Chapter Two

Literature Review and Previous Studies

2.0 Introduction:

This chapter reviews adjectives and adverbs in English language. It also presents and discusses previous studies about English adjectives and adverbs.

2.1 Formation of adjectives

Some adjectives are original or primary words such as dry, quick, hot, short, etc. Others are formed by adding a letter, a syllable, a suffix to some nouns, verbs, adverbs, and to some other adjectives. These two forms of adjectives are called base adjectives and derived adjectives respectively (Michael, 1996).

2.1.1 Base Adjectives

Thomas (1965: 153) defines base adjectives as those adjectives that “...contain no derivational suffixes, that is, they have not been made into adjectives from some other grammatical category”. The following adjectives are all base adjectives of one-syllables: tall, young, green, good, sad, large, nice, old, etc.

Many, however, have two syllables such as ugly, happy, common, pretty, quite, etc.

As a structuralist who believes in form and position, Francis (1958:270) defines base adjectives as those adjectives which, in addition to fitting both positions in the adjective identifying frame, also exhibit the following formal qualities:

a. They take the inflectional suffixes {-er} and {-est} to form the comparative and superlative degrees.
b. They are distinguished by the fact that they serve as stems from which nouns and adverbs are formed by the derivational suffixes {ness} and {ly}, respectively. The following examples illustrate the derivational paradigm which is of great importance in English:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adjective</th>
<th>Noun</th>
<th>Adverb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>strange</td>
<td>strangeness</td>
<td>strangely</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>black</td>
<td>blackness</td>
<td>blackly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>false</td>
<td>falseness</td>
<td>falsely</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bad</td>
<td>badness</td>
<td>badly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>good</td>
<td>goodness</td>
<td>well</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

c. Most of them are mono-syllabic and none have more than two syllables except a few that begin with a derivational prefix like [un-] as; uncommon, inhuman.

d. Some of them form verbs by adding the derivational suffix {en-}, the prefix {-en}, or both as brighten, cheapen, enlarge, enlighten, enliven.

### 2.1.2 Derived Adjectives

The other large class of adjectives is the derived adjectives. Thomas (1965:153) defines this type of adjectives as "those which are constructed from other parts of speech by the addition, transformationally, of one of the many allomorphs of the various adjectivalization transformations". He adds that "adjectives can be classified according to the various operations that transform them into adjectives since the majority of them were originally nouns or verbs". Francis (1958:276) asserts that in addition to being marked by derivational suffixes, derived adjectives contrast with base adjectives in the fact that they virtually never have the inflectional suffixes {-er} and {-est} except for some two-syllable ones, such as friendly. Their
comparative and superlative degrees are formed instead by the use of more and most. They may, however, form nouns in {-ness}, and all of them form adverbs in {-ly} including some of those which end in {-ly} such as friendly.

2.1.3 Adjectives and Nouns

Adjectives are related to, and distinguished from, nouns and pronouns. Formally, they differ from nouns in that they do not take the sibilant suffixes that are used to form the plural and the genitive; on the other hand, many of them take the suffixes {-er} and {-est} to form the comparative and superlative, while may be qualified by more and most.

Quirk et al (1986: 239) indicates that some items can be both adjectives and nouns. For example, criminal is an adjective and it can be used attributively as in:

A criminal attitude

and predicatively as in:

The attack seemed criminal to us.

Yet, criminal also has all the characteristics of a noun, since it can be:

(a) subject:

1- The criminal tried to escape.

(b) subject complement:

2- He may be a criminal.

(c) object:

3- The police caught the criminal.

(d) inflected for number:

4- One criminal, several criminals.
(e) Inflected for the genitive case:

5- The criminal's views were convincing.

(d) Preceded by articles and other determiners:

A criminal, that criminal

(g) Premodified by an adjective:

A violent criminal

So it is possible to say that criminal is both an adjective and a noun, and the relation between the adjective criminal and the noun criminal is that of conversion. The underlined nouns in the following sentences are like criminal in this respect, since they often function as adjectives:

(1) There was only one black in my class.

(2) He is investigating the ancients' conception.

(3) The king greeted his nobles.

(4) You won't find many classics in our library.

2.1.4 Adjectives as Nominals

Sometimes we find adjectives in nominal positions.

Christophersen and Sandved (1969: 115) present the following test frame:

The ____________ is/ are ____________

To find out those adjectives functioning as nominal, it is noticed that quite a number of adjectives (i.e. words that can take the suffixes {-er} and {-est}) can occur in this position, but there are some important points to note about the construction.

(1) Nearly all adjectives, in this position, take the particular determiner used in the above test frame (the definite article) and that determiner only.
(2) The verb is either singular or plural. On the basis of the form of the verb, two different constructions may be distinguished.

A:

1- The **best** is hardly good enough for him.
2- If the **worst** comes to the **worst**.
3- The bad in the book completely overshadows the **good**.

B:

1- The **strong** are more to be pitied than the **weak**.
2- The **old** are well provided for nowadays.
3- The **sick** were looked after by our nurses.

The following facts should be noted about the use of adjectives as nominals:

1. When the adjective is used in construction A, it hardly ever denotes a person unless it is combined with one of the suffixes {-er} and {-est}. Usually it denotes an abstract notion’. It should also be noted that when the meaning of this construction is generic; the construction cannot be used to denote specific, individual manifestations of the ‘quality’ denoted by the adjective.

2. Adjectives in construction B usually denote persons, but it is important to realize that these persons are viewed as a group. The strong/old/weak, etc., means ‘all strong/old/sick people, or at least ‘all that we are concerned with at the moment’. With a few exceptions, the construction cannot indicate a single individual or a small number of people. The most important exceptions are:
(a) If an adjective is preceded by the determiner 'the' in the nominal position traditionally known as ‘apposition’ after a proper name, it may refer to a single person as in:

- charles the Bold.

(b) If one of the suffixes {-er} or {-est} is added to an adjective, the construction with the may indicate a single individual as in:

1- The tallest of the girls was also the youngest.

This construction may also be used to refer to inanimate objects as in:

2- What sort of rice would you like? Oh, the cheapest you have got.

(c) The adjectives poor and young and a few others may be used with reference to individual living beings (with a meaning different from the whole group). They are also exceptional in that they may be preceded by other determiners than the, indeed poor may be used without a determiner as in:

1- She was watching a bird feeding its young.

2- She has her poor to attend to.

2- Are there still poor in America?

2.1.5 Nominalizations

Lakoff (1970:125) states that adjectives and verbs both undergo the same factive, action, and manner nominalizations and since the structures that result from these rules look identical; it is not certain whether there is a single rule that operates to produce these structures, or whether there is a battery of separated, but partially similar, rules. He adds that if the former is the case, then there is at least one more rule in a grammar of English that refers to {adj}. If there is more than
one rule, then the case is much stronger. The following are examples of such nominalizations:

1- Samia knows her problem ⇒ Samia’s knowledge of her problem.
2- Sami is cognizant of her problem ⇒ Samia’s cognizance of her problem.
3- Samia yelled ⇒ Samia’s yelling.
4- Samia was noisy ⇒ Samia’s noisiness.
5- Samia distrusted Muna ⇒ Samia’s distrust of Muna.
6- Samia was wary of Muna ⇒ Samia’s wariness of Muna.

In English there are three common phenomena related to adjectives, verbs and nouns. They are: (1) subject — Object Interchange (2) Agent Nominals and (3) Object Deletion

2.1.5.1 Subject Object Interchange

Lakoff (1970:126) states that it is possible to postulate a transformation that interchanges the subject and object of some adjectives and verbs, in order to account for the relationships between pairs of sentences like the following:

1- a. What she did amused me.
   b. I was amused at what she did.
2- a. What she did surprised me.
   b. I was surprised at what she did.
3- a. What she had done pleased me.
   b. I was pleased at what she done.
4- a. The teacher’s explanation satisfied me.
   b. I was satisfied with the teacher’s explanation.
5- a. We enjoy detective stories.
b. Detective stories are enjoyable to us.

Lakoff calls this transformation FLIP. In sentences (1-5), FLIP has applied to the sentences containing the verb. In (6), it has applied to the sentence containing the adjective. It seems that the underlying subject object relation is unchanged under nominalization as in:

6- My amusement at what she did.
7- My surprise at what she did.
8- My pleasure of what she had done.
9- My satisfaction with the teacher’s explanation.
10- Our enjoyment of detective stories.

2.1.5.2. Agent Nominals

Both adjectives and verbs may be transformed into agent nouns. For example:

1- a. She is beautiful.
   b. She is a beauty.
2- a. He is idiotic.
   b. He is an idiot.
3- a. Waleed is foolish.
   b. Waleed is a fool.
4- a. Muna cooks.
   b. Muna is a cook.

Adverbs that modify verbs and adjective are transformed into adjectives when the agent rule applies. Consider the following examples:

1- a. She is really beautiful.
   b. She is a real beauty.
So it is possible to say that AGENT is another rule that applies to both adjectives and verbs. Robert (1954).

2.1.5.3 Object Deletion

One more common phenomenon in English is the object deletion. There is a rule which deletes indefinite direct object pronouns optionally after certain verbs. Consider the following examples:

1. Jinan is eating something ⇒ Jinan is eating.
2. Jinan is drinking something ⇒ Jinan is drinking.

Similarly there is a rule that optionally deletes a preposition and an indefinite pronoun after certain adjectives as in:

1. The film was enjoyable to someone ⇒ The film was enjoyable.
2. The results are suggestive of something ⇒ The results are suggestive. Robert (1954).

2.1.6 Nouns Functioning as Adjectives

Zandvoort (1975:273) refers to the use of nouns as adjectives in the following two functions:

1. Nouns may be said to function as adjectives when they are used ‘attributively’. Attributive nouns may occur in any of the four following forms:

(a) The stem as in:
a college life, the toy store, the barber shop, a stone wall

(b) The plural as in:
The graduates lounge.

(c) The genitive singular as in:
The boy’s clothes.

(d) The genitive plural as in:
The boys’ clothes.

Names of countries usually have adjectives derived from (or connected with) them e.g: English, Welsh, German, Iraqi, etc. Moreover, we sometimes find the name of the country itself used attributively often with a slight difference in meaning as in: a Turky (or Turkish) and the Turkish Government.

Some names of foreign towns have adjectives derived from them, such as:
Parisian, Viennese, Venetian, Roman, Neopolitan.

Material nouns are often used attributively as in:
- All his books were in leather bindings.
- His parents were celebrating their silver wedding.
- The worker was killed by an iron bar falling on his head.

2. Like adjectives, nouns can function ‘predicatively’ after intensive verbs, in particular after Be. Consider the following examples:

(a) He turned traitor.
(b) Suha became a nurse.
(c) That man is a fool.
(d) The noise you heard was thunder.

Some nouns can also appear predicatively after seem:
(e) He seems a fool.

(f) Your remark seems nonsense to me.

(g) Basim’s friend seems very much an Englishman. (Quirk et al 1986: 241)

Some nouns can even function both attributively and predicatively. Moreover, these nouns are like adjectives in that they do not take number variation. The nouns denote material from which things are made of. Look at the following examples:

1- a. that concrete floor
   b. that floor is concrete
2- a. a copyright edition
   b. This edition is copyright.

Zandvoort (1975:275) believes that those nouns used as predicative adjectives may be looked at as cases of complete conversion.

2.1.7 Adjectives Functioning as Nouns

Just as nouns can be used as adjectives, many adjectives are used as nouns. Thomson & Martinet (1980: 18) refer to a number of adjectives that can be used as nouns like:

(1) Adjectives of quality as good/bad, poor/rich, healthy/sick, young/old, living /dead and certain other adjectives describing human character or condition. These nouns can be preceded by the. They represent a class of persons.

   The poor = poor people.
   The dead = dead people.

Consider the following examples:

1- The poor are often generous to each other.
2- After the battle, they buried the dead.
The forms ‘poor’ and ‘dead’ have a plural meaning. They are followed by a plural verb and the pronoun is they. They refer to a group or class of persons considered in a general sense only. If the reference is to a particular group, it is necessary to add a noun as in:

- The young men are fishing. (refers to particular young people).

Emotional adjectives such as silly, stupid, dear, innocent, may be used as vocatives in addressing a single person as in:

no, you silly.
you stupid
poor innocent
my dear

The adjectives may also be preceded by the indefinite article, and they may take a plural ending, in which case their conversion into nouns is complete. Consider the following examples:

(a) You’re such a silly

(b) Those boys are great sillies (Zandvoort 1975: 270).

In the case of the substantival use of adjectives to denote languages as in (1) and (2) and colours as in (3) and (4); the latter is sometimes in the plural:

1- Samir spoke English well.
2- Hind learned German Last year.
3- She turned a deadly white.
4- Browns and greens.

Certain comparatives and superlatives may be used as nouns as

1- Salwan was the first to follow
2- Of them all, Ali seemed to me the best.

One can conclude that nouns may function as adjectives and adjectives may function as nouns; yet sometimes “... the same word can be either an adjective or a noun with a common gender value, one and the same word is found as adjective and noun with a neuter value” (Schibsbye, 1970:127).

A woman with a past/past generations

Don’t go out after a dark night

So is the case with evil, future, good, present, sweet, etc.

2.1.8 Adjectives and Nouns as Modifiers

Nouns may be modified by adjectives or by other nouns. Both types of modification are so common in English. See the following examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adjective</th>
<th>Noun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a good salesman</td>
<td>a book salesman</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a fast car</td>
<td>a race car</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a gentle pat</td>
<td>a love pat</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The adjective and the noun may come from the same root, usually with difference in meaning.

a stony wall      a stone wall
a nervous specialist a nerve specialist
a beautiful shop  a beauty shop

But:

a golden chain     a gold chain
a promotional pamphlet  a promotion pamphlet
Sometimes we can use the noun but not the adjective; we say:

*telephone* operator

But not:

*telephonic* operator

In some cases the adjective form is ambiguous and the noun form is not; as in: “criminal lawyer” which may mean “a lawyer who defends criminals” or “a lawyer who is a criminal” whereas “Crime lawyer” means only the former.

When a noun is modified by both an adjective and another noun, the adjective always comes first as:

an *old* tree surgeon

But not:

a tree *old* surgeon

2.1.9 The Relation between Stative Nouns and Stative Adjectives

Many transformations that depend on the presence of some feature of verbs, must in full description of English include such a feature in nouns as well as verbs and adjectives. Thus Bach (1968:117) cites some examples to show that there are not only stative verbs and adjectives which cannot occur in the progressive, have imperatives and so on, but also there are stative nouns. Consider the following examples:

1- Don’t be a *fool*.

Don’t be a *mammal*.

2- He’s being a *fool*

3-He’s being a *mammal*

So is the case with some complement transformations:
1- He’s **crazy** to go.
2- He’s **tall** to go.
3- He’s an **idiot** to go.
4- He’s a **cook** to go.

And with the comparative transformation
- He’s more of a **fool** than she is.
- John was more of a **corpse** than Bill was.

### 2.1.10 Adjectives and Verbs

It is noteworthy that adjectives and verbs were regarded as a subclass of “verbs” by Plato and Aristotle. Lakoff (1970:115) presents a case for the plausibility of the assertion. He assumes that adjectives and verbs are members of a single lexical category which may be called VERB and that they differ only by a single syntactic feature which may be called ADJECTIVAL. The following pairs of sentences contain a verb in the first and an adjective in the second. They are understood in the same way:

**Group 1**

1- a. I **regret** that.
   b. I am **sorry** about that.
2- a. I **like** music
   b. I am **fond** of music
3- a. I **forgot** that fact.
   b. I was **obvious** of that fact.

There are pairs of the same sort, where the adjective and verb seem to be the same lexical item.

**Group 2**

1- a. I **hope** that peace will come soon.
b. I am **hopeful** that peace will come soon.

2- a. She **desires** that.
   
   b. She is **desirous** of that.

3- a. I **fear** that they may die.
   
   b. I am **fearful** that they may die.

4- a. This news will **please** her.
   
   b. This news will be **pleasing** to her.

In most of these cases, the "a" and "b" sentences differ in that b sentences contain 'be + adj + preposition', whereas, the a sentences contain a verb. These differences are quite superficial. The auxiliary verb "be" serves only to carry the tense marker before adjectives in just the same way as "do" carries the tense marker before verbs in negative and interruptive sentences.

Although the "a" and "b" sentences in both groups are synonymous and seem to be understood in the same way, it does not necessarily follow that the same grammatical relations hold in each pair of sentences.

### 2.1.11 Adjectives and Participles

In English, there are many adjectives that have the same form as participles in-ing or ed for example:

1- The film was **boring**.

2- The boys' arrival was **unexpected**

Traditional grammarians such as Jepson (1951:67) believes that participles are no more than parts of the infinite verb which do the qualifying adjectives as: **Frightening** and **frightened** are participles of the verb **frighten**; **burning** and **burnt** of the verb **burn**.

Many participles, both present and past have all the characteristics of adjectives; thus, they can be used attributively.
or predicatively, they can be modified by very, too, quite. They form their comparative by adding more and their superlative by adding most. For example:

1- Ali told a very amusing story.
2- Jehan is the most promising student in the class.

2.1.12 Adjectives in Arabic

An adjective is a word or group of words used to modify, clarify or determine a noun or a pronoun. It follows the noun it modifies in its morphological and syntactic features.

An adjective modifies a noun or pronoun by describing, limiting or making meaning more exact. Adjectives in Arabic are of three forms: Singular, dual and plural.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Arabic</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alrajulu karimu</td>
<td>The man is generous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dual</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alrujulan Kariman</td>
<td>The men are generous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>plural</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alrijal kuraman</td>
<td>The men are generous</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Mustafa, 1994)

2.1.11.1 The Position of Adjectives in Arabic

In Arabic language, adjectives follow nouns and agree in gender and number, this is the usual occurrence if the adjective is in Arabic.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Arabic</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Al-waladu al dakin</td>
<td>The intelligent boy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A'nissau al jamilatu</td>
<td>The beautiful women (Mustafa, 1994)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2.2 Adverbs in English

Adverbs are content words which generally modify, or add to the meaning of a verb.

**e.g:** She sings beautifully.

They may also modify on adjective (quite quiet), another adverb (very slowly), or the whole sentence when they occur at the beginning.

**e.g:** Fortunately, they have recovered their lesson.

Most adverbs are formed through the addition of affix (-ly) to a base, basically an adjective, although there are many adverbs which have undivided forms.

**e.g:** Here, sometimes, seldom…..etc.

When the adverb is used to modify an adjective or another adverb, it usually comes immediately before it.

**e.g:** They were extremely pleased with us.

An exception to this rule is the adverb "enough" which comes after the adjective or adverb it modifies.

**e.g:** She does not speak clearly enough.

We can use a phrase, basically a prepositional phrase , in place to an adverb .

**e.g :** I'll be back soon .I'll be back in a minute or two .

He lives in a very big house. (Michael 1996)

2.2.1: **Adverb types** :

Adverbs can be divided into types as follows:

2.2.1.1: **Adverbs of time:**

These are sub-classified into:

A- Adverbs of time that answer the question when?
These include yesterday, tomorrow, last week, .......etc.

B- Adverbs of time duration like two days, someday, recently... etc

C- Adverbs of time frequency that answer the question how often?
They are used to express how many times a habitual action is repeated. They are grouped into:
1- Affirmative adverbs always, frequently, often, monthly.........etc.
2- Negative adverbs like seldom, rarely, hardly, never, .....etc.
3- Interrogative adverbs like ever.

2.2.1.2 : Adverbs of place:
They answer the question where?
e.g: in Tripoli, away, at school, abroad, upstairs, here, there.
e.g: She lives in Tripoli.

2.2.1.3 : Adverbs of manner:
They answer the question How? And are regularly formed by adding ( -ly) to related adjectives.
e.g: quick ________quickly
     careful_________carefully

A few adverbs of manner do not end in (-ly) "hard" and "fast" are identical with their related adjectives; slow can also be used as an adverb instead of slowly; well is the adverbial from of the adjective "good" when it refers to the way (manner) something is done. However, it is an adjective when it refers to the state of a person's health.
2.2.1.4: Adverbs of degree
They answer the question to what extent?
Examples of these are:
Quite, rather, almost, fairly.
e.g.: It's rather cold outside.
        She was quite happy when I last met her.

2.2.1.5: Focusing Adverbs:
They either limit what is said to a certain part of the sentence
and these include:
Only, just, simply, merely, …etc.
They add the part which the focusing adverb introduces to what
has already been said in a sentence and these include:
Too, either, as well, in addition, also.
        Hind speaks Arabic and she also speaks English.

2.2.1.6: Intensifying Adverbs:
As their name suggests, they give strength and intensity to the
meaning of the words they modify, they include very, entirely, completely, definitely, indeed, quite, …etc.

2.2.1.7: View point Adverbs:
These are derived from related adjectives by adding (-ly) to
mean from the point of view.
e.g.: Linguistically (speaking).
        Economically (speaking).
And adverbs like frankly, clearly, honestly are also used to
express the attitude of the speaker.
e.g.: Honestly, I don't know this man.
2.2.1.8: Others:

There are adverbs that have joining relation which express various senses.

e.g: furthermore, accordingly, meanwhile, anyway, namely, more over, therefore, similarly, otherwise.

2.2.2: Adverb position:

Adverbs take different positions as follows:

2.2.2.1: Adverb position (1): introduction:

2.2.2.1.1 Adverb + verb + object.

I often get headaches.

2.2.2.1.2 - Front, mid_ and end position.

There are three normal positions for adverbs.

a- Front position (at the beginning of a clause).

Yesterday morning, something very strange happened.

b- Mid-position with the verb.

My brother completely forgot my birthday

c- End position (at the end of a clause)

What are you doing tomorrow?

2.2.2.1.3 What goes where?

Connecting adverbs (which join a clause to what came before) go in front position.

However, not everybody agreed.

Adverbs of indefinite frequency (e.g: always, often) and adverbs of certainty usually go in mid-position.

My boss often travels to America.
Adverbs of manner (how), place (where) and time (when) most often go in end position.

e.g: She brushed her hair slowly.

2.2.2.2: Adverb position (2): front position.

Adverbs that usually go in front position; connecting adverbs (e.g: then, next): comment adverbs (e.g: fortunately, surprisingly) and (Maybe, perhaps).

Adverbs that can go in front position: some adverbs of indefinite frequency (e.g: sometimes); adverbs of place; adverbs of time.

2.2.2.2.1 Connecting adverbs: then, next,.....

These adverbs join a clause to what came before.

Examples: then, next, beside, anyway, suddenly, however.

- I worked until five o'clock, then I went home.
- Suddenly, the door opened.

2.2.2.2.2 Comment adverbs: fortunately, surprisingly.....

Adverbs which give the speakers opinion of an action most often go in front position.

e.g: fortunately, she has decided to help us.

2.2.2.2.3 Indefinite frequency: usually, normally,......

 Usually, normally, often, frequently, sometimes and occasionally can go in front position (but they are more common in mid position).

e.g: Sometimes, I think I'd like to live somewhere else.

2.2.2.2.4 Certainly: maybe, perhaps.

Maybe and perhaps usually come at the beginning of a clause.

Perhaps her train is late.
2.2.2.2.5 Place (here, there).

Place adverbs most often go in end position, but front position is possible, especially in literary writing and if adverb is not the main focus of the message. In this case the verb often comes before the subject.

e.g.: Here comes your bus.

There goes our train.

2.2.2.2.6 Time: today, afterwards, soon, every week.

Front position is common if the adverb is not the main focus of the meaning.

e.g.: Today I am going to London.

Soon everything will be different.

2.2.2.3: Adverb position (3) end position.

Adverbs of manner, place and time usually go in end position often in that order. Adverbs of indefinite frequency (e.g.: occasionally), sometimes go in end position.

- I visit them occasionally.

2.2.2.3.1 Adverbs of manner.

Adverbs of manner say how something happens or is done.

Examples: angrily, happily, fast, slowly, well, badly, nicely, noisily, quietly, hard, softly.

He drove off angrily.

You speak English well.

2.2.2.3.2 Adverbs of place.

Examples: upstairs, around, here.

The children are playing upstairs.
Adverbs of direction (movement) come before adverbs of position.

The children are running around upstairs.

2.2.2.3.3 Adverbs of time and definite frequency.

Examples: today, after words.
   Every week she has a new style.

2.2.2.3.4 Manner, place, time.

Most often, adverbs of manner, place and time go in that order.

E.g.: Put the butter in the fridge at once.
   I worked hard yesterday.

2.2.2.3.5 Adverbs of indefinite frequency:

   Usually, normally, often, frequently, sometimes and occasionally.

These adverbs can go in end position if they are the main focus of the message (but they are more common in mid position)

- I go there occasionally.
- We see her quite often.
- I get very dressed sometimes.

2.2.2.4: Adverb position (4) mid position.

2.2.2.4.1 Adverbs that usually go in mid position

- adverb of indefinite frequency (e.g.: sometime).

Certainly (e.g.: probably) and Completeness (e.g.: almost)

Adverbs that can go in mid position: focusing adverbs (e.g.: angrily), common adverbs (e.g.: fortunately).

- Mid-position adverbs usually go before one part verbs, after auxiliary verbs, and after am/is/are/was/were

- before one part verbs.
- I always play tennis on Saturdays.
- before auxiliary verb.
- The train will probably be late.
- after are/am/is/was/were.
- they are always late
  • In definite frequency (how often).
Examples: always, ever, usually, normally, often, frequently, sometimes. Occasionally, rarely, seldom, never.
- We usually go to Scotland in August.
- It sometimes gets very windy here.

2.2.2.4.2 Adverbs of certainty.
Examples: probably, certainly, clearly, definitely.
- It will certainly rain this evening.
- He probably thinks you don't like him.
- I definitely feel better today.

2.2.2.4.3 Adverbs of completeness.
Examples: Completely, practically, almost, nearly, quit, rather, partly.
- It was almost dark.
- The house is partly ready.
Adverbs of completeness, usually follow all auxiliary verbs
I will have completely finished by next June.

2.2.2.4.4 Comment adverbs.
Adverbs which give the speaker's opinion of an action sometimes go in mid-position.
- I stupidly forgot my keys.
2.2.2.4.5 Focusing adverbs.
These adverbs 'point to' one part of a clause.
Examples: just, even, only, mainly, mostly, either, or, neither, nor.
- She neither said 'Thank you' nor looked at me.
- We're only going for two days.
- The people at the meeting were mainly scientists.

2.2.2.4.6 Adverbs of manner.
These adverbs say how something happens or is done.
Examples: angrily, happily, slowly, suddenly, noisily, softly.
- she angrily tore up the letter.

2.2.2.4.7 Adverbs with negative verbs.
In negative sentences, adverbs generally come before not if they emphasize the negative; otherwise they come after compare.
- I certainly do not agree.
- I do not often have headaches.
Both positions are possible with some adverbs, often with a different of meaning.
Compare:
- I don't really like her. (mild dislike).
- I really don't like her (strong dislike).

2.2.2.4.8 Adverbs with emphatic verbs.
When we emphasize auxiliary verbs or am/are/is/was/were, we pure most mid-position adverbs before them in stead of after.
Compare:
- She has certainly made him angry. (I'm really sorry).
She certainly has made him angry. (I really I am sorry).
(Michael, 1996)

2.2.3: Adverbs in Arabic:

An adverb in Arabic is defined as a description of the state the noun. The adverb modifies a noun which may precede the adverb or follow it, for example:

**Arabic:**
/rakala alwaldu alkurata alijn/

**English:**
The boy kicked the ball very high.

2.2.3.1: Adverb position:

In Arabic the position of adverbs is usually after its antecedan, for example:

**Arabic:**
/zahara ibadru ka:Milan/

**English:**
The moon appeared full

There are adverbs of time which are called /zarf zaman/such as/ saba:han, masa:an /which usually come at the end, but if the adverb of time is preceded by a preposition, it can be placed at the beginning of the sentence, for example:

**Arabic:**
/kana almudarisu sa'dan/

**English:**
- The teacher was happy.
- There are also the adverbs of place which are called /zarf makan/ which may be placed at the beginning or at the end of
the sentences, for example:

**Arabic:**

/fi:sabahi ja habu alijun ila almadrasati.

**English:**

In the morning Ali goes to the school.

- The adverb often follows its antecedent for example:

**Arabic:**

/hadara asadiqu mubtasiman

**English:**

The friend came smiling.

It is noticed that the adverb in English does not differ much from the adverb in Arabic. In Arabic, there are adverbs of manner, time, place and frequency as well as in English. The position of the adverb in English is usually after the verb that it modifies. In some cases of emphasis, the adverbs come in the beginning of the sentences and before the verb in Arabic the adverbs take the same position, it usually comes after the verb it modifies except in some cases of emphasis (Mustafa, 1994).

### 2.3 Previous studies:

Many attempts have been made in this field by Arabic researchers but they did not tackle the problem sufficiently.

- Nahla (1994) in her book "A'nabu Alwaffee" made a contrastive study between German adjective and Arabic adjective. She found that Arabic students make errors in using German adjectives. They put the nouns before the adjectives, because they are influenced by their Arabic language.
• Al-Gammoudi (2003) in her study about the adjective in English and Arabic at third-year preparatory school indicated that students in A.L-Chomis (Libya) were unable to distinguish between the Arabic and English adjectives. They put nouns before adjectives. For example, "house white" instead of "white house" and they also put the article "the" before the noun and the adjective. For example, the house white instead of the white house, because they were influenced by their native language.

• AL. Taee (2005), in her book. "Syntax and Semantics of Adjectives in English" at university stage states that "Iraqi students confuse adjectives which take (-er) and (-est) to form their comparatives and superlatives with those which take more or most".

She found that Iraqi students may not distinguish adjectives of one syllable from those of two or more syllables.

2.4 Summary

In this chapter the researcher has giving background about adjectives and adverbs in English and their positions. He also gave background about adjectives and adverbs in Arabic and their positions.