The Suffix "-ly" with the Adverbial As

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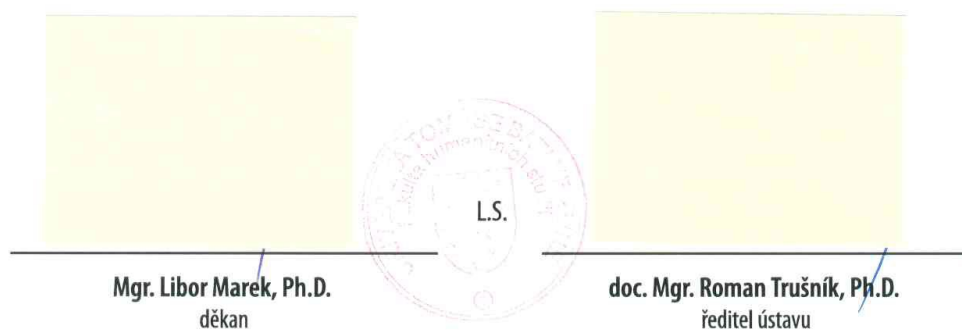Jazyk zpracování: **Angličtina**

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ABSTRAKT

Tato bakalářská práce se zabývá analýzou přídavných jmen a příslovcí v anglickém jazyce. Práce se skládá z teoretické a praktické části. Teoretická část se zabývá základní charakteristikou přídavných jmen a příslovcí jako slovních druhů, jejich sémantickými, morfologickými a syntaktickými vlastnostmi, hlavními rozdíly, podobnostmi a korelací mezi nimi, poté se práce zaměřuje na užití příslovečného sufixu *-ly* a výskyt nulové formy příslovcí, který nastává při vynechání sufixu *-ly*. Pomocí Korpusu současné americké angličtiny praktická část popisuje četnost a distribuci výskytu příslovečného sufixu *-ly* a nulové formy příslovcí v americké angličtině.

Hlavním cílem práce je popsat míru četnosti a akceptovatelnosti vynechání příslovečného sufixu *-ly* v postverbální pozici a porovnat četnost výskytu s příslovci se sufixem *-ly* v americké angličtině.

Klíčová slova: přídavná jména, příslovce, sufix *-ly*, americká angličtina, COCA

ABSTRACT

This bachelor thesis deals with an analysis of adjectives and adverbs in English. The thesis comprises a theoretical and a practical part. The theoretical part deals with the basic characteristics of adjectives and adverbs as parts of speech, their semantics, morphology, and syntax, the main differences, similarities, and correlations between them; then, the thesis focuses on the use of the adverbial suffix *-ly*, and the occurrence of zero-form adverbs when omitting the *-ly* suffix. Using the Corpus of Contemporary American English, the practical part describes the frequency and distribution of the adverbial suffix *-ly* and zero-form adverbs in American English.

The main aim of this thesis is to describe the degree of occurrence and the acceptability of omitting the adverbial suffix *-ly* in post-verbal position and to compare the frequency of occurrence with adverbs with the suffix *-ly* in American English.

Keywords: adjectives, adverbs, suffix *-ly*, American English, COCA

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CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION

This bachelor thesis is divided into a theoretical and a practical part. The first chapter focuses on adjectives and adverbs as parts of speech. In English, the categorization of adjectives and adverbs as parts of speech is not as distinct; thus, it deals with the main criteria of semantics, morphology, and syntax that categorize adjectives and adverbs as parts of speech. It explains the similarities and differences between them as well as emphasizes the properties that adjectives and adverbs share. The aim is to illustrate the reasons for the frequent classification of these two parts of speech into one A category.

The second chapter deals with the correlation between adjectives and adverbs. It introduces adjectives and adverbs that are indistinguishable from one another since they share an identical form as well as meaning.

The last chapter of the theoretical part examines the use of the suffix *-ly*, both adjectival and adverbial, since this suffix can be used with both of these parts of speech. It describes adjectives that cannot be used with the suffix *-ly* and adverbs with different meanings when the suffix is attached. This chapter also provides an argument that emphasizes why the adverbial suffix *-ly* should be regarded as an inflectional rather than a derivational one. Furthermore, it introduces the process of omitting the suffix *-ly* in a post-verbal position, which results in the use of zero-form adverbs.

The practical part is based on the analysis of the frequency of use of the adverbial suffix *-ly* and the use of zero-form adverbs in the Corpus of Contemporary American English. This phenomenon is analysed because the use of zero-form adverbs is becoming more common in some varieties or dialects of English. Firstly, adverbs of manner with the adverbial suffix *-ly* were analysed to compare the frequencies of occurrence in the corpus. Secondly, five specific adverbs were investigated with and without the adverbial suffix *-ly* in collocations with selected verbs to compare the frequencies of usage of adverbs with the adverbial suffix *-ly* and zero-form adverbs in American English.

The aim of this thesis is to describe the degree of occurrence and the acceptability of omitting the adverbial suffix *-ly* in post-verbal position and to compare the frequency of occurrence with adverbs with the suffix *-ly* in American English.

I. THEORY

1 CHARACTERISTICS OF THE A CATEGORY

The first chapter of this bachelor thesis deals with the comparison of adjectives and adverbs. It outlines their differences and similarities and demonstrates the reasons for the existence of the so-called A category that comprises adjectives and adverbs with the adverbial suffix -*ly*. Firstly, this chapter deals with parts of speech in the English language. It focuses on the division of PoS into two main categories: open and closed class, as well as the classification of PoS according to semantic, morphological, and syntactic criteria. Thereafter, this chapter explains what the A category means and why both adjectives and adverbs are included in this category. Subsequently, it deals with the classification of the A category from the perspective of PoS, in accordance with their semantic, morphological, and syntactic criteria.

1.1 Parts of Speech

Words in English are distinguished into PoS, as is the case in Czech as well. However, the division is slightly different from the Czech one. The reason for the division into PoS is due to the fact that words that belong to the same category have a certain amount of properties in common (Veselovská 2017, 3). This means that certain groups of words have the same grammatical functions, which help distinguish a specific part of speech to which a particular word belongs. PoS in English are nouns, adjectives, verbs, adverbs, pronouns, numerals, prepositions, determiners, quantifiers, and conjunctions. In addition, Veselovská states that modals can also be included as a distinct part of speech (2017, 3–4). These aforementioned PoS can be divided into two principal groups: the open class category and the closed class category (Quirk 1985, 67).

1.1.1 The Open Class Category

Parts of speech that are members of this group are nouns (*house*, *dog*, *happiness*), verbs (*walk, dance, think*), adjectives (*small*, *smart*, *yellow*), and adverbs (*carefully, suddenly, probably*) (Quirk 1985, 67). Words that belong to the open class category are those that convey the meaning (Biber et al. 1999, 55). The reason this category is referred to as an open class is due to the fact that it is unlimited and continuously enlarged because new English words are constantly being developed or borrowed from other languages and subsequently entered into the English lexicon (Quirk 1985, 72). The examples below show that new adjectives can be created by attaching the suffix -*ish* (1) and new adverbs by attaching the suffix -*wise* (2) (Biber et al. 1999, 56).

(1) *oldish, bookish, greenish*

(2) *clockwise, healthwise, lengthwise*

1.1.2 The Closed Class Category

The closed class category includes words used mainly for their grammatical function; thus, they are sometimes labelled as grammatical words or function words (Quirk 1985, 71–72). PoS that belong to this group are pronouns (*he, himself, them*), numerals (*five, first, thousand*), prepositions (*in, on, of, from*), determiners (*the, a, an, that*), auxiliaries (*be, have, do)*, quantifiers (*many, few, some*), conjunctions (*and, but, or*), as well as some adverbs (*only, too, then*) (Veselovská 2017, 3–4).

Biber et al. state that the closed class category includes words that serve the purpose of tying the text together (1999, 55). As opposed to the open class category, the closed class category contains a limited number of elements. Furthermore, developing or adding new words into this category is very rare (Quirk 1985, 71–72).

1.2 The Classification of Parts of Speech

The classification of words into PoS is done "according to various combinational properties" that the words within the groups have in common among themselves (Veselovská 2017, 3). In English, the properties for the classification and the distribution into PoS are based upon phonetic, semantic, morphological, and syntactic criteria (Veselovká 2017, 3). Nevertheless, some criteria are considered more reliable and significant than others.

Phonetic criteria are considered quite insignificant in English because they deal with the placement of stress in a particular word. Thus, words that look the same at first sight might be classified as two different PoS, e.g. the word *present* can be both a noun and a verb according to its written form. However, regarding phonetic criteria, their pronunciation differs because the placement of the stress is on different syllables. *Present* as a noun is stressed on the first syllable; on the other hand, *present* as a verb is stressed on the second syllable. The reason this criterion is considered minor and unreliable is because the classification of PoS cannot be done only based on pronunciation since these words can also appear in written forms. Therefore, with no context, it is impossible to distinguish if the written form of this word is a noun or a verb.

Additionally, semantic criteria are not regarded as very helpful when it comes to distinguishing PoS (Veselovská 2017, 3). They are considered unreliable because many words can be distributed into more PoS, not strictly just one. To exemplify, words such as *courage,* which is a noun, and *brave,* which can be used as an adjective or a verb (Veselovská

2017, 4). Both of these words denote qualities that someone might possess, which means that just because a word conveys the meaning of a certain property, it does not imply that it is an adjective.

On the contrary, morphological and syntactic properties serve as the main criteria in categorizing words into PoS. When it comes to the A category, it can also be defined by semantic, morphological, and syntactic properties. All of these will be described in more detail in the current chapter.

1.3 Characteristics of Adjectives and Adverbs

Huddleston and Pullum state that adjectives and adverbs are two PoS that are used to "alter, clarify, or adjust the meaning contributions of nouns and verbs" (2002, 526). There is a wide variety of adjectives and adverbs in English, and their use is very common since adjectives and adverbs occur nearly in every sentence (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 527). Both of these PoS can be labelled as modifiers (Veselovská 2017, 62). However, the elements they modify are different. Adjectives are frequently used for the purpose of modifying nouns (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 526). Veselovská states that an adjective is a word or a phrase that "enlarges the meaning and narrows the reference of a Noun" (3) (2017, 62). Whereas adverbs typically modify verbs (4) (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 526). Huddleston and Pullum mention that adverbs can also modify other PoS, as are, for instance, adjectives (5), other adverbs (6), prepositions (7), and clauses (8) (2002, 526). Adverbs typically answer the following questions: how, when, where, and why. The examples below show the process of modification.

(3) *[NP A <u>black</u> cat] ran across the street.*

(4) *He [verb is singing <u>loudly</u>].*

(5) *The cake was [<u>really</u> adjective delicious].*

(6) *The boy ran [<u>very</u> adverb quickly].*

(7) *I tried to call, but it went [<u>straight</u> PP into voicemail].*

(8) *He is <u>exactly</u> [clause where he is supposed to be].*

1.4 The Definition of the A Category

It is essential to mention that adjectives and adverbs are combined into a specific category, called the A category. According to Veselovská, the A category comprises mainly adjectives and those adverbs that end with the suffix *-ly* (2017, 62). The reason for this grouping is that adjectives and *-ly* adverbs share the same properties, and their function is quite identical; therefore, both of these PoS can be labelled as modifiers (Veselovská 2017, 62). Notably, a certain amount of adverbs belong to the closed class category, those are not included in the A category (Veselovská 2017, 62). The closed class category of adverbs is explained in more detail below.

1.5 Semantic Criteria

Semantic criteria are associated with the meaning of a word, and they are also sometimes referred to as notional (Veselovská 2017, 3). Nevertheless, as was mentioned above, semantic properties are not very helpful and reliable when it comes to classifying words into PoS. This unreliability also applies when distinguishing adjectives and adverbs according to semantics because some of them have the same form. To specify, the word *well* can be used both as an adjective and an adverb. When used as an adjective, *well* carries the meaning of *healthy* (9). When used as an adverb, *well* means *in a good way* or *in a sufficient way* (10). These examples show that semantic classification is not a reliable one because one word can be a part of two distinct PoS since, from the semantics point of view, the word *well* is an adjective and also an adverb. Therefore, it would be impossible to distinguish a particular part of speech based only on semantic criteria if the word appeared without context. Other examples of such words are *very, pretty,* and many others (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 568).

> (9) *John is not feeling <u>well</u>.* ADJ
>
> (10) *He played his part <u>well.</u>* ADV

1.5.1   Semantics of Adjectives

Adjectives "typically denote properties" of nouns (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 527). Veselovská lists categories according to which adjectives can be grouped in terms of their semantics. To specify, adjectives are grouped according to their value (*great, expensive*), age (*youthful, historic*), colour (*white, orange*), nationality (*Polish, Swedish*), position (*far, low*), human quality (*smart, cheerful*), speed (*slow, swift*), similarity (*alike, dissimilar*),

dimension (*wide, deep*), physical property (*hard, wet*), also according to quantification (*half, first*), and qualification (*achievable, believable*) (Veselovská 2017, 62).

Moreover, adjectives can be both stative (11) and dynamic (12) (Quirk 1985, 434). Quirk states that the feature that is more typical for adjectives is that they denote a state (Quirk 1985, 434). Moreover, Dušková et al. point out that adjectives are similar to stative verbs when semantics is concerned (2003, 142).

(11) *The house is* <u>*big.*</u>

(12) *He is being very* <u>*impatient*</u>.

1.5.2 Semantics of Adverbs

As well as adjectives, adverbs are grouped into semantic categories. On the other hand, adverbs are much more diverse; thus, there are a lot of divergent categories into which they can be classified in terms of their semantics. For instance, Veselovská lists eight categories according to which adverbs can be grouped. Veselovská classifies them according to manner (*carefully, badly*), degree (*barely, totally*), frequency (*usually, never*), also according to being aspectual (*still, already*), connective (*additionally, furthermore*), or modal (*evidently, actually*), as well as grading, temporal, and focusing (2017, 62). Grading, temporal, and focusing adverbs belong to the closed class category of PoS and will be explained in more detail below. On the contrary, Biber et al. divide adverbs into seven principal groups, and that is according to place (*here, away*), time (*today, later*), manner (*carefully, badly*), degree (*barely, totally*), stance (*probably, perhaps*), also if they are additive/restrictive (*only, as well*), and linking (*therefore, furthermore*) (1999, 552).

It is important to note that linguists still have not reached an agreement that would be unified for dividing adverbs into semantic categories. The wide variety of disunited semantic groupings demonstrates that adverbs are considered semantically very diverse. Therefore, because of their semantic heterogeneity, they are grouped into many different categories that are not unified.

Furthermore, as was already indicated above, adverbs belong to both the open and closed class categories of PoS.

1.5.3 The Category of Closed Class Adverbs

In English, there are many adverbs that belong to the closed class category of PoS. Traditionally, these adverbs possess a grammatical function, they are used to tie the text together. Most adverbs in English are created by attaching a suffix to an adjective, most commonly, it is the suffix *-ly* (*slow-ly, gentl-ly*). These adverbs can be labelled as lexical

since they carry the meaning. However, closed class adverbs are those that are not created by derivation. They do not take any adjectival pre-modification (Veselovská 2017, 68). Furthermore, closed class adverbs are not part of the A category because they do not share the same properties with adjectives and derivational adverbs (Veselovská 2017, 68). There are three groups into which they are divided: grading, temporal, and focusing adverbs (Veselovská 2017, 68).

a) **Grading ADV**: the use of these adverbs is for the purpose of modification of the lexical adverbs, the examples of grading adverbs are: *very, too, quite, more, less so, rather, somewhat* (Veselovská 2017, 68).

b) **Temporal ADV**: these can also be referred to as adverbs of time, this group includes adverbs such as: *still, never, ever, once, already, then, yet, now, always* (Veselovská 2017, 68).

c) **Focusing ADV**: the use of these adverbs is for the purpose of modification of clauses and phrases (Veselovská 2017, 68). Adverbs that belong to this group are: *also, only, even, ...as well, ...too* (Veselovská 2017, 68).

1.6 Morphological Criteria

Morphological criteria are "based on the word-internal structure" (Veselovská 2017, 3). Principally, this criterion concerns derivational and inflectional morphology. Derivational morphology deals with the process of forming new words with the help of morphemes. Due to derivational morphology, the newly derived word can change from one part of speech into another part of speech (Veselovská 2017, 5). The examples below illustrate the aforementioned conversion. The examples demonstrate that by adding the suffix *-ly,* the adjectives change into adverbs, which is a typical feature for forming adverbs from adjectives (13), (14), (15).

(13) *possible – possibly* (ADJ → ADV)

(14) *specific – specifically* (ADJ → ADV)

(15) *happy – happily* (ADJ → ADV)

Regarding inflectional morphology, the word is changed "within its own paradigm" (Veselovská 2017, 6). In comparison with derivational morphemes, inflectional endings cannot alter the part of speech to which a particular word belongs, these endings "are specific to and typical of each part of speech" (Veselovská 2017, 6). This is because every part of speech has its own distinctive grammatical rules, which can be applied only to that particular part of speech and no other (Veselovská 2017, 9). Although adjectives and adverbs are two

distinct PoS, their morphology is very similar. For instance, Veselovská states that when adjectives are concerned, the typical grammatical feature is grading (16), (17) (2017, 9). However, it is important to mention that just like adjectives, some adverbs can be graded as well, as illustrated in the example below (18) (Quirk 1985, 463). Therefore, inflectional morphology should not be connected only to adjectives but adverbs as well. The fact that grading can be used with both adjectives and adverbs shows that it is not only a distinctive feature of adjectives but it is also a characteristic that is typical of both of these PoS. This indicates that either inflectional morphology should not be regarded as being specific to a particular part of speech since adjectives and adverbs are two distinct PoS, nevertheless, they share a morphological feature that is characteristic to both of these PoS, not solely one, or that adjectives and adverbs should not be two distinct PoS, instead, they should form just one shared category because they possess identical features that link them together. Moreover, the ability to grade both adjectives and adverbs demonstrates that determining whether a certain word is an adjective or an adverb from the morphological point of view is unreliable.

(16) *She is a <u>better</u>* [ADJ] *swimmer than him.*

(17) *His house is <u>bigger</u>* [ADJ] *than my house.*

(18) *David runs <u>faster</u>* [ADV] *than Mary.*

1.6.1 Morphology of Adjectives

The morphology of adjectives includes the formation of adjectives by adding derivational or inflectional affixes.

1.6.1.1 Derivation

Adjectives are sometimes derived from other PoS. Derivational morphemes that are considered to be characteristic for adjectives are ***-able*** (*believ-able, fashion-able, accept-able*)*, **-ful*** (*power-ful, use-ful, help-ful*)*, **-less*** (*sleep-less, hope-less, speech-less*)*, **-ish*** (*black-ish, styl-ish, fool-ish*), ***-ous*** (*fam-ous, jeal-ous, mystery-ous*), ***-ic*** (*history-ic, fantast-ic, specif-ic*), ***al*** (*politic-al, nation-al, logic-al*), ***-y*** (*blood-y, guilt-y, angr-y*), ***-ly*** (*friend-ly, dead-ly, time-ly*) (Quirk 1985, 402). These suffixes can be helpful in the process of classifying adjectives as a part of speech (Dušková 2003, 141). Nevertheless, the suffix *-ly* is pretty typical for adverbs as well. The examples below indicate this. In the first example, the word *friendly* is used as an adjective since it modifies the noun *neighbour* (19); on the other hand, in the second example, the word *loudly* is used as an adverb because it modifies the verb *sang* (20). This shows that from the point of morphology, it is not reliable to

distinguish adverbs from adjectives if they both possess the *-ly* ending, in these cases, syntactic properties need to be applied.

(19) *My neighbour seems <u>friendly.</u>*

(20) *He sang <u>loudly.</u>*

In addition, not all adjectives are created by suffixation, for example, adjectives such as *young, small, light, dark, large,* and many more have no suffixes (Dušková 2003, 141). Furthermore, it is possible to use some of the aforementioned suffixes with different PoS, for instance, *hand-ful* (21) and *spoon-ful* (22), which are nouns despite the use of the suffix *-ful* (Dušková 2003, 141). The examples below illustrate this.

(21) *Her child is quite a <u>handful.</u>*

(22) *Add a <u>spoonful</u> of mustard into the mixture.*

With the help of suffixes, adjectives can be derived from PoS such as verbs (*enjoy-able, help-ful*), nouns (*danger-ous, rain-y*), other adjectives (*yellow-ish*), and numerals (*ten-th, fifty-eth*) (Veselovská 2017, 63).

Furthermore, it is also possible to create adjectives by compounding (Biber et al. 1999, 533). An adjective can be attached to another adjective (*dark-blue*), a noun (*smoke-free*), or an adverb (*highly-sensitive*) (Biber et al. 1999, 533). Additionally, a lot of adjectives are compounded by adding participle suffixes, for instance, *-ed* (*well-organized, home-baked*), *-ing* (*slow-moving, eye-catching*) (Biber et al. 1999, 533–534).

1.6.1.2 Inflection

Moreover, many adjectives are gradable. That means that "they can denote degrees of a given quality" (Biber et al. 1999, 506). Thus, by attaching the comparative or superlative suffix *-er, -est* it is possible to denote their degree (*big – bigger – the biggest*) (Quirk 1985, 434). This is considered to be one of the most significant features of adjectives when morphology is concerned. Adjectives can be graded synthetically, analytically, or irregularly (Veselovská 2017, 63–64). Synthetic adjectives are formed by inflectional morphemes (*big – bigger – the biggest*), analytical ones are formed with the help of free morphemes (*difficult – more difficult – the most difficult*), and the irregular ones are, for example, *good – better – the best, bad – worse – the worst* (Veselovská 2017, 63–64). Nevertheless, some stative adjectives are not gradable because they denote an attribute that does not have scalar possibilities (Quirk 1985, 434). According to Dušková et al., non-gradable adjectives are frequently those which describe a fixed characteristic or material of a product (2003, 141). Examples of such adjectives are: *dead* (23)*, perfect, free, impossible, metallic,* and many

more. The sentences below show that non-gradable adjectives cannot be used with comparative (24) or superlative suffixes (25) since they denote a quality that is absolute. They also cannot be intensified (26), (27), (28) or lessened (29) when it comes to their degree.

(23) *He is <u>dead</u>.*

(24) **He is <u>deader</u> than his friend.*

(25) **He is <u>the deadest</u>.*

(26) **He is <u>very dead.</u>*

(27) **He is <u>as dead as</u> his friend.*

(28) **He is <u>more dead</u> than his friend.*

(29) **He is <u>less dead</u> than his friend.*

However, Biber et al. mention that some adverbs of emphasis, such as *absolutely, completely,* and *totally* may alter some non-gradable adjectives (30), (31) (1999, 521).

(30) *It was <u>totally impossible.</u>*

(31) *The final match was <u>absolutely perfect</u>.*

It is illustrated that when it comes to the feature of grading, morphological properties are not as reliable in determining the part of speech of a certain word since grading is possible for both adjectives and adverbs, and the inflection that is used is identical to both of these PoS. For example, words such as *fast, hard,* and *long* have the same comparative suffix with both adjectives (32) and adverbs (33) (Quirk 1985, 463). Thus, morphologically, those words can be categorized both as adjectives or as adverbs. Additionally, as was mentioned, some adjectives are not gradable (*dead, perfect, free, impossible*), which, from the morphological point of view, makes it difficult to recognize the proper PoS without the comparative or superlative suffix. In these cases, the classification relies solely on syntactic criteria.

(32) *He is <u>faster</u> than him.*

(33) *He runs <u>faster</u> than his friend.*

1.6.2   Morphology of Adverbs

The morphology of adverbs is very complex (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 565). Based on adverbs' morphology, Quirk divides adverbs into three main categories, these categories are: simple, compound, and derivational adverbs (1985, 438). Simple and compound adverbs belong to the category of closed class PoS, meanwhile, derivational adverbs are part of the open class category (Quirk 1985, 438).

1.6.2.1 Simple Adverbs

Simple adverbs include those words that are not created by compounding or affixation (Biber et al. 1999, 539). Such words can be, for instance, *only, just, well, soon, here, down, above, far,* etc. (Quirk 1985, 438).

1.6.2.2 Compound Adverbs

Adverbs that belong to this category are created by compounding, which means that two or several components are put together to form one word (Biber et al. 1999, 539). Such a word can be, for instance, *sometimes*, which was created by compounding *some + times,* other examples are: *somewhere, therefore, anyhow, henceforth, thereafter,* etc. (Quirk 1985, 438).

1.6.2.3 Derivational Adverbs

Derivational adverbs are those that are created by derivation, which means that an affix is attached to the root of the word. Most adverbs that belong to this category end with the suffix *-ly*. Therefore, this group is sometimes referred to as de-adjectival adverbs because these adverbs are derived from adjectives by adding a particular suffix (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 565). Attaching the suffix *-ly* to the word results in a change in a part of speech; thus, an adverb is derived from an adjective (34), (35). Examples of these adverbs are: *nicely, gently, happily, sadly,* etc.

(34) *She had a <u>nice</u> smile.* ADJ

(35) *She smiled at him <u>nicely</u>.* ADV

Other suffixes that can be used to form an adverb by derivation are, for instance, *-wise* and *-ward(s)* (Biber et al. 1999, 540). These suffixes can be attached to some nouns and in the case of the suffix *-ward(s)*, to some prepositions as well (Biber et al. 1999, 540). Thus, adverbs such as *clockwise, homewards, afterwards,* and many more can be formed. Quirk adds other affixations that derive adverbs, such as *-ways* (*edgeways*), *-style* (*old-style*), and *-fashion* (*parrot-fashion*) (1985, 438).

Even though many linguists are convinced that grading is "a distinctive property of adjectives" (McNally and Kennedy 2008, 123), this claim can be refuted because, similarly to adjectives, grading is a feature that can occur with adverbs. When graded, adverbs take the same comparative and superlative suffixes as adjectives. For example, words that do not end with the suffix *-ly*, such as *fast, hard,* and *long,* have the same comparative suffix with both adjectives (36) and adverbs (37), the superlative inflection is the same for these adverbs as well (38) (Quirk 1985, 464).

(36) *He is <u>faster</u> than him.* ADJ

(37) *He runs <u>faster</u> than his friend.* ADV

(38) *During the race, he ran <u>the fastest</u> of all.* ADV

As was mentioned above, when it comes to adverbs that end with the suffix *-ly*, it is not possible to attach comparative or superlative endings (Quirk 1985, 464). Thus, with a word such as *slowly* (39), forming a comparative with the suffix *-er* would be ungrammatical (40). The correct way to form a comparative and superlative form is to precede these adverbs with free morphemes such as *more* and *most* (41). Other adverbs that function like this are: *gently, openly, quietly, warmly,* and many others.

(39) *He ran <u>slowly</u>.*

(40) **Could you run <u>slowlier</u>?*

(41) *Could you run <u>more slowly</u>?*

It is illustrated that morphologically, both adjectives and adverbs behave very similarly. Both of these PoS can be formed by derivation from other PoS. The morpheme *-ly* can be used with both of these PoS, and it is regarded as a typical suffix for both of these PoS, not solely for adverbs. In addition to that, the possibility to grade both adjectives and adverbs with identical comparative and superlative suffixes shows that, morphologically, it is quite unreliable to distinguish adjectives and adverbs as PoS without further context.

1.7 Syntactic Criteria

Syntactic criteria "are based on its distribution" (Veselovská 2017, 11). Meaning, that PoS occur in a structure that is typical for them, and each part of speech has certain limitations that determine the position of the word in a sentence and the components that the particular word can or cannot be combined with (Veselovská 2017, 11). To exemplify, adjectives are typically used as attributes or predicates (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 528). Meanwhile, adverbs are used as adverbial clauses or modifiers (Quirk 1985, 439–440). To illustrate this, the examples below show how syntactic properties determine PoS. Thanks to the syntactic criteria, it is possible to determine that *big* in the first sentence is an adjective because it modifies a noun and it is used in the function of an attribute (42). It is also possible to distinguish that *sleepy* is an adjective because it modifies a noun, and it is a predicate used in the function of a subject complement (43). And finally, it is shown that *happily* is an adverb since it is used as a modifier, altering the verb (44).

(42) *They live in a <u>big</u> house.*

(43) *David seems <u>sleepy</u>.*
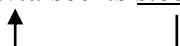
(44) *He is singing <u>happily</u>.*

Even syntactically, it is seen that adjectives and adverbs share several characteristics. They can both occur as pre- or post- modifiers. According to McNally and Kennedy, both adjectives and adverbs are not that restricted when it comes to distribution in the clause as opposed to other PoS (2008, 2). Meaning that they can occur in almost every position, be it the beginning, middle, or end of the clause. However, the crucial difference between them is the element that they modify. Adjectives are modifiers of nouns, whereas adverbs are modifiers of verbs, adjectives, other adverbs, and clauses. This distinction plays a vital role in distinguishing adjectives and adverbs as PoS. Therefore, syntactic criteria are the most reliable ones when it comes to classifying adjectives and adverbs as PoS. The syntax of adjectives and adverbs is explained in further detail in the subchapters below.

1.7.1 Syntax of Adjectives

The syntactic classification of adjectives is based on the syntactic roles in which they are used. There are two main roles: attributive and predicative (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 528). This shows that adjectives are syntactically a very flexible part of speech since they can be used as modifiers as well as predicates (McNally and Kennedy 2008, 2).

1.7.1.1 Attributive Adjectives

Adjectives with an attributive function are used to modify "nominal expressions" (Biber et al. 1999, 510). That means that they are modifying nouns, they are related to them, describing them in detail. Attributive adjectives can also be referred to as pre-modifiers or post-modifiers, which means that they can either precede the head noun (45), (46) or stand after the head noun (47) (Veselovská 2017, 69–70). The location where they appear is based on the adjective's characteristics and mainly on the complexity of adjectival phrases (Veselovská 2017, 70). If the adjective is bare, it appears in front of the noun (45), it cannot be used after the head noun (48).

(45) *a <u>big</u> house*

(46) *a <u>determined</u> person*

(47) *He is a person <u>determined</u> to work hard.*

(48) **a house <u>big</u>*

There are some adjectives that are used exclusively in the attributive role (*mere, main*) (49), additionally, adjectives that cannot be used in the attributive role also exist (*asleep,*

alone) (50) (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 529). Using them in the attributive function would be ungrammatical (51).

(49) *It was a <u>mere</u> coincidence.*

(50) *She is <u>alone.</u>*

(51) **alone woman*

According to Veselovská, post-modifying adjectives usually occur due to their linguistic properties or properties that are specific to them (52) or due to the complexity of the particular adjectival phrase (53), (54) (2017, 70–71). As was stated before, if an adjective is complex, it has to be used as a post-modifier.

(52) *syntax <u>proper</u>, court <u>martial</u>*

(53) **She is a child <u>eager.</u>*

(54) *She is a child <u>eager to learn.</u>*

According to McNally and Kennedy, when it comes to post-modifying, in some cases, the way in which the meaning is interpreted lies within the placement of the adjective (2008, 102). McNally and Kennedy illustrate this case with the following examples:

(55) *the <u>navigable</u> river,*

(56) *the river <u>navigable</u>* (2008, 102).

To explain this in more detail, *the navigable river* is able to be sailed on by boats all the time, whereas *the river navigable* is sailable only occasionally. Dušková et al. explain that the postnominal placement of adjectives can demonstrate temporal states; on the other hand, the prenominal position of adjectives can express permanent states (2003, 146).

1.7.1.2 Predicative Adjectives

Adjectives with predicative syntactic function operate in two principal roles, either as a subject complement (57), (58) or as an object complement (59), (60) (Quirk 1985, 417). Adjectives functioning as subject complements are used with copula verbs (Dušková 2003, 146). Copula verbs, also called lining verbs, are, for instance, *seem, appear, be, become, look, feel,* and others. Adjectives functioning as object complements are used after a direct object (Biber et al. 1999, 515). They complete the meaning of the object. Typical verbs that occur with object complements are: *make, name, consider, paint, catch, find, declare,* etc.

(57) *He seems <u>tired</u>.*

(58) *The movie is <u>boring</u>.*

(59) *Josh made her <u>angry</u>.*

(60) *I consider him <u>irresponsible</u>.*

There are some other syntactic roles in which adjectives can be distinguished. Biber et al. mention that they can be used as exclamations, which is a typical feature in dialogue (61) (1999, 519–520).

(61) *Delightful!*

1.7.2 Syntax of Adverbs

The syntactic functions that are the most typical for adverbs are adverbs used as clause adverbials and adverbs used as modifiers (Quirk 1985, 439–440).

1.7.2.1 Adverbs as Adverbials

Frequently, adverbs function as clause adverbials. Quirk explains that an adverbial is "an element distinct from subject, verb, object, and complement," thus, using this element is voluntary (62), (63) (1985, 440). A sentence without this element would be grammatically correct (64), (65).

(62) *She always complains about everything.*

(63) *Perhaps it was a stupid thing to do.*

(64) *She complains about everything.*

(65) *It was a stupid thing to do.*

1.7.2.2 Adverbs as Modifiers

The main function of adverbs is to modify other elements. Frequently, adverbs modify adjectives or other adverbs (Quirk 1985, 441). When it comes to adjectives, the primary role of an adverb is to add more intensity and emphasis to the adjective that it modifies. Quirk labels these kinds of adverbs as intensifiers and divides them into two groups: amplifiers and downtoners (1985, 445). Amplifiers increase the effect of the adjective's meaning, making them stronger (66), (67), whereas downtoners are used to decrease the effect, making them less strong (68), (69) (Quirk 1985, 445).

(66) *very old*

(67) *highly recommended*

(68) *pretty hard*

(69) *barely visible*

The most common type of adjective modification is pre-modification (70), still, it is possible to come across post-modification, meaning that an adverb is used after an adjective (71) (Biber et al. 1999, 545). Adverbs that are commonly used as post-modifiers are *indeed* (72) and *enough* (73) (Quirk 1985, 449).

(70) *It is <u>absolutely</u> useless.*

(71) *This diet is appropriate <u>nutritionally.</u>*

(72) *The food was very good, <u>indeed</u>.*

(73) *She wishes she could be good <u>enough</u> for him.*

As was mentioned, adverbs are other elements that can be modified by adverbs (Biber et al. 1999, 546). Most commonly, the adverb is used as a pre-modifier of the other adverb (74). However, similarly to the modification of adjectives, post-modification can also occur with adverbs such as *indeed* and *enough* (75) (Quirk 1985, 449).

(74) *He runs <u>very</u> fast.*

(75) *She sings beautifully <u>indeed.</u>*

In addition, Quirk adds that adverbs can also modify numerals (76) (1985, 449–450).

(76) *It costs <u>approximately</u> twenty dollars.*

1.7.3 Adverbs' Scope

Adverbs can modify different parts of a sentence. They "take scope over" that particular element (Veselovská 2017, 79). They can take scope over the following elements:

i. particular components of a sentence, such as an adjective or an adverb,

(77) *John is <u>absolutely</u> furious.*
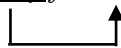
ii. the entire proposition, the adverb is used to modify the clause or sentence as a whole,

(78) *<u>Surprisingly</u>,* [clause *he won the match*].

iii. verb phrases,

(79) *He* [VP *can run*] *<u>fast</u>.*

iv. the inversion of a subject and an operator after fronting (Veselovská 2017, 80).

(80) *<u>Hardly</u>* [AUX *does he know her*].

2 ADJECTIVE AND ADVERB'S CORRESPONDENCE

2.1 Adverbs with the Same Form as Adjectives

Even though most adverbs are derived from adjectives, especially by attaching the adverbial -*ly* suffix, it is important to mention that many adjectives and adverbs that share the same form. They can be regarded as indistinguishable from one another. Not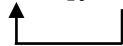 only do they share an identical form, but they are also identical in meaning. Examples of such words are: *fast, hard, high, free, late, long,* and many others (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 568). It is important to note that some of these words also have their counterparts with the -*ly* suffix; however, when the -*ly* suffix is attached, the meaning is different (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 568–569). This phenomenon will be further described in the following chapter.

Sentences below are used to demonstrate adjectives and adverbs' correspondence. The first sentence illustrates that in the phrase *a fast car*, the word *fast* is an adjective because its purpose is to modify the noun (1); on the contrary, in the second sentence, *fast* is an adverb because it modifies the verb (2).

(1) *He wants to buy a <u>fast</u> car.* ADJ

(2) *He runs <u>fast</u>.* ADV

The next example examines the word *deep.* As is visible, the form of the word is the same whether it is an adjective or an adverb. The difference is in the element that is modified. The syntactic criteria are what help to distinguish the appropriate part of speech. For that reason, example number (3) illustrates that *deep* is used as a modifier of a noun; therefore, it is an adjective; however, in the fourth example, it is used as a modifier of a preposition (4), which implies that it is an adverb.

(3) *He had a <u>deep</u> cut on his hand.* ADJ

(4) *They got lost <u>deep</u> in the forest.* ADV

Similar to the last two examples, *long* is used to modify a noun; therefore, it is an adjective (5); however, if it is used to modify a verb, it functions as an adverb (6).

(5) *The kids were exhausted after the <u>long</u> journey.* ADJ

(6) *Their marriage didn't last <u>long</u>.* ADV

Consequently, such adjectives and adverbs are considered semantically identical; however, syntactically, they appear in different roles (Quirk 1985, 456). Such words show the reliability as well as the unreliability of some criteria when classifying words into PoS. Semantics and morphology do not appear to be helpful when trying to classify words as adjectives or adverbs. It is shown that certain adjectives and adverbs can be semantically and

morphologically identical; thus, these criteria are unreliable. On the other hand, syntactic criteria appear to be reliable because the element that is modified by the adjective or adverb helps to distinguish the correct part of speech.

Nevertheless, a certain number of adjectives and adverbs with identical forms do not share the same meaning. Such words are, for instance, *dead, pretty, jolly,* etc. (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 568). In the first sentence used as an example, *dead* is an adjective, and it means *deceased* (7). In the second sentence, *dead* is an adverb, and it means *absolutely* (8)*.

(7) *The mouse was <u>dead</u>.* ADJ

(8) *I am <u>dead</u> serious!* ADV

In the third example, *pretty* is an adjective, and it means *nice-looking* (9)*. In the following example, *pretty* is used as an adverb, and it means *somewhat* (10).

(9) *She wears a <u>pretty</u> dress.* ADJ

(10) *It's getting <u>pretty</u> late.* ADV

The last example deals with the word *jolly.* As an adjective, it means *cheerful* (11)*, as an adverb, it means *very* (12).

(11) *Our boss was in a <u>jolly</u> mood.* ADJ

(12) *John is <u>jolly</u> lucky that they didn't see him trespassing.* ADV

This also illustrates the unreliability of semantic and morphological criteria when classifying adjectives and adverbs as PoS, and the importance of syntactic criteria, because without considering syntax, words can be classified into more PoS than solely one.

3 ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS WITH THE -LY SUFFIX

As was mentioned before, adverbs are commonly derived from adjectives with the help of the adverbial suffix *-ly.* Using this suffix can result in a change of a part of speech, which means that an adverb is derived from an adjective, as is demonstrated in the examples below (1), (2), (3), (4).

(1) *nice → nicely*

(2) *happy → happily*

(3) *sad → sadly*

(4) *polite → politely*

Nevertheless, *-ly* adverbs do not have to be derived only from adjectives. A certain amount of adverbs with the *-ly* suffix can be formed from other PoS, such as nouns. Examples of such adverbs are *namely,* which was derived from the noun *name,* and *partly* from *part* (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 566).

However, even though the *-ly* suffix is considered typical for adverbs, some adjectives can use it as well. Examples of words that can be used both as adjectives and adverbs are *likely* (5), (6)*, weakly, early, hourly* (7), (8)*,* etc. (Dušková et al. 2003, 142).

(5) *The likely outcome is that they are going to fire him.* ADJ

(6) *She will most likely win the match.* ADV

(7) *The workers are not satisfied with their hourly wages.* ADJ

(8) *The results keep changing hourly.* ADV

As is exemplified, the forms of the words stay the same, whether they are adjectives or adverbs. Moreover, semantically, these words are identical. However, they differ syntactically. Therefore, syntax is the main criterion that can help distinguish whether the word is an adjective or an adverb.

3.1 Adjectives That Do Not Accept the Adverbial Suffix -ly

Even though it was mentioned that adverbs are most commonly derived from adjectives with the suffix *-ly,* there is an exception that prevents this process from happening. The misconception is that the suffix *-ly* is commonly associated with adverbs. Nevertheless, there is a certain amount of adjectives ending in *-ly* that cannot be used as adverbs, nor can they be derived into adverbs (Quirk 1985, 402). Therefore, the *-ly* suffix is not an indication that the word is an adverb. Such words cannot be used as adverbs because their usage is reserved only for adjectives, such as *ugly* (9)*, silly, deadly, friendly, lovely, lonely,* and many more.

To exemplify, it is ungrammatical to derive the word *ugly* into an adverb by attaching the suffix *-ly* (10).

(9) *He has an <u>ugly</u> scar on his back.*

(10) **The scar on his back looked <u>uglily.</u>*

In addition, Huddleston and Pullum add other categories of adjectives that do not accept the suffix *-ly* (2002, 566). These are:

i. adjectives that have the prefix *a-* at the beginning of the word (*alike, asleep, alone, alive*),

ii. adjectives ending with the *-or* suffix, this suffix indicates that these words are borrowed from Latin (*anterior, superior, minor, senior*),

iii. past participle adjectives (*broken, improved, interested, explained*), in cases of adjectives ending in past participle, there are some exceptions, for instance, the word *excited* can be derived into an adverb with the *-ly* suffix, thus, *excitedly* is created, same is possible for words such as *confused – confusedly, tired – tiredly,* etc. (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 566).

iv. adjectives that are semantically restricted. These include names of places (*Asian, Canadian, Roman, Swedish*), and colour terms (*grey, orange, maroon, brown*). Nevertheless, a few exceptions can be found when it comes to colours, such as *yellow,* which can be derived into *yellowly,* or *black – blackly, red – redly,* etc. (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 566).

v. adjectives that do not have an adverb equivalent ending in the suffix *-ly*. These adjectives are rather short, and they occur quite frequently (*old, long, drunk, little*) (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 566). They cannot undergo the process of derivation (Quirk 1985, 402). For instance, the adjective *old* cannot form an adverb by adding the suffix *-ly,* thus, a word such as **oldly* does not exist (Quirk 1985, 402). Another example is the adjective *long*, the *-ly* counterpart of this word, which would create **longly,* does not exist (11) (Quirk 1985, 405). If used as an adverb, the word *long* (12) preserves the same form as an adjective (13) without any additional affix.

(11) **Their marriage didn't last <u>longly</u>.*

(12) *Their marriage didn't last <u>long</u>.* ADV

(13) *The presentation took a <u>long</u> time.* ADJ

A further example illustrates the usage of another adjective that does not accept the adverbial suffix -ly, namely the adjective *asleep* (14), as well as its ungrammaticality when misused

as an adverb (15). The example demonstrates that such adjectives are not allowed to be derived into adverbs with the *-ly* suffix.

(14) *The baby fell <u>asleep</u>.* ADJ

(15) **The baby yawned <u>asleepily</u>.*

3.2 The Suffix -ly as an Inflectional One

It is suggested that the suffix *-ly* that is used to derive adverbs from adjectives should be regarded as an inflectional one. That is because the *-ly* suffix that forms adverbs has many characteristics that are typical for inflectional morphology. These typical features are why linguists argue that adverbial *-ly* should be treated as an inflectional suffix, not a derivational one. One of the linguists is, for instance, Giegerich whose claims are in favour of creating a single category that would be composed of both adjectives and adverbs since he argues that the adverbial suffix *-ly* and the adjectival *-ly* differ significantly (2012, 342). According to his claims, adverbial suffix *-ly* is inflectional; on the other hand, adjectival suffix *-ly* is derivational, due to this, adverbs and adjectives cannot belong to different parts of speech (Giegerich 2012, 342–343).

Veselovská is another linguist that provides reasons that are in favour of the claim that the adverbial suffix *-ly* is an inflectional one (2017, 64–65). The morphological arguments that she provides correspond with those offered by Giegerich (2012, 341–342). The reasonings are:

i. in English, the number of inflectional suffixes is limited, there can be only "one overt" suffix that is inflectional (Veselovská 2017, 64). Thus, adverbs ending in *-ly* such as *slowly, gently, openly,* etc., cannot be graded by attaching the inflectional suffix for grading (16), (17); on the contrary, *-ly* adjectives can be graded (18), (19) (Veselovská 2017, 65).

(16) *slowly – *slowlier*

(17) *gently – *gentlier*

(18) *timely – timelier*

(19) *friendly – friendlier*

ii. The order in which the suffixes appear. Derivational suffixes need to precede inflectional ones (Veselovská 2017, 64–65). Therefore, the suffix *-ness* cannot be attached to an adverb with *-ly* suffix to derive adverbs into nouns (20), (21), whereas it is possible to attach the *-ness* suffix to *-ly* adjectives to derive nouns (22), (23) (Veselovská 2017, 65).

(20) *slowly – *slowliness*

(21) *gently – *gentliness*

(22) *timely – timeliness*

(23) *friendly – friendliness*

The reasonings above show that the suffix *-ly,* which is used to derive adjectives into adverbs, is more likely to have traits typical of inflectional morphology than derivational morphology. It is illustrated that, morphologically, the adverbial *-ly* is significantly different from the adjectival *-ly.* While the adjectival *-ly* demonstrates typical features of derivational morphology, as is the ability to be graded and appear before other derivational suffixes, the adverbial *-ly* does not show these features. Instead, the adverbial *-ly* shows features that are quite the opposite and indicate inflectional morphology. Therefore, the adjectival *-ly* can be treated as a derivational suffix; on the contrary, the adverbial suffix *-ly* should not be treated as such. If the adverbial suffix *-ly* was regarded as a derivational one, it would lead to the ungrammatical mistakes that are illustrated in the examples above.

Moreover, not only the ability to grade both adjectives and adverbs, but also this theory suggests that adjectives and adverbs should be regarded as one indistinguishable category. It is indicated that adverbs are in fact, not derived from adjectives as a distinct part of speech; on the contrary, they are only inflected. As was mentioned before, inflectional morphemes do not change the particular part of speech, they do not create a new word; thus, the adjective should stay an adjective. Overall, the proposition of the adverbial *-ly* suffix being an inflectional one demonstrates that adverbs could be viewed as adjectives without inflection (Giegerich 2012, 341), not as adjectives derived into adverbs.

3.3 The -ly Forms with a Different Meaning

Nevertheless, there are cases when the suffix *-ly* creates a whole new meaning. This happens when an adverb has the same form as an adjective; thus, when that particular word is derived with the *-ly* suffix, it has a whole different meaning. Examples that illustrate this phenomenon are words such as *late* and *lately*, *direct* and *directly, near* and *nearly, present* and *presently, high* and *highly, hard* and *hardly,* etc.

(24) *They had a <u>late</u> lunch.* ADJ

(25) *The train arrived <u>late.</u>* ADV

(26) *He has been working a lot <u>lately</u>.* ADV

(27) **The train arrived <u>lately.</u>*

The meaning of *late* is *not on time,* and it can be used both as an adjective (24) or an adverb (25), while *lately* means *recently,* and it functions as an adverb (26). It would not be grammatically correct to use *lately* in a sentence such as *The train arrived lately* (27) because, as was mentioned, the meaning of *lately* and *late* is not identical.

    (28) *This issue needs to be resolved in the <u>near</u> future.* ADJ

    (29) *He lives <u>near</u> the bus station.* ADV

    (30) *She <u>nearly</u> died crossing that street.* ADV

    (31) **He lives <u>nearly</u> the bust station.*

The meaning of *near* is *nearby,* whether it is used as an adjective (28) or an adverb (29). On the contrary, *nearly* is an adverb, and it means *almost* (30). As with the previous example, neither *nearly* can be used in a sentence indicating distance (31), in such a case, the sentence would be ungrammatical.

3.4 Dual-Form Adverbs

As was mentioned, most adverbs are created by attaching the adverbial suffix *-ly.* It is also possible that some adverbs do not take any affixes and belong to the category of closed class adverbs. However, there are adverbs labelled as dual-form that have two options. They can either take the suffix *-ly* or be used without it (Shimizu 2017, 72). Dual-form adverbs are grouped into two categories called the LY-form adverbs and the zero-form adverbs (Shimizu 2017, 72). LY-form adverbs are those that have a different meaning when used with the *-ly* suffix and when used without it (*late/lately, near/nearly,* and many more) (Shimizu 2017, 72). These kinds of adverbs were described in detail in the previous chapter. On the contrary, zero-form adverbs are those that are not semantically different (Shimizu 2017, 72). These adverbs are sometimes used with the *-ly* suffix (32), (34), (36), and sometimes without it (33), (35), (37). Fundamentally, the form of zero-form adverbs is that of bare adjectives (Corver 2014, 47).

    (32) *John drove <u>slowly.</u>*

    (33) *John drove <u>slow.</u>*

    (34) *She sings <u>badly.</u>*

    (35) *She sings <u>bad.</u>*

    (36) *Stop talking so <u>loudly!</u>*

    (37) *Stop talking so <u>loud!</u>*

Notably, the use of zero-form adverbs is limited. Not all words classified as adverbs can be *-ly* unmarked. For instance, it is not possible to use zero-form with adverbs that are semantically classified as adverbs of degree, as is shown in the examples below (38), (39).

(38) *The information he gave me was <u>extremely</u> important.*

(39) **The information he gave me was <u>extreme</u> important.*

On the other hand, such a phenomenon is possible with adverbs of manner (*carefully, beautifully, slowly,* etc.), which are used to modify verbs (Corver 2014, 47). That is due to the fact that certain restrictions limit the use of zero-form adverbs. The crucial element in the possibility of using an adverb as a zero-form is its ability for post-verbal modification. In particular, zero-form adverbs cannot be used before verbs (40), in these cases, they need to be used with the *-ly* suffix (41). The only position where they can appear is after verbs (42) (Corver 2014, 48). The post-verbal position allows the use of both forms (42), (43). This indicates the reason why the zero-form is possible only for manner adverbs since those frequently appear post-verbally, as opposed to other semantic categories of adverbs such as degree adverbs that do not modify verbs and most commonly precede the element they modify (43), thus, cannot be used as zero-forms (44).

(40) **John <u>slow</u> drove the car out of the garage.*

(41) *John <u>slowly</u> drove the car out of the garage.*

(42) *John drove the car out of the garage <u>slow.</u>*

(43) *John drove the car out of the garage <u>slowly</u>.*

(43) *He is <u>entirely</u> sure.*

(44) **He is <u>entire</u> sure.*

Other examples with the word *quick* were provided to demonstrate this restriction further.

(45) *Emily drank the beer <u>quick.</u>*

(46) **Emily <u>quick</u> drank the beer.*

(47) *Emily <u>quickly</u> drank the beer.*

The use of zero-form adverbs is very typical for non-standard or colloquial English. The reason for this is due to the fact that they are said to be a typical feature of a particular dialect, therefore, they fall into the category of colloquial and informal speech (Tagliamonte 2002, 237–243). Tagliamonte indicates that the use of zero-form in present-day dialects "is an innovative form replacing the *-ly* form" (2002, 238).

II. ANALYSIS

4   METHODOLOGY

The aim of this research is to find out the frequency and distribution of the adverbial suffix *-ly* as well as the frequency and distribution of zero-form adverbs in a chosen variety of English, and that is American English. The main purpose is to compare the results of *-ly* adverbs and zero-form adverbs as well as analyse the frequency of occurrence and degree of acceptability of this usage in American English. A selected corpus will be used for this analysis: The Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA). Thanks to this corpus, it will be possible to observe the occurrence of this phenomenon in American English and compare the frequency of occurrence of zero-form adverbs and *-ly* adverbs in this variety of English language.

It was proposed that zero-form adverbs occur more frequently in American English than in any other variety of English. Such a proposition was made by Tagliamonte, in which it is suggested that according to research that compared the frequency of the usage of zero-form adverbs in both American and British English, the occurrence was more frequent in American English than in British English (2002, 238). That is why this analysis focuses on the investigation of zero-form adverbs in American English.

Firstly, the research will show the frequency of usage of the adverbial suffix *-ly* among particula*r* selected adverbs of manner in COCA. Secondly, the research will focus on the distribution of specific words in both forms, that is, with and without the adverbial suffix *-ly*. The selected words are adverbs of manner that possess the ability to be used without the adverbial suffix *-ly* in post-verbal position. Each of the chosen words will be used in collocations with particular selected verbs.

4.1 The Frequencies of Adverbs of Manner in COCA

Typically, the adverbial suffix *-ly* is attached to adjectives to form adverbs. The first searched element in the corpus was the frequency of occurrence of adverbs with this particular suffix. The number of words that this corpus is supposed to contain is over one billion since COCA is considered to be the most used corpus of the English language. The purpose of this part of the research was to see the generated amount of results found in the selected corpus.

During the search, a corpus query language was used. In more detail, it means that in order to generate only *-ly* adverbs, the adverbs in the corpus had to be searched together with a wildcard accompanied by the suffix *-ly* so that the found results would be only adverbs ending with the *-ly* suffix, moreover, a part of speech tag was used to limit the search only

to adverbs, which is in COCA indicated by the underscore and the letter *r* next to it. The example below illustrates what the query looked like (1).

(1) **ly_r*

The generated results in COCA contained over ten million results in frequency altogether. Table 1 shows the frequency of five selected adverbs. The selected adverbs are those of manner since only those can be used without the *-ly* suffix post-verbally, thus, they will serve for further analysis.

Tab. 1 Adverbs of Manner in COCA

Examples of Words	Frequency
Quickly	120,141
Easily	76,351
Slowly	60,873
Carefully	43,034
Beautifully	8,407

The frequencies of the found results determined the adverbs that are going to be further investigated in the following analysis. The first four adverbs, namely *quickly, easily, slowly*, and *carefully* were the ones that were the most commonly occurring adverbs of manner in COCA. For that reason, they were chosen for the following analysis, together with *beautifully*. This particular adverb was selected due to the fact that it represents an adverb of manner with a lower frequency in COCA. Since it is an adverb of manner with an overall lower distribution, it was chosen for the purpose of determining if the lower distribution of *-ly* marked adverbs influences the frequency of occurrence of its zero-form counterpart. Moreover, *beautifully* was also selected to illustrate the possibility of using it as a zero-form.

4.2 The Comparison of Specific Words in COCA

The second part of the research involves the distribution of specific adverbs in both forms, that is, with and without the adverbial suffix *-ly*. The selected words are adverbs of manner as illustrated in Table 1: *quickly, easily, slowly, carefully,* and *beautifully.* Each of these adverbs was searched in its zero-form as well. Thus, *quick, easy, slow, careful,* and *beautiful* were also analysed. Each of these words was searched in collocations with selected verbs. The verbs were selected with the help of the most frequently occurring collocations that were found in COCA with the aforementioned adverbs. For instance, five verbs with the highest

frequency were chosen according to the generated results when searching for the most common collocations with the adverb *quickly*.

Even during this search, a corpus query language was used. When searching for the most frequent collocations, a verb was selected as a specific part of speech, and a particular adverb was put next to it (2).

(2) *VERB slowly*

Furthermore, the selected verbs were searched as lemmas, thanks to that, the corpus searched for all forms of the verbs. To create the collocation, the particular word was added, labelled as an adverb, which is in COCA indicated by the letter *r,* to omit other parts of speech that could occur (3). The example below illustrates the search process.

(3) *WALK slowly_r*

The capitalized verb ensures that all forms of the verb will be found (e.g. *walk, walked, walking, walks*). The underscore and the letter *r* next to it stand for a particular part of speech, in this case, adverbs.

4.2.1   Quickly/Quick in COCA

First, the adverbs *quickly/quick* were analysed. In this analysis, the adverbs were investigated with the following verbs: *move, say,* and *act.* The verbs were selected because they were the results of the most frequent collocations occurring in COCA with the adverb *quickly.*

Tab. 2 Quickly/quick in COCA

"-ly" marked	Frequency	"-ly" unmarked	Frequency
Move quickly	2,474	**Move quick**	63
Say quickly	858	**Say quick**	12
Act quickly	736	**Act quick**	14

According to the results, the occurrence of *move quickly* is much more frequent than *move quick*. The comparison of the frequencies shows that the difference is considerable. *Move quick* with 63 examples occurs only sporadically in contrast to 2,474 examples of *move quickly*. The examples below illustrate sentences where both forms of this collocation appeared.

(4) *We have to **move quickly**. She's going into shock* (COCA 2015, MOV: Why She Cries).

(5) *As long as we **move quick**, we got a good chance* (COCA 2014, MOV: Planes: Fire & Rescue).

(6) *When the bell rang, he **moved quick** to the front of the line* (COCA 2005, FIC: SCarolinaRev).

Similarly, the frequencies of collocations *say quickly* and *act quickly* are more commonly found in COCA than the zero-form versions *say quick* and *act quick*. Similarly, the differences in frequencies are significant. It shows that *say quick* and *act quick* are not a standard usage in American English. The examples below demonstrate samples found in COCA.

(7) *"That wouldn't be her," Krista **said quickly*** (COCA 2010, FIC: Bk:Predator).

(8) *"Depends what mood her mom's in," Ebony **says quick**, so Grace won't have to* (COCA 2002, FIC: BkSF:LifeFunny).

(9) *"He's been almighty tired," she **says quick**, defensive* (COCA 1996, MAG: BoysLife).

(10) *As in New York, firefighters and police **acted quickly*** (COCA 2004, ACAD: AnthropolQ).

(11) *When it's a bomb, you have to **act quick*** (COCA 2014, MOV: Earth to Echo).

(12) *If it doesn't **act quick**, the same thing will happen when the Russians left* (COCA 2001, NEWS: SanFranChron).

The results show that the frequencies of the aforementioned zero-forms are much lower than their adverbial suffix *-ly* counterparts. Due to such low frequencies, especially in comparison with the collocations with the *-ly* suffix forms, the examples of the zero-form adverb *quick* can be considered rare. From the three zero-form collocations analysed, the most frequent occurrence was the one in collocation with the verb *move,* thus, *move quick.* The number of examples was 63, which is much more than the collocations with *say* and *act.* However, the 63 examples can still be considered rare, especially if the frequency of the 2,474 found examples of the collocation *move quickly* is taken into consideration. This illustrates that the adverb *quickly* is more frequently used in its marked form in American English.

4.2.2 Easily/Easy in COCA

The adverbs *easily/easy* were analysed. In this analysis, the adverbs were investigated with the following verbs: *come, talk,* and *fit.* The verbs were selected because they were the results of the most frequent collocations occurring in COCA with the adverb *easily.*

Tab. 3 Easily/easy in COCA

"-ly" marked	Frequency	"-ly" unmarked	Frequency
Come easily	785	**Come easy**	599
Talk easily	178	**Talk easy**	1
Fit easily	185	**Fit easy**	0

When it comes to the collocations with the verb *come*, the results show that even though the occurrence of *come easily* is more frequent than *come easy*, the difference is not as significant. The number of examples of the collocation *come easy* is high and can be considered equivalent to the one with the adverbial suffix *-ly*. The examples below illustrate sentences where both forms of this collocation appeared.

(13) *Because everyone loves and adores you and things* **come easily** *to you* (COCA 2017, MOV: Ava's Impossible Things).

(14) *Love doesn't seem to* **come easy** *to her* (COCA 2012, WEB: racialicious.com).

(15) *I was seventeen, and devastation* **came easy** (COCA 2013, FIC: Wise men: a novel).

On the contrary, the frequency of collocations *talk easy* with one example is negligible. Moreover, no results were found for the collocation *fit easy*. Compared to their *-ly* counterparts, the use of these zero-form adverbs in the aforementioned collocations can be viewed as non-existent. The examples below demonstrate the examples found.

(16) *They* **talked easily** *together* (COCA 2009, SPOK: CNN_Showbiz).

(17) *She'd feel a little jealous when that happened, watching Jack* **talking easy** *with another woman his age [...]* (COCA 1993, FIC: Bk:BorderMusic).

(18) *This whole thing will* **fit easily** *once we take the cribs apart* (COCA 2019, TV: Modern Family).

The results of the adverb *easily / easy* illustrate that the frequency of the zero-forms is lower than their adverbial suffix *-ly* counterparts, especially with regard to the collocations *talk easy* and *fit easy*. The one found example of *talk easy* can be considered rare, thus, these collocations are not ordinarily used in American English.

On the other hand, the number of occurrences of the collocation *come easy* resembles the one with the adverbial suffix *-ly*. Nevertheless, the frequency is still lower. Thus, the adverb *easily* occurs more frequently than its zero-form counterpart *easy,* for that reason, it can be considered more conventional in American English.

4.2.3 Slowly/Slow in COCA

The adverbs *slowly/slow* were analysed. In this analysis, the adverbs were investigated with the following verbs: *walk, say,* and *move.* The verbs were selected because they were the results of the most frequent collocations occurring in COCA with the adverb *slowly.*

Tab. 4 Slowly/slow in COCA

"-ly" marked	Frequency	"-ly" unmarked	Frequency
Walk slowly	1,407	**Walk slow**	44
Say slowly	792	**Say slow**	6
Move slowly	1,909	**Move slow**	135

According to the results, the collocation *walk slowly* generated more results than the collocation *walk slow*. *Walk slowly* occurs in 1,407 cases, while *walk slow* was found in only 44 cases. Such a distinction in the aforementioned number of found cases illustrates that the occurrence of *walk slow* in American English is only occasional. The examples below illustrate sentences where both forms of this collocation appeared.

(19) *She started to **walk slowly** away* (COCA 2015, FIC: FantasySciFi).

(20) *He's **walked slow** these last few evenings* (COCA 2009, MOV: A Christmas Carol).

(21) *Girl, you been **walking slow** all day. What's your problem?* (COCA 1992, MOV: Bébé's Kids)

Considering the collocation *say slow,* the number of examples found can be regarded as rare, especially in comparison with the frequency of *say slowly,* where the frequency is much higher. These examples can be viewed as an exception, thus, *say slow* is not normally used in American English.

(22) *"Did it turn out all right?" I **say slowly*** (COCA 2005, FIC: Bk:AmericanGirls).

(23) *Tyler Florence has a tip. He **says slow** and low* (COCA 2016, SPOK: NBC: Today Show).

(24) *Just bring it up slow. I **said slow**!* (COCA 1995, MOV: Waterworld)

On the contrary, the collocation *move slow* is the one with the most frequent occurrence. Nevertheless, even though its frequency is much higher than the former examples of this unmarked adverb used with different verbs, in comparison with *move slowly* with almost two thousand examples, its usage is not as widespread in American English.

(25) *Keep **moving slowly**, but carefully* (COCA 2014, MOV: Planes: Fire & Rescue).

(26) *Also, my guys are **moving slow*** (COCA 2019, MOV: Blood Fest).

(27) *I suggest we **move slow**, so we don't raise dust.* (COCA 1995, MOV: In Pursuit of Honor).

4.2.4 Carefully/Careful in COCA

The adverbs *carefully/careful* were analysed. In this analysis, the adverbs were investigated with the following verbs: *listen, look,* and *think.* The verbs were selected because they were the results of the most frequent collocations occurring in COCA with the adverb *carefully.*

Tab. 5 Carefully/careful in COCA

"-ly" marked	Frequency	"-ly" unmarked	Frequency
Listen carefully	1,340	**Listen careful**	8
Look carefully	760	**Look careful**	5
Think carefully	431	**Think careful**	0

As shown in Table 5, the frequencies of all *-ly* unmarked adverbs used in the three searched collocation are much lower than the frequencies of their *-ly* marked counterparts. The few instances that were found with *listen careful* and *think careful* are rather exceptional. Thus, they can be considered rare examples, particularly in comparison with the high numbers of cases where the *-ly* marked adverbs appeared. Overall, it can be said that the usage of *careful* as a zero-form adverb can be regarded as very rare and unconventional. The examples below illustrate sentences where these collocations occurred.

(28) *I want everybody to **listen carefully** to this* (COCA 2012, WEB: https://whitehouse.gov).

(29) *Mr. Banes, I need to **listen careful** now, right?* (COCA 2011, MOV: Mysteria).

(30) *You **listen careful** to every sound* (COCA 1995, MOV: Wild Bill).

(31) *She **looks carefully** at my face* (COCA 2012, FIC: VirginiaQRev).

(32) ***Look careful**. See? It moves* (COCA 2019, TV: Hanna).

(33) *He **looked careful** across the yard to see what Donnie knew* (COCA 2016, FIC: Appalachian Heritage).

Moreover, in the case of *think careful* the number of examples found was zero. Thus, the use of such collocation is not established in American English.

(34) *I **thought carefully** about those words before I wrote them* (COCA 2019, MAG: Salon).

4.2.5 Beautifully/Beautiful in COCA

The adverbs *beautifully/beautiful* were analysed. In this analysis, the adverbs were investigated with the following verbs: *work, play,* and *sing.* The verbs were selected because they were the results of the most frequent collocations occurring in COCA with the adverb *beautifully.*

Tab. 6 Beautifully/beautiful in COCA

"-ly" marked	Frequency	"-ly" unmarked	Frequency
Work beautifully	285	**Work beautiful**	2
Play beautifully	73	**Play beautiful**	2
Sing beautifully	55	**Sing beautiful**	5

The found data of the zero-form adverb *beautiful* demonstrate that the frequencies of all *-ly* unmarked adverbs in the three above-mentioned collocations are lower than the frequencies of their *-ly* marked counterparts. It can be concluded that the use of the adverb *beautiful* in its zero-form is infrequent. Even though a few examples were found with all three *-ly* unmarked collocations of this adverb, the found instances can still be considered exceptions. Nevertheless, the found results illustrate that the use of *beautiful* functioning as an adverb without the suffix *-ly* is possible, even though such collocations are not common in American English. The examples below illustrate sentences where these collocations were found.

(35) *Rove's plan appeared to **work beautifully*** (COCA 2006, MAG: WashMonth).

(36) *I'm excited to try something with them and just think some how - involved with lights will **work beautiful*** (COCA 2012, BLOG: https://junkmarketstyle.com).

(37) *She **played beautifully**, but I was bored* (COCA 2008, ACAD: Writer).

(38) *"He **played beautiful**," said Tiger Woods […]* (COCA 2012, WEB: https://espn.go.com/).

(39) *She made us **sing beautifully*** (COCA 1992, MOV: Sister Act).

(40) *You **sing beautiful*** (COCA 2005, MOV: Little Men).

(41) *[…] but she loved the twelve people in the long maroon robes who **sang beautiful** and pure* (COCA 1995, FIC: Triquarterly).

4.2.6 The Conclusion of the Analysis

To conclude, according to the assembled data from COCA, it is seen that *-ly* marked adverbs occur more frequently than zero-form adverbs in American English. The comparison of the

number of frequencies of adverbs with the adverbial suffix *-ly* and the number of frequencies of their zero-form counterparts found in COCA indicates a significant difference. The results with the *-ly* marked adverbs commonly generated hundreds or thousands of results; on the contrary, the frequencies of *-ly* unmarked adverbs were not as high. Therefore, the occurrence of zero-form adverbs can be considered very rare and only sporadic. From the zero-form adverbs analysed only two of them obtained a high frequency of occurrence. Those were *easy* in a collocation with the verb *come,* which generated 599 results, and *slow* in collocation with the verb *move,* which was found in 135 examples. Two of the analysed adverbs were not found in any examples at all, these were used as collocations *fit easy* and *think careful.* Other zero-form adverbs occurred rather sporadically and exceptionally. However, even though the frequencies were not as high, the examples of the majority of the selected zero-form adverbs investigated in the analysis generated a few examples. This shows that even though the usage is not as frequent and conventional as the *-ly* marked adverb, it is still possible to come across their zero-form counterparts or to informally use them in this way.

Nevertheless, it is essential to mention that the usage of zero-form adverbs in American English is unconventional, as is suggested by the low frequencies of zero-form adverbs in the analysis.

CONCLUSION

The main aim of this bachelor thesis was to observe the use of the adverbial suffix *-ly* and the so-called zero-form adverbs in American English in order to discover the frequency of occurrence and the level of acceptability and formality in this particular variety of English.

In the first chapter, adjectives and adverbs were described from a semantic, morphological, and syntactic point of view because these are the essential criteria when categorizing words into parts of speech. Moreover, the similarities and differences between adjectives and adverbs were distinguished, and it was recognized that adjectives and adverbs as parts of speech share many properties. The distinction between them is based mainly on their syntactic function. That is why these two parts of speech are often classed into one category, which is labelled the A category.

As stated in the theoretical part, the adverbial suffix *-ly* is often regarded as the main distinction that separates and distinguishes adverbs from adjectives. Therefore, an important part of this bachelor thesis was to focus on the correlation between adjectives and adverbs that share the same form and meaning, as well as the usage of the suffix *-ly* with both adjectives and adverbs, since this suffix is not reserved only for adverbs but can be attached to adjectives as well. A crucial part of this bachelor thesis presents an argument that emphasizes why the adverbial suffix *-ly* should be regarded as an inflectional rather than a derivational one because it has many features that are typical for inflectional morphology. Since many reasons support this argument, the theory of the adverbial suffix *-ly* being an inflectional one instead of a derivational one is supported in this thesis. Furthermore, the process of omitting the suffix *-ly* in the adverbial function is introduced, which results in the occurrence of zero-form adverbs that can be regarded as bare adjectives. The phenomenon of omitting the adverbial suffix *-ly* is possible with adverbs of manner that are used in the post-verbal position. However, according to many experts, the use of zero-form adverbs is mainly reserved for informal and spoken language. It is still regarded as colloquial, and its occurrence in a formal language is very rare. Moreover, its occurrence is stated to be more frequent in American English than in other varieties of English.

The practical part was dedicated to the observation of the use of the adverbial suffix *-ly* as well as the use of zero-form adverbs. It dealt with the comparison of data obtained from COCA. The results used for comparison were the frequency of adverbs with an adverbial suffix *-ly* and zero-form adverbs in American English.

Firstly, the frequency of the adverbial suffix among adverbs of manner *-ly* was analysed. The found data determined the adverbs of manner whose frequencies were the highest. Therefore, they were selected to be used in the second part of the analysis.

Secondly, according to the obtained results, the distribution of five specific adverbs in both of their forms (*quickly/quick, easily/easy, slowly/slow, carefully/careful,* and *beautifully/beautiful*), which were searched in collocations with selected verbs, were analysed and compared. The findings show that the frequency of usage of adverbs with the adverbial suffix *-ly* in American English is higher than the usage of zero-form adverbs. The number of found examples illustrates that the difference is quite significant. In comparison with *-ly* marked adverbs, the frequency of zero-form adverbs was not as high. The use of zero-form adverbs can be viewed as rare and uncommon. Nevertheless, even if the frequency of occurrence of zero-form adverbs was low, the generated results showed that even though the usage is not as frequent as adverbs with the adverbial suffix *-ly*, it is still possible to come across their zero-form counterparts or to use them in this way.

In conclusion, based on the results obtained from COCA, it is apparent that the use of adverbs with the adverbial suffix *-ly* is more frequent than zero-form adverbs in American English. However, its usage is still regarded as unconventional in this variety of English. These findings support and confirm the linguists' claims about the possibility of using manner adverbs in post-verbal positions as zero-forms.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

PoS   – parts of speech

ADV   – adverb

*   – wrong example

etc.   – etcetera

e.g.   – exempli gratia

A   – adjectives + adverbs

COCA   – Corpus of Contemporary American English

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