the king’s bed,” Bonello said.

- You’re dressed **early**, the old woman said sharply.
- I want I **now**, Catherine said.
- The man was **here** for the rent to-day.
- Don’t you want the paper? You **always** wanted the paper in the hospital.
- Lanny frowned **thoughtfully**.
- Look at the women’s dress over **there**, he said, again turning to Carrie, and nodding in a direction.
- One of them is my wife, I said. I have come here to meet her.
- When it was all in, the three cars stood in line down the drive-way under the trees in the rain. We went inside.
- **Tenderly** he kissed her on the lips and wiped the tears away.
- The words irritated Hurstwood **greatly**.
- Outside the mist turned to rain and in a little while it was raining **hard** and we heard it drumming on the roof.
- This was his last cu of tea at Fatty’s. He smiled **thoughtfully**.

- Well, you know what I am **here** for, don't you said the man **confidentially**.
- **Sometimes** we walked down the mountain into Montreux.
- **Suddenly** the old woman stopped talking and looked at him.
- I'll get a license **today**, he answered.
- **Where** were you wounded, Ettore? asked the vise-consul.
- They **rarely** spoke to each other, she and Gert.
- The drummer **usually** allowed his ardent good-mature to get better of his speech.
- At dinner I ate very **quickly** and left for the villa where the British had their hospital.
- He used to come **here** with a blind beggar he used.
- Well, I am going to be **there** several weeks.
- Signs were everywhere numerous.
- He was looking **back**.
- But as he came **downstairs**, he noticed that the bolts on the front door had been shot bask.
- He stopped **forward** and handed Mrs Hall something...
- I turned **hither** and **thither** among the trees.

Adverbs of Time:

- I guess she **just** wants to look out a while.
- **All day** he hung round the cover or upon cliffs with a brass telescope.
- I had sat down **already** in my own corner and began to eat.
- **Every day** when he came back from his stroll he would ask if any men had gone by along the road.
- All this while as I say I was **still** running and without taking any notice I had drawn near to the foot of the little hill with the two peaks.
- **Then** you are bringing four of your own people with you.
- While I was still in this delightful dream we came **suddenly** in front of a large inn. He was **now** armed.
- **Tonight** she would see Lanny.

- I'll be back **soon**, father.
- Well, she said, I think I'll look around **tomorrow**.
- She could see then moving **now and then**, upon the upper floors
- On Monday she arose **early** and prepared to go to work.
- **Someday** you'll understand.

Adverbs of manner

- He inquired surveying her **curiously**.
- Oh, you haven't, eyeing her **keenly**.
- She boarded a car in the best of spirits, feeling her blood still flowing **unpleasantly**.

Adverbs of Repetition and Frequency

- My father was **always** saying the inn would be ruined for people would soon cease coming there to be tyrannized over put down and sent shivering to their bed.
- You've **never** called me before.
- Why doesn't he **ever** come up and talk to me?
- And **often**, inside the house, he would think about his Jewishness
- **Sometimes** the isle was thick with savages with whom we fought.
- That was all very well to draw **once or twice**.

Adverbs of Degree, Measure and Quantity

- **Once** a day and **once** a night I return.
- By God, he said in a whisper his is **too much** foe me?
- Indeed I may say there is **hardly** a better place of concealment in the United Kingdom.
- Your daughter will do **well enough**.
- You are the most **different** person I know.
- She also was **much** incensed by what had passed.
- They **once** had an original Braque.
- I can **hardly** breath I wear them so tight.

Interrogative Adverbs

- **Why** wasn't my breakfast laid?
- **How** is it?
- **Where** have they put my clothes?
- It was already candlelight when we reached the hamlet and I shall never forget **how much** I was cheerful to see the yellow shine in doors and windows.

Adverbs of Cause and Consequence.

- All was drawing a low and aloft: every one was in the bravest spirits, **because** we were now so near and of the first part of our adventure.
- It was on the contrary **because** she left too wide-eyed and wished to check the sense of seeing too many things at once.
- If once I know I could talk to you accordingly.
- Her situation at Garden court therefore appreciated as we have seen her to be By Isabel and full of appreciation herself of that free play of intelligence which, to her sense rendered Isabel's character a sister spirit.
- Caspar Goodwood was accordingly the next moment shaking hands with her, but saying nothing till the servant had left the room.
- I always feel **easier** in my mind when he is here.
- And the shock of his alarm, the fewer predicted by Dr. Livesey, was evidently growing swiftly **higher**.
- Mr. Hall's compliments, as the furniture upstairs was behaving **most extraordinary**.
- And suddenly and **most wonderfully** the door of the room upstairs opened of its own accord, and as they saw descending the stairs the muffled figure of the stranger, staring more blackly and blankly than ever with those unreasonably large glass eyes of his.
- A lean-faced, rather commonplace woman recognized Carrie on the platform and hurried forward.
- **And now** I began to feel that I was neglecting my business. Ask him, she pleaded **softly**.

- I'll be near though in case she isn't here and take you out there **safely**.
- Oh, let me go she exclaimed **angrily**.
- He had risen from his position to his hands and his knees.
- And **here** a fresh alarm brought me to a standstill with a thumping heart.
- And **immediately** I began to prefer the dangers that I knew to those I knew not.
- Drive **carefully**.
- Susan plays the piano very **well**.
- Tom shouted at me **angrily**.
- Tom looked at me **sadly**.
- He looked at me **angrily**, when I interrupted him
- My mother cooks **well**.
- It's **reasonably cheap** restaurant and the food is **extremely good**.
- Oh, I'm **terribly sorry**.
- Maria learns languages **incredibly quickly**.
- I was **bitterly disappointed** that I didn't get the job.
- The examination was **surprisingly easy**.

You can use **adverb** before a **past participle**:

- The meeting was **badly organized**.
- The driver of the car was **seriously injured** in the accident.
- The building was **totally destroyed** in the fire.

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.

The royal order of adverbs

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.

The order of adverbs is shown in the table below:

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.
Tom naps		in her room	every morning	before lunch.	

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.

Adverbs can modify adjectives

An adjective can be modified by an adverb, which precedes the adjective.

That's **really** nice.

Adverbs can modify adverbs

Some adverbs can modify others. As with adjectives, the adverb precedes the one it is modifying.

She did it **really well**.

Adverbs can modify nouns

Adverbs can modify nouns to indicate time or place.

The concert **tomorrow**.

The room **upstairs**.

Adverbs can modify noun phrases

Some adverbs of degree such as quite, rather, so, such ... can modify noun phrases.

We had **quite** a good time.

They're **such** good friends.

Adverbs can modify determiners, numerals and pronouns

Adverbs such as almost, nearly, hardly, about, etc., can be used:

Nearly everyone, who was invited, came to the party.

Adverbs can modify sentences

Some adverbs modify a whole sentence, not just a part of one.

Luckily the car stopped in time. In this sentence luckily modifies the whole sentence, it shows that it was good luck that the car stopped in time.

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."

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.

Position of Peculiar Adverbs

Adverb of Manner (e.g.: slowly, carefully, awfully)

These adverbs are put behind the direct object (or behind the verb if there's no direct object).

subject	verb(s)	direct object	adverb
He	drove	the car	carefully.
He	drove		carefully.

Adverbs of Place

(e.g.: here, there, behind, above)

Like adverbs of manner, these adverbs are put behind the direct object or the verb.

subject	verb(s)	direct object	adverb
I	didn't see	him	here.
He	stayed		behind.

Adverbs of Time

(e.g.: recently, now, then, yesterday)

Adverbs of time are usually put at the end of the sentence.

subject verb(s) indirect object direct object time

I will tell you the story tomorrow.

If you don't want to put emphasis on the time, you can also put the adverb of time at the beginning of the sentence.

time subject verb(s) indirect object direct object

Tomorrow I will tell you the story.

Adverbs of Frequency

(e.g.: always, never, seldom, usually)

Adverbs of frequency are put directly before the main verb. If 'be' is the main verb and there is no auxiliary verb, adverbs of frequency are put behind 'be'. Is there an auxiliary verb, however, adverbs of frequency are put before 'be'.

subject	auxiliary/be	adverb	main verb	object, place or time
----------------	---------------------	---------------	------------------	------------------------------

I		often	go swimming	in the evenings.
---	--	-------	-------------	------------------

He	doesn't	always	play	tennis.
----	---------	--------	------	---------

We	are	usually		here in summer.
----	-----	---------	--	-----------------

I	have	never	been	abroad.
---	------	-------	------	---------

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.

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.

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.

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.

Inappropriate adverb order

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 of the order of adverbs

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.

CHAPTER-II. THE PROBLEMS OF ADVERBS IN ENGLISH.

2.1. Clauses with 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.

Clauses with 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.
- You've never called me before.
- Why doesn't he ever come up and talk to me.
- Sometimes he reads French books.

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).

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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.
- We've told the landlord about this ceiling again and again, and yet he's done nothing to fix it.
- We've told the landlord about this ceiling again and again, and yet he's done nothing to fix it.

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

2.2. The analysis of some peculiar adverbs of English

The adverbs Also / Too / Either

The following is a mini-tutorial on the use of the words "also," "too" and "either." After you have studied the tutorial, complete the associated exercises. If you already know how to use these words, you can skip the explanation and go directly to the exercises which are given in the second part of my work. .

Also

"Also" is used in positive sentences to add an agreeing thought.

Examples:

- Jane speaks French. Sam also speaks French.
- I love chocolate. I also love pizza.
- Frank can come with us. Nancy can also come with us.

PLACEMENT

"Also" comes after "to be."

Examples:

- I am also Canadian.
- I was also there.

With verbs other than "to be," "also" comes before single verb forms.

Examples:

- I also sing.
- He also helped us.

In verb tenses with many parts, "also" comes after the first part and before the second.

Examples:

- I have also been to Hong Kong.
- I am also studying economics.

Similarly, since modal verbs are usually followed by a second verb, "also" comes after modal verbs.

Examples:

- I can also speak French.
- I should also be there.

Too

"Too" is used in positive sentences to add an agreeing thought. It has the same meaning as "also," but its placement within the sentence is different.

Examples:

- Jane speaks French. Sam speaks French too.
- I love chocolate. I love pizza too.
- Frank can come with us. Nancy can come with us too.

PLACEMENT

"Too" usually comes at the end of a clause.

Examples:

- I am Canadian too.
- I can speak French too.
- I am studying economics too.
- If he wants to go too, he should meet us at 8:00.

IMPORTANT

Although "too" is usually placed at the end of a clause, it can sometimes be used with commas after the subject of the sentence. This is usually only done in formal speech. Examples:

- Mr. Jones wanted the contract. Ms. Jackson, too, thought it was necessary.
- Donna is working on a solution to the problem. I, too, am trying to find a way to resolve the conflict.

Either

"Either" is used in negative sentences to add an agreeing thought.

Examples:

Jane doesn't speak French. Sam doesn't speak French either.

I don't love chocolate. I don't love pizza either.

Frank cannot come with us. Nancy cannot come with us either.

Placement

"Either" usually comes at the end of a clause.

Examples:

I cannot speak French either.

I am not studying economics either.

I don't want to eat either.

I didn't like the movie either.

D. Confusing Sentences

Sometimes the first sentence is negative and the agreeing idea is positive.

Examples:

- The weather wasn't very appealing. I also wanted to stay home and finish my book. That's why I didn't go to the beach.
- The car wasn't expensive, and I needed a way to get around town too. That's why I bought it.

Sometimes the first sentence is positive and the agreeing idea is negative.

Examples:

- Jane is too short. She is not a good athlete either. I don't think she would make a good basketball player.
- He is lazy. He doesn't study either. That's why he doesn't do well in school

Practical exercises on the adverbs “**Also/Too/Either** ”

2.3. The role of Interactive Exercises in teaching Adverbs.

Language learning is a hard task which can sometimes be frustrating. Constant effort is required to understand, produce and manipulate the target language. Well-chosen Interactive methods are invaluable as they give students a break and at the same time allow students to practice language skills.

Methods should be regarded as supplementary activities.

When choosing a method, the teacher should be careful to find an appropriate one for the class in terms of language and type of participation.

Once the method has begun, the teacher **should not interrupt to correct mistakes in language use.**

The teacher **should not compel an individual to participate.** Some learners may not want to participate due to personal reasons. **Forcing pupils to participate usually does not have successful results.**

A method which looks wonderful on the paper may not work in the actual classroom setting. If it is tiring or boring, it should be stopped.

You should give clear instructions. Unless the learners know what he is expected to do and how to do it, the aim cannot be achieved, and the method cannot be acted. The role of interactive exercises is important to consolidate and understand the theme well and perfect. It helps to understand the topic widely.

In order to demonstrate how to use Interactive exercises in the classroom, some examples are provided below:

Here let us give an Interactive Exercise on the subject studied.

In questions 1 - 12, fill in the blanks with one of the following words:

also too either

1. Henry is very athletic. He loves swimming, surfing, snowboarding and skiing. Jason loves to swim and surf, but he hates all winter sports because he can't stand cold weather.
2. I am taking a great art history class at the junior college downtown. Sarah is in the class . We both love it.
3. I don't really like tomatoes. My brother doesn't like them .
4. Frank didn't like the layout of the apartment. He thought the location was rather inconvenient, so he decided to keep looking for a place to live.

5. Mr. Harris doesn't speak a word of French! He doesn't have any international experience . So, I really feel he is not the right candidate for the job.
6. Three experts came to the conclusion that the project had to be terminated at once. I, , finally realized the project was too dangerous to proceed.
7. Sharon was exhausted from a hard day's work and she wasn't in a party mood , so we decided to stay in and have a quiet evening at home.
8. Dave has been living and working in Poland for over five years. He has been taking night classes in Polish the entire time, so he speaks Polish very well.
9. Sam has a guidebook and a map of the region. He has a compass , so I think we should let him guide us out of here.
10. Sharon realized her boss had been embezzling money from the company and she wanted to go to the authorities. Doug, , thought it was time to call in the police.
11. JUDY: That was the most suspenseful movie I have ever seen - I really loved it! CINDY: It was really exciting! I thought it was really well made!
12. JUDY: That was the most suspenseful movie I have ever seen - I really loved it! CINDY: Me !

In questions 13 - 20, practice the placement of the word "also" by showing that sentence "b" does the same as sentence "a."

a. I am reading a book.

b. Sam is also reading a book.

13. a. I eat dinner at 6:00.

b. Fred dinner at 6:00.

14. a. I have been sitting here for more than an hour.

- b. She here for more than an hour.
15. a. I was at the party.
- b. He at the party.
16. a. I can sing well.
- b. They well.
17. a. I went to bed early last night.
- b. She to bed early last night.
18. a. I will have been in New York for more than a month by the time I leave.
- b. She in New York for more than a month by the time she leaves.
19. a. I might come with you.
- b. Dave with you.
20. a. I am going to be there before you.
- b. Martha there before you.

The adverbs “Even”/ Even Though / Even When / Even If/ Even So Even

The following is a mini-tutorial on the various uses of the word "even." After you have studied the tutorial, complete the associated exercises. If you already know how to use "even," you can skip the explanation and go directly to the exercises.

When a strong statement is made, the statement is often followed with an example containing "even." The word "even" adds shock, surprise, or excitement to the example.

Examples:

- He loses everything. He even lost his own wedding ring!
- John has amnesia, and he can't remember anything about the past. He can't even remember his own name!

- He could become anything. He could even become President of the United States!
- I love that author, and I have all of his books - even the ones which are out of print.

Even Though / Even When / Even If

"Even" can be combined with the words "though," "when" and "if." It emphasizes that a result is unexpected. Study the following examples and explanations to learn how these expressions differ.

Examples:

- Even though Bob studied very hard, he still failed his French tests.
Bob always studied hard. But, unfortunately, he failed the tests.
- Even when Bob studied very hard, he still failed his French tests.
Bob occasionally studied hard, but it didn't really make a difference. Every time he studied, he still failed.
- Even if Bob studied very hard, he still failed his French tests.
Bob didn't normally study very hard. But in the rare situation when he did try to study hard, he still failed the test.
- Jerry is never happy. Even though you do everything his way, he is still dissatisfied.
You do everything his way, but he is still dissatisfied.
- Jerry is never happy. Even when you do everything his way, he is still dissatisfied.
You sometimes try doing things his way, but he is still dissatisfied.
- Jerry is never happy. Even if you do everything his way, he is still dissatisfied.
You have tried doing things his way once or twice , but it makes no difference because he is still dissatisfied.

IMPORTANT

These expressions are not always interchangeable; the context of the sentence will affect your choice:

"Even though" is used when something is always done or a fact is mentioned.

"Even when" is used when something is occasionally done.

"Even if" is used when something is rarely done or just imagined.

Examples:

- Even though the interview went terribly yesterday, Cheryl got the job.

Correct

The interview went terribly, but she got the job.

- Even when the interview went terribly yesterday, Cheryl got the job. Not

Correct

This sentence is incorrect because the interview did not go terribly more than one time. There was only one interview so "when" is not the right word for this sentence.

- Even if the interview went terribly yesterday, Cheryl got the job. Correct

You have not talked to Cheryl since her interview. You imagine that the interview went terribly, but you think she probably got the job anyway.

- Even though he wins the lottery jackpot, he won't have enough money to pay off his debt. Not Correct

This sentence would suggest that he always wins the lottery.

- Even when he wins the lottery jackpot, he won't have enough money to pay off his debt. Not Correct

This sentence would suggest that he sometimes wins the lottery jackpot.

- Even if he wins the lottery jackpot, he won't have enough money to pay off his debt. Correct

There is a chance in a million that he might win the lottery jackpot, but it wouldn't make any difference because he still wouldn't have enough money to pay off his debt.

REMEMBER

The meaning and context of the sentence is very important when deciding whether to use "even though," "even when" or "even if."

Even So

"Even so" is very much like the word "but" or "however." "Even so" is different in that it is used with surprising or unexpected results.

Examples:

- She is loud and unfriendly. Even so, I like her.
She is loud and unfriendly, so it is unexpected that I like her.
- The bed is extremely large and heavy. Even so, Jim managed to carry it into the use by himself.
- It is unexpected that Jim could carry the bed by himself.
- Jane was sick for a couple days in Los Angeles. Even so, she said her trip to the United States was great.
- If she was sick, it is unexpected that she enjoyed her trip.

An Interactive Exercise

Use the following expressions to fill in the blanks. You may use each expression more than once.

even even though even when even if even so

1. It hasn't rained in weeks, and the weather forecaster said it should be warm and sunny tomorrow for the wine festival. But the weather isn't really important; it rains, the festival will take place.
2. These days a woman can do anything a man can do. She can be a jet pilot in the air force!
3. the science of medicine is advancing very quickly, there are many people in the world who die of diseases which are easily cured because they can't afford to pay for treatment.
4. Jessica is extremely beautiful and graceful. , I think it will be very difficult for her to break into the world of international modeling.
5. Samantha is very easily insulted. a person complements her, she takes it

as an insult.

6. My dog eats everything - ice cream!

7. Fred is a brilliant computer programmer. he doesn't go to university, he will be able to survive just by doing webpage design.

8. the world is becoming increasingly global, many people remain ignorant to other cultures and languages.

9. He can do everything. He sings beautifully, speaks five languages, rock climbs... he cooks gourmet cuisine.

10. The movie was predictable and the acting was pretty bad. , I loved it because it was funny and I needed a good laugh.

11. it rained the whole time we were in Tahiti, I really enjoyed the trip. The scenery was spectacular and the scuba diving was great.

12. I always tell my children that they should never get into a car with a stranger, he or she looks like a nice person.

13. you feel completely sober, you should never drive after drinking.

14. I know the publishing world is incredibly competitive. , I have decided to quit my job so that I can try to write a novel.

15. Birds have adapted to every environment on Earth. They can be found in Antarctica.

16. I told Erica to be careful while snowboarding in Mammoth. I warned her, she pushed the limits and ended up breaking her leg.

17. Laura is a very optimistic person. things are not going her way, she still manages to keep a positive attitude.

18. Smoking has been proven to cause cancer and many other life-threatening illnesses. , many people continue to smoke.

19. The travel agency offers a great selection of organized tours and cruises which cater to all kinds of individuals. There's an adventure camping tour to

Mongolia for people over 65.

20. My work hours are very strange, and sometimes I get home very late. I get home late, I try to take the time to make a good, well-balanced meal.

2.4. The problems of Adverbs in English

Adverbs are considered a part of speech in traditional English grammar, which is derived from Latin 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 don't belong to one of the other parts of speech.

Problems with Adjectives and Adverbs

Adverbs and adjectives are modifiers but they modify different kind of words. Usually adjectives and adverbs are formed in different ways. By knowing how they are formed, you can be sure to use them correctly. Mostly, adverbs are formed with the ending 'ly'

Adjectives: loud screaming, warm clothes, beautiful painting

Adverbs: scream loudly, warmly dressed, beautifully painted

As you see above, the adjectives--loud, warm, beautiful--change to adverbs with an 'ly' added to the end of each one. Some adverbs are formed in other ways. If the adjective ends in:

'll' add only a 'y'; full becomes fully.

'y' change the 'y' to 'i' and add 'ly'; happy becomes happily

'le' change the 'le' to 'ly'; horrible becomes horribly

'ic' add 'al' before adding 'ly'; frantic becomes frantically

Some adjectives and adverbs have the same form. The list below shows some of them. Note especially that words ending with 'ly' are not always adverbs.

Adjectives and Adverbs with the same form:

daily	ill
early	low
far	near
fast	right
hard	straight
high	weekly

Remember that there is always not an adverb for every adjective.

Problems with Adjectives and Adverbs:

Adverbs can often be moved around in a sentence without changing the meaning or making the sentence unclear.

Listening to jazz relaxes me **slowly**.

I am relaxed when I listen to jazz **slowly**.

Sometimes putting an adverb in the wrong position can change the meaning of a sentence. Compare the meaning of these two sentences:

Leyla **actually** told me that they eat raw fish.

Leyla told me that they **actually** eat raw fish.

When an adverb is placed too far from the word it modifies, it can make the meaning of the sentence unclear.

I'll **just** give you an hour to finish your work.

A reader may wonder exactly what is meant in this sentence. Moving the adverb just to the right position will make it clear.

I'll give you **just** an hour to finish your work.

Intensifying adverbs

Please correct the following sentences:

1. It's absolute terrible weather.
2. You're complete wrong.
3. I'm terrible tired.

What's the rule?

Two uses of intensifying adverbs are:

(1) to modify (affect the meaning of) adjectives:

Example

It's a highly sophisticated product.

(2) to modify other adverbs:

Example

He drives terribly fast.

Test it out

Exercise 1

Which sentence in each pair below is the correct one?

1. (a) We installed a complete new system.
(b) We installed a completely new system.
2. (a) It was a really enjoyable film.
(b) It was a real enjoyable film.
3. (a) The product is full guaranteed for a year.
(b) The product is fully guaranteed for a year.
4. (a) The new car was a closely guarded secret.
(b) The new car was a close guarded secret.
5. (a) He's a highly paid executive.
(b) He's a high paid executive.

Now, look at these intensifying adverbs and then do exercise

2. A	B	C	D	E
completely	badly	quite	partly	barely
absolutely	deeply	rather	slightly	scarcely
entirely	greatly		hardly	
fully				

Exercise 2

Choose one adverb from the appropriate column in the diagram to fill the gap in each sentence: 1. (A) He's a qualified engineer.

2. (B) It was a written report and it needed a lot of corrections.

3. (C) They were impressed by the new product. It wasn't bad at all.
4. (D) He was only responsible for the mistake.
5. (E) I slept at all last night.

Adverbs of frequency are very often taught simultaneously when handling the simple present.

One or two words (usually 'often' and/or 'always') might sometimes be taught a lesson or two earlier than the others to help clarify the simple present and its use with 'daily routine', but that depends more on the context than a need to teach them first, I think.

The most common way that I've seen that people (and course books) introduce them is using a cline, something like this:

always

often rarely

sometimes never

Two words of caution, though:

The word 'usually' acts very differently to the other adverbs of frequency. People tend to introduce it as being somewhere between 'always' and 'often', but unlike the others it needs to be situational. That is, 'usually' is nearly always used in conjunction with a specific time or activity. Compare the following:

- | | |
|--|--------------------------------|
| (1) I often have a glass of wine with dinner. | (2) I often drink beer. |
| (3) I sometimes have a glass of wine with dinner. | (4) I sometimes drink beer. |
| (5) I occasionally have a glass of wine with dinner. | (6) I occasionally drink beer. |
| (7) I usually have a glass of wine with dinner. | (8) I usually drink beer. |

All of these sound okay except for number 8. 'Usually' is okay in 7 because the speaker is talking about what he/she does 'with dinner', but in 8 we are left thinking, "Okay, but when do you usually drink beer?"

The other word of caution, the actual frequency is relevant. For example, if you asked me, "How often do you go to the cinema?", my answer would be, "occasionally", and I go about once or twice a year. Ask my brother and he'd say "rarely", but he also goes once or twice a year. I live in China, where the cinema isn't very popular and he lives in Australia where it is very popular. Ss won't necessarily need to know these, because frequency words in many languages are just as relevant - but do be aware of this, because some languages are different, and you don't want Ss getting a surprise when they hear "He's always at the cinema" (meaning, two or three times a week, but being interpreted as every single day).

A more logical approach to dividing words into classes relies on recognizing which words can be used in a certain context. For example, a noun is a word that can be inserted in the following template to form a grammatical sentence:

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 can not. 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 (actually the first sentence could be interpreted in the same way as the second, but context makes it clear which is meant). Naturally as a sentential adverb means something like "of course" and as a verb-modifying adverb means "in a natural manner". The "hopefully" controversy 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 is not.

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.

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

CONCLUSION

So, the conclusion is that the problem of adverbs is very difficult for studying so for better understanding of this branch of grammar we should know the following.

An adverb is a part of speech. It is any word that modifies any other part of language: verbs, adjectives, (including numbers), clauses, sentences and other adverbs, except for nouns; modifiers of nouns are primarily determiners and adjectives.

Adverbs typically answer such questions as how?, when?, where?, To what extent?, In what kind or how often? This function is called the adverbial function, and is realized not just by single words (i.e., adverbs) but by adverbial phrases and adverbial clauses. Adverbs also describe adjectives, verbs, and other adverbs.

An adverb as an adverbial may be a sentence element in its own right.

For example,

- The waves came in **quickly** over the rocks.
- I found the film **amazingly** dull.
- The meeting went **well**, and the directors were **extremely** happy with the outcome.

In English, adverbs of manner (answering the question how?) are often derived from adjectives by using the suffix -ly. The -ly is a common, but not reliable, marker of a word being an adverb, since many adjectives also end in -ly. In some cases, the suffix -wise may be used to derive adverbs from typical nouns. Historically, -wise competed with a related form -ways and won out against it. In a few words, like sideways, -ways survives; words like clockwise show the transition. Again, it is not a foolproof indicator of a word being an adverb. There are a number of other suffixes in English that derive adverbs from other word classes, and there are also many adverbs that are not morphologically indicated at all. Comparative Adverbs include more, most, least, and less.

Formally, adverbs in English are inflected in terms of comparison, just like adjectives. The comparative and superlative forms of adverbs are generated by

adding -er and -est. Many adverbs are also periphrastically indicated by the use of more or most. Adverbs also take comparisons with as ... as, less, and least. The usual form pertaining to adjectives or adverbs is called the positive.

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 following adverbs of frequency appear in various points in these sentences:

Before the main verb: I never get up before nine o'clock.

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.

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.

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?

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.

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.

As it concerns the analysis of some peculiar adverbs we may notice the following which are mostly used in the English language.

"Also" is used in positive sentences to add an agreeing thought.

For example,

Jane speaks French. Sam also speaks French.

"Also" comes after "to be."

For example,

I am also Canadian.

With verbs other than "to be," "also" comes before single verb forms.

For example,

I also sing.

In verb tenses with many parts, "also" comes after the first part and before the second.

For example,

I have also been to Hong Kong.

Similarly, since modal verbs are usually followed by a second verb, "also" comes after modal verbs.

For example,

I can also speak French.

"Too" is used in positive sentences to add an agreeing thought. It has the same meaning as "also," but its placement within the sentence is different.

For example,

Jane speaks French. Sam speaks French too.

"Too" usually comes at the end of a clause.

For example,

I am Canadian too.

Although "too" is usually placed at the end of a clause, it can sometimes be used with commas after the subject of the sentence. This is usually only done in formal speech.

For example,

Mr. Jones wanted the contract. Ms. Jackson, too, thought it was necessary.

"Either" is used in negative sentences to add an agreeing thought.

For example,

Jane doesn't speak French. Sam doesn't speak French either.

"Either" usually comes at the end of a clause.

For example,

I cannot speak French either.

Sometimes the first sentence is negative and the agreeing idea is positive.

For example,

The weather wasn't very appealing. I also wanted to stay home and finish my book. That's why I didn't go to the beach.

Sometimes the first sentence is positive and the agreeing idea is negative.

For example,

Jane is too short. She is not a good athlete either. I don't think she would make a good basketball player.

Perspectives of the work

Some words of a language don't lend themselves well to the analysis in terms of semantic fields. Other important idea is the difficulty of finding finite sets of words. In any case, there's an internal contradiction between the ideas of a set with the structuring of words of a language. A set is a close set. A word can belong to several fields depending on the organizing concept. Speakers of the language clearly identify the central example but not the peripheral ones. This doesn't mean that it would never happen that. The degree of flexibility in the discrepancy of the categorization of words is smaller.

Ex: Please give me **some** more tables

The idea behind this is that the dynamic character of a vocabulary cannot be reflected in the static character of the semantic fields, which are a static way of organizing the vocabulary of a language.

Having analyzed the problem of adverbs in Modern English we could do the following conclusions:

a) The problem of adverbs in Modern English is very actual nowadays.

b) There are several kinds of adverbs which stand their unique position in speech.


c) A number of famous linguists dealt with the problem of adverbs in Modern English.

d) The problem of adverbs is still waits for its detail investigation.

Having said about the perspectives of the work we hope that this work will find its worthy way of applying at schools, lyceums and colleges of high education by both teachers and students of English. We also express our hopes to take this work its worthy place among the grammatical works dedicated to the problem of adverbs.

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APPENDIX

Appendix 1 The Royal Order of Adverbs

 THE ROYAL ORDER OF ADVERBS 					
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.	
	<p>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."</p> <p>When that happens, the introductory adverbial modifiers are usually set off with a comma.</p>				

Appendix 2

The Degrees of Comparison of adverbs

 THE DEGREES OF COMPARISON OF ADVERBS 				
Types of adverbs	Positive Degree	Comparative degree	Superlative degree	Notes
2-syllable adverbs	Slowly	Slowlier	Slowliest	Don't use the before the superlative degree of adverbs!
Polysyllable adverbs	Impatiently	More impatiently	Most impatiently	Don't use the before the superlative degree of adverbs!
Exceptions	Well	better	best	
	badly	worse	Worst	
	far	Farther/further	Farthest/furthest	

ADVERB

Ravish

ADJECTIVE+LY=ADVERB

LOUD+**LY**=LOUD**LY**



Don't speak so **loudly**!
Bunday baland gapirma!

USUAL+**LY**=USUAL**LY**



Do you **usually** work on Sunday?
Sen odatda yakshanbada ham ishlaysanmi?

SIMPLE+**LY**=SIMPL**Y**



I don't understand you. Speak **simply**!
Men sizni tushunmayapman. Soddaroq gapiring!

HAPPY+**LY**=HAPPIL**Y**



She played happily a minute ago
U bir daqiqa oldin baxtiyor o'ynayotgan edi

ADVERB

RAVISH

Qayerda? Qayerga?

here - bu yerda, bu yerga
there - u yerda, u yoqqa
where - qayerda, qayerga

Where?

Qachon?

now - hozir
often - tez-tez
usually - odatda

When?

joy

vaqt

Ma'no-mazmuni

harakat ko'rinishi

o'lchovlari va darajalari

How

well - yaxshi
badly - yomon
slowly - sust

Qanday? Qanday usulda?

How much

very - juda
little - kam
much - ko'p

Qancha? Qanchaga?

ADVERB

RAVISH

oddiy	qiyosiy	orttirma	oddiy	qiyosiy	orttirma
soon <i>yaqin orada</i>	sooner <i>tezroq</i>	soonest <i>hammadan ham</i>	well <i>yaxshi</i>	better <i>yaxshiroq</i>	the best - <i>hamma-</i> <i>dan yaxshi</i>
early <i>vaqtli</i>	earlier <i>avvallari</i>	earliest <i>avvaldan</i>	badly <i>yomon</i>	worse <i>yomonroq</i>	the worst - <i>ham-</i> <i>madan yomon</i>
			much <i>ko'p</i>	more <i>ko'proq</i>	the most - <i>ham-</i> <i>madan ko'p</i>
			little <i>oz</i>	less <i>ozroq</i>	the least - <i>ham-</i> <i>madan oz</i>
	- er	- est			

Bir xil murakkablikdagi
Ikki xil murakkablikdagi



Qiyosiy daraja

Sifatdan yasaluvchilar

	more	most
strongly <i>mustahkam</i>	more strongly <i>mustahkamroq</i>	most strongly <i>hammadan mustahkam</i>
quickly <i>tez</i>	more quickly <i>tezroq</i>	most quickly <i>hammaqan tez</i>
oddiy	qiyosiy	orttirma