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Comparative Clauses in English

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بِسْمِ اللَّهِ الرَّحْمَنِ الرَّحِيمِ

ذَٰلِكَ الْكِتَابُ لَا رَيْبَ ۛ فِيهِ ۛ هُدًى لِلْمُتَّقِينَ(2)

صدق الله العظيم

In the name of Allah, the Entirely Merciful, the Entirely Merciful.

(2) This is the Book about which there is no doubt, a guidance for those

conscious of Allah.

Great truth of God

سورة البقرة :الآية ٢

Dedication

I dedicate this humble work to my dear father. To the source of tenderness, my dear mother. To my brothers, sisters, and girlfriends, and everyone helped me and prayed for me with success and excellence. To my teachers and professors to all members of the educational family. To everyone who stood with me and supported me.

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I want to express my special thanks for the efforts of my supervisor , Prof. Dr. Abd Ali Nayif Hasan, I also want to thank all of my parents, and brothers who helped me a lot in completing this project.

Abstract

There are mainly two ways of comparing adjectives in English: the analytic and the synthetic. The analytic way is to use more and most (for example difficult, more difficult, most difficult). The synthetic, or inflectional, way is to add the endings –er and –est (for instance fast, faster, fastest). During the last twelve centuries the way of forming comparisons in English has evolved from predominately synthetic to the point where both inflections and analytic forms are used. Today many adjectives are almost always compared either synthetically or analytically (e.g. fast and difficult respectively), but sometimes we have two alternatives; for example, we can choose between more polite and politer. The author has three aims with this paper: firstly, to examine how adjectives in English are compared today; secondly, to determine how well the descriptions in modern grammars agree with authentic written English; thirdly, to see whether there have been any recent changes in the way of indicating comparison.

هناك طريقتان رئيسيتان لمقارنة الصفات في اللغة الإنجليزية: التحليلي والصرفية. الطريقة التحليلية هي استخدام أكثر وأكثر (على سبيل المثال صعب ، أصعب ، أصعب). الصرفية، الطريقة هي إضافة النهايات –er و –est (على سبيل المثال سريع ، أسرع ، أسرع). خلال الاثني عشر قرنا الماضية طريقة تكوين المقارنات باللغة الإنجليزية تطورت من التخليق في الغالب إلى النقطة التي يكون فيها كلاهما يتم استخدام التصريفات والأشكال التحليلية. اليوم العديد من الصفات تقريبا تُقارن دائمًا إما صرفيا أو تحليليًا (على سبيل المثال سريع وصعب على التوالي) ، ولكن في بعض الأحيان يكون لدينا بديلان ؛ على سبيل المثال ، نحن يمكن أن تختار بين الأدب والأدب. المؤلف لديه ثلاثة أهداف مع هذه الورقة: أولاً ، لفحص كيفية مقارنة الصفات في اللغة الإنجليزية اليوم؛ ثانيًا ، لتحديد مدى جودة الأوصاف الحديثة تتفق القواعد النحوية مع اللغة الإنجليزية المكتوبة الأصلية ؛ ثالثًا ، لمعرفة ما إذا كان هناك أي تغييرات حديثة في طريقة الإشارة إلى المقارنة.

Introduction

There are two ways of comparing adjectives in English: the analytic and the synthetic. The analytic way is to use more and most (for example difficult, more difficult, most difficult); this is also called phrasal or periphrastic comparison. The synthetic, or inflectional, way is to add the endings –er and –est (for instance fast, faster, fastest). If the two ways are combined, it is called double comparison and this is considered as non-standard; so are hybrid forms such as bestest. A few adjectives have a different stem in the positive (e.g. good, bad) and in the comparative and the superlative. Not all adjectives can be compared; in other words, not all are gradable. A word is either disyllabic or not, so we cannot say the more disyllabic word or the most disyllabic word. The adjective inflectional system in Modern English is simpler than in Swedish, German and Old English. Where the adjective ending is determined by the gender of the following noun. In Modern English, on the other hand, the only adjective inflections left are those of the synthetic comparison. During the last twelve centuries the way of forming comparisons in English has evolved from predominately synthetic to the point where both inflections and periphrastic forms are used. Today many adjectives are almost always compared either synthetically or analytically, but some- times we have two alternatives; for example, we can choose between more polite and politer. I have three aims with this paper: firstly, to examine how adjectives in English are compared today; secondly, to determine how well the descriptions in modern grammars agree with how adjectives are compared in authentic written English; thirdly, to see whether there have been any recent changes in the way of indicating comparison. It will be a quantitative study.

Chapter One: Adjective

1.1. Definitions

An adjective In linguistics, an adjective (abbreviated adj) is a word that modifies a noun or noun phrase or describes its referent. Its semantic role is to change information given by the noun (Betti, 2021,p.25). Traditionally, adjectives are considered one of the main parts of speech of the English language, although historically they were classed together with nouns (Trask, 2013,p.188). Nowadays, certain words that usually had been classified as adjectives, including the, this, my, etc., typically are classed separately, as determiners (Betti, 2021,p.2). Some examples are:

1) That's an interesting idea. (attributive)

2) That idea is interesting. (predicative)

3) Tell me something interesting. (postpositive)

4) The good, the bad, and the ugly. (substantive) (Betti, 2021,p.9).

1.2. Etymology

"Adjective" comes from Latin nōmen adjectīvum, (Lewis and Short) a calque of ancient Greek: lit. 'additional noun' (Mastronarde, 2013. p.60).

In the grammatical tradition of Latin and Greek, because adjectives were inflected for gender, number, and case like nouns (a process called declension), they were considered a type of noun. The words that are today typically called nouns were then called

substantive nouns ("Attributive and predicative adjectives" at Lexico, The terms noun substantive and noun adjective were formerly used in English but are now obsolete (Betti, 1996,p.94).

1.3. Types of use

Depending on the language, an adjective can precede a corresponding noun on a prepositive basis or it can follow a corresponding noun on a postpositive basis. Structural, contextual, and style considerations can impinge on the pre-or post-position of an adjective in a given instance of its occurrence. In English, occurrences of adjectives generally can be classified into one of three categories (Betti, 1995,p.5).

Prepositive adjectives, which are also known as "attributive adjectives", occur on an antecedent basis within a noun phrase (McMenomy, 2014,p.8).

For example:

5) I put my happy kids into the car,

Wherein "happy" occurs on an antecedent basis within "my happy kids" noun phrase, and therefore functions in a prepositive adjective (Trask, 2013,p.188).

Postpositive adjectives can occur:

(a) immediately subsequent to a noun within a noun phrase, e.g.

6) "I took a short drive around with my happy kids";

(b) as linked via a copula or other linking mechanism subsequent to a corresponding noun or pronoun; for example: "My kids are happy", wherein "happy" is a predicate adjective or

(c) as an appositive adjective (Bowern, 2013,p.18) within a noun phrase, e.g.

7) My kids, [who are] happy to go cruising, are in the back seat (Lewis and Short,p.5).

 Nominalized adjectives, which function as nouns. One way this happens is by eliding a noun from an adjective-noun noun phrase, whose remnant thus is a nominalization. In the sentence,

8) I read two books to them; he preferred the sad book, but she preferred the happy,

"happy" is a nominalized adjective, short for "happy one" or "happy book". Another way this happens is in phrases like "out with the old, in with the new", where "the old" means "that which is old" or "all that is old", and similarly with "the new") (Betti, 2021,p.2).

In such cases, the adjective may function as a mass noun (as in the preceding example). In English, it may also function as a plural count noun denoting a collective group, as in

9) The meek shall inherit the Earth,

where "the meek" means "those who are meek" or "all who are meek"(Simpson, 2012; (Al-Seady, 2002,p.11).

1.3.1. Distribution

Adjectives feature as a part of speech (word class) in most languages. In some languages, the words that serve the semantic function of adjectives are categorized together with some other class, such as nouns or verbs. In the phrase "a Ford car", "Ford" is unquestionably a noun but its function is adjectival: to modify "car". In some languages adjectives can function as nouns: for example (Mastronarde, 2013,p.61).

As for "confusion" with verbs, rather than an adjective meaning "big", a language might have a verb that means "to be big" and could then use an attributive verb construction analogous to "big-being house" to express what in English is called a "big house". A similar analysis is possible for the grammar of Standard Arabic (Betti, 2021bb: 5). Different languages do not use adjectives in exactly the same situations. For example, English uses "to be hungry" (hungry being an adjective). In languages that have adjectives as a word class, it is usually an open class; that is, it is relatively common for new adjectives to be formed via such processes as derivation (McMenomy, 2014,p. 8).

1.3.2. Adverbs

Many languages (including English) distinguish between adjectives, which qualify nouns and pronouns, and adverbs, which mainly modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs. Not all languages make this exact distinction; many (including English) have words that

can function as either. For example, in English, "fast" is an adjective in "a fast car" (where it qualifies the noun car) but an adverb in "he drove fast" (where it modifies the verb drove) (Al-Sheikh, 2006,p.71).

1.3.3. Determiners

Linguists today distinguish determiners from adjectives, considering them to be two separate parts of speech (or lexical categories). But formerly determiners were considered to be adjectives in some of their uses (Betti, 2002c,p.62).

Determiners are words that are neither nouns nor pronouns, yet reference to a thing already in context. They generally do this by indicating definiteness (a vs. the), quantity (one vs. some vs. many), or another such property (See "Attributive and predicative adjectives" at Lexico) (Betti, 2021,p.12).

1.3.4. Adjective Phrases

An adjective acts as the head of an adjective phrase or adjectival phrase (AP). In the simplest case, an adjective phrase consists solely of the adjective; more complex adjective phrases may contain one or more adverbs modifying the adjective ("very strong"), or one or more complements (such as "worth several dollars", "full of toys", or "eager to please"). In English, attributive adjective phrases that include complements typically follow the noun that they qualify ("an evildoer devoid of redeeming qualities") (See "appositive adjective" at ThoughtCo) (Betti, 2021,p. 2).

5

1.3.5. Other Modifiers of Nouns

In many languages (including English) it is possible for nouns to modify other nouns. Unlike adjectives, nouns acting as modifiers (called attributive nouns or noun adjuncts) usually are not predicative; a beautiful park is beautiful, but a car park is not "car". The modifier often indicates origin ("Virginia reel"), purpose ("work clothes"), semantic patient ("man eater") or semantic subject ("child actor"); however, it may generally indicate almost any semantic relationship. It is also common for adjectives to be derived from nouns, as in boyish, birdlike, behavioral (behavioural), famous, manly, angelic, and so on (Bowern, 2013; Betti, 2002e: 45; and Betti, and Al-Jubouri, 2015,p.8).

In Australian Aboriginal languages, the distinction between adjectives and nouns is typically thought weak, and many of the languages only use nouns--or nouns with a limited set of adjective-deriving affixes--to modify other nouns. In languages that have a subtle adjective-noun distinction, one way to tell them apart is that a modifying adjective can come to stand in for an entire elided noun phrase, while a modifying noun cannot (Simpson, 2012,p.31).

In other languages, like Arabic, nouns and adjectives are lumped together beneath the nominal umbrella because of their shared syntactic distribution as arguments of predicates. The only thing distinguishing them is that some nominals seem to semantically

denote entities (typically nouns in English) and some nominals seem to denote attributes (typically adjectives in English) (Betti, 2021,p.2)

Many languages have special verbal forms called participles that can act as noun modifiers (alone or as the head of a phrase). Sometimes participles develop into pure adjectives. Examples in English include "relieved" (the past participle of the verb "relieve", used as an adjective in sentences such as

11) I am so relieved to see you"),

"Spoken" (as in "the spoken word"), and "going" (the present participle of the verb "go", used as an adjective in such phrases as "the going rate")(Simpson, 2012,p.1-2).

Other constructs that often modify nouns include prepositional phrases (as in "a rebel without a cause"), relative clauses (as in "the man who wasn't there"), and infinitive phrases (as in "a cake to die for"). Some nouns can also take complements such as content clauses (as in "the idea that I would do that"), but these are not commonly considered modifiers. For more information about possible modifiers and dependents of nouns, see Components of noun phrases (Order of adjectives, British Council; (Betti, 2002,p. 52).

1.4. Order

In many languages, attributive adjectives usually occur in a specific order. In general, the adjective order in English can be summarised as: opinion, size, age or shape, colour, origin, material, purpose (Dixon, 1977,p.19). Other language authorities, like the

Cambridge Dictionary, state that shape precedes rather than follows age(Dowling, 2016,p.80). Determiners and postdeterminers articles, numerals, and other limiters (e.g. three blind mice) come before attributive adjectives in English. Although certain combinations of determiners can appear before a noun, they are far more circumscribed than adjectives in their use typically, only a single determiner would appear before a noun or noun phrase (including any attributive adjectives) (Al-Jubouri, 2009,o.5).

1. Opinion – limiter adjectives (e.g. a real hero, a perfect idiot) and adjectives of subjective measure (e.g. beautiful, interesting) or value (e.g. good, bad, costly)

2. Size – adjectives denoting physical size (e.g. tiny, big, extensive)Shape or physical quality – adjectives describing more detailed physical attributes than overall size (e.g. round, sharp, swollen, thin) (Igaab, 2018,p.31).

3. Age – adjectives denoting age (e.g. young, old, new, ancient, six-year-old)

4. Colour – adjectives denoting colour or pattern (e.g. white, black, pale, spotted)

5. Origin – denominal adjectives denoting source (e.g. French, volcanic, extraterrestrial)

Material – denominal adjectives denoting what something is made of (e.g., woollen, metallic, wooden) (Hashim, 2018,p.276).

Qualifier/purpose – final limiter, which sometimes forms part of the (compound) noun (e.g., rocking chair, hunting cabin, passenger car, book cover) (the Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary online). This means that, in English, adjectives pertaining to size precede adjectives pertaining to age ("little old", not "old little"), which in turn generally precede adjectives pertaining to colour ("old white", not "white old"). So, one would say "One (quantity) nice (opinion) little (size) old (age) round (shape) [or round old] white (colour) brick (material) house." When several adjectives of the same type are used together, they are ordered from general to specific, like "lovely intelligent person" or "old medieval castle" (Dixon, 1977,p.29–32).

This order may be more rigid in some languages than others; in some, like Spanish, it may only be a default (unmarked) word order, with other orders being permissible. Other languages, such as Tagalog, follow their adjectival orders as rigidly as English. The normal adjectival order of English may be overridden in certain circumstances, especially when one adjective is being fronted. For example, the usual order of adjectives in English would result in the phrase "the bad big wolf" (opinion before size), but instead, the usual phrase is "the big bad wolf" (Ulaiwi, 2018,p.82).

Owing partially to borrowings from French, English has some adjectives that follow the noun as postmodifiers, called postpositive adjectives, as in time immemorial and attorney general. Adjectives may even change meaning depending on whether they precede or

follow, as in proper: They live in a proper town (a real town, not a village) vs. They live in the town proper (in the town itself, not in the suburbs). All adjectives can follow nouns in certain constructions, such as tell me something new (Betti, 2020,p.18).

1.5. Comparison (degrees)

In many languages, some adjectives are comparable and the measure of comparison is called degree. For example, a person may be "polite", but another person may be "more polite", and a third person may be the "most polite" of the three. The word "more" here modifies the adjective "polite" to indicate a comparison is being made, and "most" modifies the adjective to indicate an absolute comparison (a superlative). Among languages that allow adjectives to be compared, different means are used to indicate comparison. Some languages do not distinguish between comparative and superlative forms. Other languages allow adjectives to be compared but do not have a special comparative form of the adjective. In such cases, as in some Australian Aboriginal languages, case-marking, such as the ablative case may be used to indicate one entity has more of an adjectival quality than (i.e. from hence ABL) another (Al-Fartoosy, 2019,p.107).

In English, many adjectives can be inflected to comparative and superlative forms by taking the suffixes "-er" and "-est" (sometimes requiring additional letters before the suffix; see forms for far below), respectively (the Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary online):

"great", "greater", "greatest"

"deep", "deeper", "deepest"

Some adjectives are irregular in this sense:

"good", "better", "best"

"bad", "worse", "worst"

"many", "more", "most" (sometimes regarded as an adverb or determiner)

"little", "less", "least"

Some adjectives can have both regular and irregular variations:

"old", "older", "oldest"

"far", "farther", "farthest"

"old", "elder", "eldest"

"far", "further", "furthest"

Another way to convey comparison is by incorporating the words "more" and "most". There is no simple rule to decide which means is correct for any given adjective, however. The general tendency is for simpler adjectives and those from Anglo-Saxon to take the suffixes, while longer adjectives and those from French, Latin, or Greek do not but sometimes sound of the word is the deciding factor. Many adjectives do not naturally lend themselves to comparison. For example, some English speakers would argue that it does not make sense to say that one thing is "more ultimate" than another, or that

something is "most ultimate", since the word "ultimate" is already absolute in its semantics. Such adjectives are called non-comparable or absolute (Declerck, 1991,p.350).

Nevertheless, native speakers will frequently play with the raised forms of adjectives of this sort. Although "pregnant" is logically non-comparable (either one is pregnant or not), one may hear a sentence like "She looks more and more pregnant each day". Likewise "extinct" and "equal" appear to be non-comparable, but one might say that a language about which nothing is known is "more extinct" than a well-documented language with surviving literature but no speakers, while George Orwell wrote.

12) All animals are equal, but some animals are more equal than others".

These cases may be viewed as evidence that the base forms of these adjectives are not as absolute in their semantics as is usually thought (Declerck, 1991: 350; Betti, and Yaseen, 2020: 49-52; and Betti, 2020d: 34).

Comparative and superlative forms are also occasionally used for other purposes than comparison. In English comparatives can be used to suggest that a statement is only tentative or tendential: one might say "John is more the shy-and-retiring type," where the comparative "more" is not really comparing him with other people or with other impressions of him, but rather, could be substituting for "on the whole" or "more so than not".

1.6. Restrictiveness

Attributive adjectives and other noun modifiers may be used either restrictively (helping to identify the noun's referent, hence "restricting" its reference) or non-restrictively (helping to describe a noun). For example:

13) He was a lazy sort, who would avoid a difficult task and fill his working hours with easy ones.

Here "difficult" is restrictive . It tells which tasks he avoids, distinguishing these from the easy ones: "Only those tasks that are difficult".

14) She had the job of sorting out the mess left by her predecessor, and she performed this difficult task with great acumen.

Here "difficult" is non-restrictive it is already known which task it was, but the adjective describes it more fully: "The aforementioned task, which (by the way) is difficult"

1.7. Agreement

In some languages, adjectives alter their form to reflect the gender, case and number of the noun that they describe. This is called agreement or concord. Usually it takes the form of inflections at the end of the word, Often, distinction is made here between attributive and predicative usage. In English, adjectives never agree, whereas in Arabic, they always agree. (Dowling, 2016,p.71)

Chapter Two: Adverb

2.1. Definition

An adverb is a word or an expression that modifies a verb, adjective, another adverb, determiner, clause, preposition, or sentence. Adverbs typically express manner, place, time, frequency, degree, level of certainty, etc., answering questions such as how?, in what way?, when?, where?, and to what extent?. This is called the adverbial function, and may be performed by single words (adverbs) or by multi-word adverbial phrases and adverbial clauses (Ghadhab, 2020,p.38).

Adverbs are traditionally regarded as one of the parts of speech. Modern linguists note that the term "adverb" has come to be used as a kind of "catch-all" category, used to classify words with various types of syntactic behavior, not necessarily having much in common except that they do not fit into any of the other available categories (noun, adjective, preposition, etc.) (Payne, 1997,p. 69).

2.2 Functions

The English word adverb derives (through French) from Latin adverbium, from ad- ("to"), verbum ("word", "verb"), and the nominal suffix -ium. The term implies that the principal function of adverbs is to act as modifiers of verbs or verb phrases (Rodney and Pullum, 2005,p.122). An adverb used in this way may provide information about the manner, place, time, frequency, certainty, or other

circumstances of the activity denoted by the verb or verb phrase. Some examples:

15) She sang loudly (loudly modifies the verb sang, indicating the manner of singing).

16) We left it here (here modifies the verb phrase left it, indicating place).

17) I worked yesterday (yesterday modifies the verb worked, indicating time).

18) You often make mistakes ("often" modifies the verb phrase make mistakes, indicating frequency).

19) He undoubtedly did it ("undoubtedly" modifies the verb phrase "did it", indicating certainty).

Adverbs can also be used as modifiers of adjectives, and of other adverbs, often to indicate degree. Examples:

20) You are quite right (the adverb "quite" modifies the adjective "right").

21) She sang very loudly (the adverb very modifies another adverb "loudly").

They can also modify determiners, prepositional phrases, (Khalaf , 2021,p.15) or whole clauses or sentences, as in the following examples:

22) I bought practically the only fruit (practically modifies the determiner the in the noun phrase, "the only fruit" wherein "only" is an adjective)

23) She drove us almost to the station ("almost" modifies the prepositional phrase "to the station") (Huddleston, 1988,p.34)

Adverbs thus perform a wide range of modifying functions. The major exception is the function of modifier of nouns, which is performed instead by adjectives (compare "she sang loudly" with "her loud singing disturbed me"; here the verb "sang" is modified by the adverb "loudly", whereas the noun "singing" is modified by the adjective "loud"). However, because some adverbs and adjectives are homonyms, their respective functions are sometimes conflated:

Even numbers are divisible by two:

24) The camel even drank.

The word "even" in the first sentence is an adjective, since it is a prepositive modifier that modifies the noun "numbers". The word "even" in the second sentence is a prepositive adverb that modifies the verb "drank." (Hashim, 2021,p.77). Although it is possible for an adverb to precede or to follow a noun or a noun phrase, the adverb nonetheless does not modify either in such cases, as in:

25) Internationally there is a shortage of protein for animal feeds.

26) There is a shortage internationally of protein for animal feeds.

27) There is an international shortage of protein for animal feeds.

In the first sentence, "Internationally" is a prepositive adverb that modifies the clause, "there is ..." In the second sentence, "internationally" is a postpositive adverb that modifies the clause, "There is ..." By contrast, the third sentence contains "international" as a prepositive adjective that modifies the noun, "shortage."

Adverbs can sometimes be used as predicative expressions; in English, this applies especially to adverbs of location (Jackendoff, 1972,p.143):

28) Your seat is there.

29) Here is my boarding pass,

(wherein "boarding pass" is the subject and "here" is the predicate in a syntax that entails a subject-verb inversion). When the function of an adverb is performed by an expression consisting of more than one word, it is called an adverbial phrase or adverbial clause, or simply an adverbial (Haegeman, 1995,p.139) .

2.3 Formation and Comparison

In English, adverbs of manner (answering the question how?) are often formed by adding -ly to adjectives, but flat adverbs (such as in drive fast, drive slow, and drive friendly) have the same form as the corresponding adjective (Ernst, 2002,p.148).

Other languages often have similar methods for deriving adverbs from adjectives (French, for example, uses the suffix -ment), or else use the same form for both adjectives and adverbs, as in German and

Dutch, where for example schnell or snel, respectively, mean either "quick" or "quickly" depending on the context. Many other adverbs, however, are not related to adjectives in this way; they may be derived from other words or phrases, or may be single morphemes. Examples of such adverbs in English include "here", "there", "together", "yesterday", "aboard", "very", "almost", etc. (Ernst, 2002,p.54).

Where the meaning permits, adverbs may undergo comparison, taking comparative and superlative forms. In English this is usually done by adding "more" and "most" before the adverb (more slowly, most slowly), although there are a few adverbs that take inflected forms, such as "well", for which "better" and "best" are used (Ernst, 2002,p.15).

2.4. Adverbs as a "Catch-all" Category

In English, adverbs of manner (answering the question how?) are often formed by adding -ly to adjectives, but flat adverbs (such as drive "fast", "drive slow", and "drive friendly") have the same form as the corresponding adjective. Other languages often have similar methods for deriving adverbs from adjectives (French, for example, uses the suffix -ment), or else use the same form for both adjectives and adverbs. Many other adverbs, however, are not related to adjectives in this way; they may be derived from other words or phrases, or may be single morphemes. Examples of such adverbs in English include "here", "there", "together", "yesterday", "aboard", "very", "almost", etc. (Haegeman, 1995,p.39).

Adverbs are considered a part of speech in traditional English grammar, and are still included as a part of speech in grammar taught in schools and used in dictionaries. However, modern grammarians recognize that words traditionally grouped together as adverbs serve a number of different functions. Some describe adverbs as a "catch-all" category that includes all words that do not belong to one of the other parts of speech (Payne, 1997,p.69).

A logical approach to dividing words into classes relies on recognizing which words can be used in a certain context. For example, the only type of word that can be inserted in the following template to form a grammatical sentence is a noun (Haegeman, 1995,p.94)

30) The _____ is red. (For example, "The hat is red".)

When this approach is taken, it is seen that adverbs fall into a number of different categories. For example, some adverbs can be used to modify an entire sentence, whereas others cannot. Even when a sentential adverb has other functions, the meaning is often not the same (Abdulhasan, 2018,p.107).

For example, in the sentences,

31) She gave birth naturally and Naturally, she gave birth,

the word naturally has different meanings: in the first sentence, as a verb- modifying adverb, it means "in a natural manner", while in the second sentence, as a sentential adverb, it means something like "of course" (Betti, 2021,p.17).

Words like very afford another example.

32) We can say Perry is very fast, but not Perry very won the race,

these words can modify adjectives but not verbs. On the other hand, there are words like here and there that cannot modify adjectives . We can say,

33) The sock looks good there but not It is a there beautiful sock (Jackendoff, 1972,p.63).

The fact that many adverbs can be used in more than one of these functions can confuse the issue, and it may seem like splitting hairs to say that a single adverb is really two or more words that serve different functions (Haegeman, 1995,p.89).

However, this distinction can be useful, especially when considering adverbs like naturally that have different meanings in their different functions. Rodney Huddleston distinguishes between a word and a lexicogrammatical-word (Huddleston, 1988,p.7).

Grammarians find difficulty categorizing negating words, such as the English not. Although traditionally listed as an adverb, this word does not behave grammatically like any other, and it probably should be placed in a class of its own (Cinque, 1999,p.9).

2.5. Adverb Clause of Comparison

A clause which is used to indicate comparison is called an Adverb Clause of Comparison. An Adverb Clause of Comparison is introduced by words like as, asas, so-as and than.

Ex: Madhavi is as beautiful as Padmaja. India is not so rich as America.

She was much happier than I imagined.

We are not so foolish as they think. (Sood, 2019:231)

2.6. Comparison

Comparison clauses are traditionally treated as a kind of adverbial clause. Modern grammar sometimes treats them separately, because the main clause is often incomplete - ie it must contain an element (as, -er, more, less) that points the need for the subordinate clause, introduced by as or than, which must come second. Prescriptive grammar likes not so (rather than not as) in the negative, but not as... as is common. In comparisons of comparative degree, the comparative element may be an adjective or an adverb, or imore/less + adverb/noun]. <more quickly than/less money than>.

Than me or than I? Comparison clauses are frequently reduced very considerably by ellipsis. When the comparative clause contains a verb, if the subject is a pronoun, then subject (not object) pronoun is essential:

<than he did.> <than him did.>

The difficulty arises when the clause is reduced right down to the pronoun. The usual comment is that than hell etc is more formal and somehow more correct, while than him/me etc is informal (and 'not good grammar'.) Modern grammarians prefer to view than as a subordinator when a clause (le subject and verb) follows, but as a preposition when only a noun or pronoun follows. On this analysis than me is in fact more correct than than I. It is certainly much more usual. But the formality/informality distinction remains true for some people. The use of an object pronoun, as of a noun, can lead to ambiguity:

<His wife loved the countryside more than him/her husband.> Does this mean 'more than she loved him'? or 'more than he loved it"? As ...as and more

than can be used in a type of clause that seems to fall between a comparison and a relative clause. Very oddly for English, the second clause lacks an expressed subject (it has neither noun nor pronoun) though the subject is clearly deducible from the first clause. The verb is often a linking verb or in the passive.(ibid:249)

2.7. Clauses of comparison

A. Comparisons with adjectives and finite verbs.

It's darker today than it was yesterday. He doesn't pay as much tax as we dolas us.

He spends more than he earns.

Note that + adjective, a colloquial form: Will it cost £100? No, it won't cost as much as (all) that. It won't be (all) that expensive. (It won't be as expensive as that.) that + adjective is sometimes used colloquially to mean very.

B. Comparisons with adverbs and finite verbs (see also 31-4): He didn't play as well as we expected/as well as you (did). He sings more loudly than anyone I've ever heard/than anyone else (does).

You work harder than he does/than him/than I did at your age.

C. Comparisons with adjectives and infinitives or gerunds Often either can be used, but the infinitive is more usual for a particular action, and gerunds are more usual for general statements (see also E below):

It's sometimes as cheap to buy a new one as (it is) (to) repair the

old one. Buying a new one is sometimes as cheap as repairing the old one. He found that lying on the beach was just as boring as sitting in

his office or He found lying on the beach just as boring as sitting etc. (The infinitive would be less usual here.)

He thinks it (is) safer to drive himself than (to) let me drive. He thinks that driving himself is safer than letting me drive. It will soon be more difficult to get a visa than it is now. Getting a visa will soon be more difficult than it is now.

D. In comparisons of the type shown in C above, if we have an infinitive

before as/than we will usually have an infinitive (not a gerund) after it. Similarly, if we have a gerund before as/than we will normally have a gerund (not an infinitive) after it. See examples above. But if we have a finite verb + this/that/which before as/than we can have a gerund after it. An infinitive is possible but would be much less usual:

I'll deliver it by hand; this will be cheaper than posting it. He cleaned his shoes, which was better than doing nothing.(A. J. Thomson and A. V. Martinet. 1920:300)

Conclusion

In contemporary British English the comparison of adjectives varies considerably. At least some of the examples show that many adjectives are not compared with endings, even if one would expect them to be, as the grammars state. The adjectives apt, sure, likely, sober, solid, mature, secure and obscure were often compared analytically, contrary to what some grammars state, so they are somewhat misleading. In the cases of just and fickle, the total number of occurrences is small, so no conclusions can be drawn. Moreover, the adjectives stupid, remote, profound, unhappy and unlikely were quite often inflected, but no grammar mentions all of them. This has been a quantitative study. For further research I suggest that a qualitative investigation should be conducted, wherein especially the general rule about degree modifiers should be taken into consideration (when an adjective is preceded by words like even, far and a whole lot it tends to be compared with more: 'a bit more nice'). Also some of claims, for example about rare adjectives being likelier to be analytically compared, deserve an investigation. Another suggestion is a synchronic study. Lindquist found that American English might be ahead of British English in the shift towards analytic comparison.

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