-ly adverbs in the *Corpus of History English Texts* (1700-1900). A metadiscourse approach.

Tesis Doctoral

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Abbreviations

CCT   Coruña Corpus Tools

CHET   Corpus of English History Texts

CETA   Corpus of English Texts on Astronomy

CEPhiT   Corpus of English Philosophy Texts

CELiST   Corpus of English Life Sciences Texts

OED   Oxford English Dictionary online

1. Introduction

In this study the meaning and function of *-ly* adverbs in the scientific register, specifically in history texts, across the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, known as well as the Late Modern Period, are analysed. The selection of those centuries is not fortuitous as this period of the language is essential in the development of the scientific register as we know it nowadays. In this period, the so-called Scientific Revolution began and eventually concluded with Einstein's theory of relativity in 1905. It is a stage characterized by a new methodology: Empiricism, that is to say scientific studies based on observation and experience. Additionally, science became professionalised with the creation of universities and scientific societies such as the Royal Society in London, the Academie dei Lincei in Rome, the Academia Naturae Curiosorum in Germany or the Académie des Sciences in France. Regarding language, the Scientific Revolution supposed the establishment of new rules when writing about science, especially with the replacement of Latin by vernacular languages.

The sample analysed is from the *Corpus of History English Texts* (CHET) one of the subcorpus of the *Coruña Corpus of English Scientific Writing*, which also includes other subcorpora belonging to different scientific disciplines CETA (the *Corpus of English Texts on Astronomy*), CEPhiT (the *Corpus of English Philosophy Texts*) and CELiST (the *Corpus of English Life Sciences Texts*). CHET is formed by

forty texts written by English speaking authors, both by female and male authors. Moreover, this subcorpus includes a wide variety of textual genres, such as essays, treatises, textbooks, for instance.

The first text in CHET dates back to 1704. Several scientific breakthroughs have been considered in order to limit the time-span represented in the sub-corpus. The end of the sixteenth century and the beginning of the seventeenth century have been recognised by Taavitsainen and Pahta (1997) as the moment at which the medieval scholastic thought-style started to be steadily replaced by new patterns of thought, and new methodological procedures based on observation started to be used. The foundation of the Royal Society in 1660 and the publication of the guidelines for presenting scientific works in a clear and simple way had a greater impact on accentuating the importance of style in scientific communication.

The last text in CHET dates back to 1895. Again, the end of the nineteenth century and the beginning of the twentieth century roughly coincide with some important events in the history of science, such as the discovery of the electron (1896), the formulation of Planck's Quantum Theory (1900) and the publication of Einstein's Special Theory of Relativity (1905), for instance. Obviously, all of these events brought about the need to change scientific discourse patterns, as put forward by Huxley in the 1897 International Congress of Mathematics.

1.1.   Objectives

The primary aim of this dissertation is to analyse the role played by *-ly* adverbs

from a linguistic perspective in scientific register and, specifically, in history texts. For this purpose, I have mainly followed the classification of adverbs in Biber, Douglas and Edward Finegan (1988), the grammar developed by Quirk, Randolph, Sidney Greenbaum, Geoffrey Leech, and Jan Svartvik (1985), and Downing (2015). The interpretation of data would be carried out from a metadiscourse perspective, as in Hyland (2005), and this includes matters relating to the use of textual and interpersonal devices in the text. The fulfilment of this objective is intended as a contribution to the analysis of the style and features of the language of earlier scientific writing, much in the line of Alonso-Almeida (2012); Alonso-Almeida & Mele-Marrero (2014); Bondi (2016, 2017) Carrió Pastor (2014, 2016); Crespo & Moskowich (2016); Gotti (1996, 2003, 2008, 2012, 2013); Halliday (1988, 1989, 1990); Hyland (2005, 2006, 2009); Hyland & Sancho Guinda (2013); Hyland & Bondi (2006); Moskowich & Crespo (2014); Taavitsainen (2006, 2013, 2017), to mention but a few. This very succinct list argues for the current growing interest in the study of scientific discourse from a historical dimension, as this type of research may greatly benefit our understanding of contemporary discourse in the field.

The achievement of the primary goal requires to take some minor objectives leading to facilitate my analysis. In this context, an account of the principles of compilation of the *Coruña Corpus* and of the contents of the subcorpus I base my study on seems in order. This also implies the description of some fundamentals of corpus linguistic methodology followed in the present study, including the software for text interrogation and retrieval, specifically designed for the purposes

of the *Coruña Corpus*. The analysis of forms from a computerized perspective retrieves data that needs to be grouped according to certain criteria, and, for this reason, an account of taxonomical representations of adverbs is required in order to categorize findings.

Another minor objective of the present dissertation is the review of the scientific literature on metadiscourse in order to interpret the results of my inquiry according to established criteria found to be attested in scientific writing, namely textual and interpersonal features. These minor objectives will provide the scientific space to achieve my empirical study of adverbs in the eighteenth and the nineteenth centuries, as evinced in the texts collected in CHET. Where appropriate, the interpretation of data has benefitted from the consultation of other Coruña Corpus databases, especially the *Corpus of English Texts on Astronomy*, i.e. CETA (Moskowich et al., 2012).

1.2. Method

The method of research follows from the objectives set out in section 1.1., above. In the first place, I revise the existing literature on the compilation and rationale behind the *Coruña Corpus of Scientific Writing*, such as Moskowich and Crespo (2007, 2008), Crespo and Moskowich (2010, 2015c) and Hardie (2016) as part of the corpus linguistics methodology to analyse CHET. Corpus linguistics, in general, has proven as one powerful and essential tool for the analysis of variation in language, as this method allows the management of large textual compilations, and so it is possible to have extensive material for analysis. It has, however, some obvious drawbacks. One of this is the inability of computerised searches to assess

contexts other than linguistic collocations to retrieve information according to pragmatic and discourse criteria. For this reason, manual analysis is also part of the methodology for the categorisation of data.

My reading-around of the literature related to the *Coruña Corpus* above also includes empirical research already performed on the texts by the MuStE team and associate researchers. This also comprises material describing grammatical and lexical processes, namely Bello (2010, 2016), Carmiña-Rioboo (2010, 2013), Carmiña-Rioboo and Esteve Ramos (2010), Cantos and Vázquez (2012), Lareo (2008, 2011, 2012 a, 2012b), Lareo and Moskowich (2009), Moskowich (2010, 2016), Puente-Castelo (2016), and Álvarez-Gil (2017a, 2017b); and discourse/pragmatics phenomena, as in Banks (2012), Crespo (2012, 2013, 2016), Alonso-Almeida (2013, 2017), Crespo and Moskowich (2015a, 2015b, 2015c, 2015d), Moskowich (2017), Moskowich and Crespo (2014), Quintana-Toledo (2017), among others.

Concerning the framework of analysis, the functional perspective and categorisations are achieved through the works of Biber et al. (1999), Biber (2004, 2006), Halliday and Matthiessen (2004), and Downing (2015), among others. The interpretation of adverbs from a metadiscourse and a pragmatic perspective are achieved through the consultation of the works of Hyland (1994, 1996, 2005, 2006), Bonami and Godard (2008), Mur-Dueñas (2011), Carrió-Pastor (2016), just to mention a few.

All this material constitutes the methodological framework for the analysis of *-ly* adverbs in the *Corpus of History English Texts*.

1.3. The sociohistorical context

Scientific literature, as we understand it today, was born in the seventeenth century when a new textual genre known as scientific article was introduced. As has been previously mentioned, at this time the so-called Scientific Revolution based on empirical knowledge took place, and societies, such as The Royal Society of London, for instance, were established. This new period of science is accurately summarised by Camiña-Rioboo (2013: 46) in the following passage:

> The ambitious enterprise to reform science and education purported by the members of the Royal Society was founded on three pillars: a) the methodology employed to deal with scientific facts, b) the vehicle to disseminate the results of the experiments performed and the knowledge acquired, and c) the language employed to communicate those experiments and knowledge. The scientific method, the experimental essay and the philosophical (scientific) language represented those pillars, respectively.

This institution created in 1660 supposed one of the first international forum for scientists to discuss about their theories. At the end of the seventeenth century, the relevance of the institution declined. However, when Sir Isaac Newton took the lead of the institution from 1704 until his death in 1727, the Royal Society met a new age of splendour by becoming the epicentre of the Newtonian research.

After Newton's death, the society was in bourgeois hands and, during the eighteenth and nineteenth century, it underwent a tremendous transformation, especially from the second part of the nineteenth century onwards when "Scientific standing and activity had begun to emerge as the main criterion for

membership, with publication of scientific papers being an important indicator of such activity" (Atkinson, 1999: 22).

By examining the samples of texts compiled in the Coruña Corpus, belonging to different centuries namely eighteenth and nineteenth century, we can find how the discourse employed in this textual genre has certainly undergone visible changes. There are some variations which are quite obvious as simply by reading a scientific text from the seventeenth century we can notice that the language used is much less specialised than the one employed in a twentieth century scientific text. The writing style at the beginning was much more narrative and less practical. The description of experiments in the 17th and 18th centuries was quite uncommon. It was not until the 19th century when empirical methods were spread following the basic structure:

theory $\longrightarrow$ experiment $\longrightarrow$ discussion

1.4. Structure to thesis

This dissertation is divided into six chapters and the reference list. The present chapter introduces the topic of this thesis, the objectives to be achieved and the methodology for the analysis of data. Additionally, a brief note on the sociohistorical context is provided. Chapter 2 provides a detailed description of the *Corpus of History English Texts* and the texts included there as well as the *Coruña Corpus Tools* used for the retrieval and excerption of data from the *Corpus of History English Texts*.

Chapter 3 presents information concerning adverbs and categories of adverbs.

This includes aspects pertaining to form, function and meaning. To understand our object of study, i.e. adverbs ending in *-ly*, and give proper contextualisation to cases in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, a brief account related to the origin and development of *-ly* adverbs at the end of the chapter.

In chapter 4, the concept of metadiscourse is described, including categorisation into interactive and interactional devices. The variety of subcategories pertaining to these two broad categories will be explained in the context of existing literature in the topic, e.g. *stance, evidentiality* and *modality*. Chapter 5 presents the analysis of the *-ly* adverbs found in the *Corpus of History English Texts* following corpus linguistics methodology. Finally, chapter 6 offers the conclusions drawn from the present study along with further future research prospects.

2. The Corpus of History English Texts

2.1. Introduction

This chapter offers a description of the corpus used to study *–ly* adverbs in the late Modern English period, namely, the Corpus of History English Texts (henceforth CHET), which is the third subcorpus of the *Coruña Corpus of English Scientific Writing.* The compilation of CHET seeks to put together a selection of late Modern English history texts written by both, male and female authors. Before attempting the description of CHET, a succinct overview of the *Coruña Corpus of English Scientific Writing* is given. This considers aspects concerning the distribution of words per century, sex, literary genres, among others. After this, an extensive description of CHET will be presented, including the objectives of the compilation, its source materials, the selection materials and its internal organisation, etc. Finally, I shall describe the *Coruña Corpus Tool* which has been employed for the information retrieval previous to the manual inspection of the results.

2.2. The Coruña Corpus of English Scientific Writing

The *Coruña Corpus of English Scientific Writing* (henceforth CC) allows scholars to analyse English scientific and technical prose from a diachronic scope. The corpus methodology has been proven useful in several areas of linguistics, as

semantics, syntax, lexicography (Biber 1999), morphology and pragmatics (Aijmer 2008; Alonso-Almeida 2015), for instance. CC covers a period of two hundred years (1700-1900), which belong to the so-called late Modern English period. As to its present status, it currently includes four subcorpus. The first subcorpus compiled was the *Corpus of English Texts on Astronomy* (CETA), then the *Corpus of English Philosophy Texts* (*CEPhiT*), and the *Corpus of English Life Sciences Texts* (*CELiST*) and, finally, the *Corpus of English History Texts* (CHET). It is precisely this last subcorpus the one I use for the purposes of this dissertation.

This corpus is part of a research project focused on the compilation of late Modern English scientific texts, and this has been carried out by the members of the *Research Group in Multidimensional Studies in English* (MuStE) at the University of A Coruña (Spain)[1]. The MuStE Research Group decided that each of the subcorpus would be composed by two texts per decade, hence, twenty texts per century in order to obtain a relevant sample that can offer significant and sounding results. Each sample counts around 10,000 words, as will be explained further in the following pages. These samples from different scientific registers and genres allow scholars to analyse the evolution of the English language the centuries covered in CC. In addition, the compilation of texts written by male and female authors also allows us to study gender differences from a domain-specific perspective either from a synchronic and from a diachronic standpoint. The following table shows examples of work done by members and collaborators of

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[1]   Proyecto de investigación: *Etiqueado electrónico de textos científico-técnicos en lengua inglesa entre los siglos XVIII y XX* financiado por MINECO (FFI2016-75599-P9).

the MuStE Research Group:

Author	Title	Field
Alonso-Almeida (ed.) (2017)	Stancetaking in Late Modern English Scientific Writing. Evidence from the Coruña Corpus	Morphology Semantics Discourse Pragmatics
Alonso-Almeida & Lareo (2016)	The status of *seem* in the nineteenth-century Corpus of English Philosophy Texts (CEPhiT)	Morphology Semantics Discourse Pragmatics
Alonso-Almeida (2013)	An analysis of the grammatical and pragmatic values of *seem* in the c19th section of the *Corpus of English Philosophy Texts*	Morphology Semantics Discourse Pragmatics
Alonso-Almeida (2012)	An analysis of hedging in eighteenth century English astronomy texts	Discourse Pragmatics
Banks (2012)	Thematic structure in eighteenth century astronomical texts: A small sample of articles from the Corpus of English Texts on Astronomy	Discourse Pragmatics
Bello (2016a)	Reflections on our astronomical undertaking: nominalizations and possessive structures in the Coruña Corpus	Morphology
Bello (2016b)	Nominalizations and female scientific writing in the late Modern period	Morphology
Bello (2010)	Nominalizations in astronomical texts in the eighteenth century	Morphology
Biber & Gray (2013a)	Being Specific about Historical Change: The Influence of Sub-Register	Semantics Discourse Pragmatics
Biber & Gray (2013b)	Nominalizing the verb phrase in academic science writing	Morphology
Gray & Biber (2012)	The emergence and evolution of the pattern N + Prep + V-ing in historical scientific texts	Morphology

Camiña (2010)	Rewriting philosophical theories in the eighteenth century: forming new nouns to express new ideas in the Corpus of English Philosophy Texts (CEPhiT)	Morphology
Cantos & Vazquez (2012)	Subject specific vocabulary in Astronomy texts: A diachronic survey of the Corpus of English Texts on Astronomy	Semantics Discourse
Crespo (2016)	Genre categorisation in CEPhiT	Discourse
Crespo (2013)	Locutionary acts in nineteenth-century Astronomy writing: Observational phenomena explained through CETA	Discourse Pragmatics
Crespo & Moskowich (2015a)	Involved in writing science: nineteenth-century women in the Coruña Corpus	Discourse Pragmatics
Crespo & Moskowich (2015b)	Persuasion in English Philosophy Texts (CEPhiT)	Pragmatics
Esteve, Lareo & Gonzalo Camiña (2010)	A study of nouns and their provenance in the astronomy section of the Coruna Corpus of Scientific English Writing. Some preliminary Considerations	Morphology
Hardie (2016)	Infrastructure for analysis of the CEPhiT corpus: Implementation and applications of corpus annotation and indexing	Morphology Semantics Discourse
Lareo (2012a)	A corpus-driven approach to explore the use of complex predicates in 18th century English scientific writings	Morphology Semantics
Lareo (2012b)	Uso de predicados complejos en los escritos de Astronomía del siglo XIX en lengua inglesa. Explotación del Corpus of English Texts on Astronomy	Morphology Semantics
Lareo (2011)	Colocacións con Make, take, do + nome nun corpus do século XIX de textos ingleses científicos e literarios escritos por mulleres	Morphology Semantics
Lareo (2009)	Make-collocations in Nineteenth-Century Scientific English	Morphology Semantics
Lareo (2008)	Analysing a type of collocation. Make-complex predicates in 19th century science and fiction	Morphology Semantics
Lareo & Esteve Ramos (2008)	18th Century Scientific Writing: a Study of make Complex Predicates in the Coruña Corpus	Morphology Semantics
Lojo (2010)	The science of astronomy: passive constructions in eighteenth-century texts	Morphology

Monaco (2016)	Abstractness as diachronic variation in CEPhiT: Biber's Dimension 5 applied	Semantics Discourse Pragmatics
Moskowich (2016)	Lexical richness in modern women writers: Evidence from the Corpus of History English Texts	Semantics Discourse Pragmatics
Moskowich (2010)	Morphologically complex nouns in English scientific texts after empiricism	Morphology Semantics Pragmatics
Puente-Castelo (2016)	Conditional constructions and their uses in eighteenth-century philosophy and life sciences texts	Morphology Semantics Pragmatics
Zea (2014)	Attributive Adjectives in 18th Century Scientific Texts from the Coruña Corpus	

Table 2.1. Examples of research based on the CC.

An extensive explanation about the principles followed in the compilation of the *Coruña Corpus*, such as corpus size, time span, the selection of authors, etc. can be found in Moskowich & Crespo (2007), Crespo & Moskowich (2010) and in Moskowich (2016), among others.

Regarding the distribution of words in CC, the four subcorpora now released result in a total of 1.618.458 words. These are distributed in 162 text samples, and each subcorpus contains 40-42 text samples, as shown in table 2.2.:

Subcorpus		Number of texts	Number of words
CETA (Astronomy texts)	18th century	21	208.079
	19th century	21	201.830
Total CETA		(42)	(409.909)
CEPhiT (Philosophy texts)	18th century	20	200.022
	19th century	20	201.107
Total CEPhiT		(40)	(401.129)

CELiST	18th century	20	200.649
(Life Sciences texts)	19th century	20	202.154
Total CELiST		(40)	(402.803)
CHET	18th century	20	201,794
(History texts)	19th century	20	202,823
Total CHET		(40)	(404,617)
Total corpus		162	1.618.458

Table 2.2. The Coruña Corpus subset (after Mónaco 2017).

In relation to the textual genres gathered in CC, following Görlach's (2004) classification of text-types, the samples have been organised in eight groups corresponding to a genre category[2] (cf. Moskowich 2017b): treatises, essays, textbooks, letters, lectures, articles, dialogues, and others. Moskowich (2011: 182) explains that this classification is not based solely on linguistic features, but also on other aspects, such as epistemological features, social factors and the authors' purposes, for instance (Crespo, 2012). In table 2.3, the distribution of texts according to genre category in the corpus is given:

Genre	Number of texts
Treatise	89
Textbook	22
Essay	17

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[2]   The notion of genre is here that of Görlach (1991, 2004), as this is the one followed by the MuStE Research Group as their working definition for their purposes. I shall then use the same one for the sake of uniformity with the research group handling of the term. My own understanding of the concept is more in the line of the functional approach in Martin (1984), Halliday and Hasan (1985), Biber (1988), and Halliday and Matthiessen (2004). Following this literature, Martin (1984: 25), defines the concept of genre as "a staged, goal-oriented, purposeful activity in which speakers engage as members of our culture". Cf. Alonso-Almeida (2008) for a full description of this and other related concepts (e.g. *text-type*) and its application to the study of early English texts.

Lecture	14
Article	8
Letter	5
Dialogue	2
Other	5
Total corpus	162

Table 2.3. Genres in the The Coruña Corpus.

This distribution of genres in the corpus show that treatises are the most common type of texts included in CC, as can be seen in the table given above. In all the subcorpora they are the most common ones except in *CETA* in which the most numerous genre is textbooks, as shown in the graphs, below. In the specific case of the *Corpus of Historical English Texts* treatises mean the seventy per cent of the excerpts compiled.
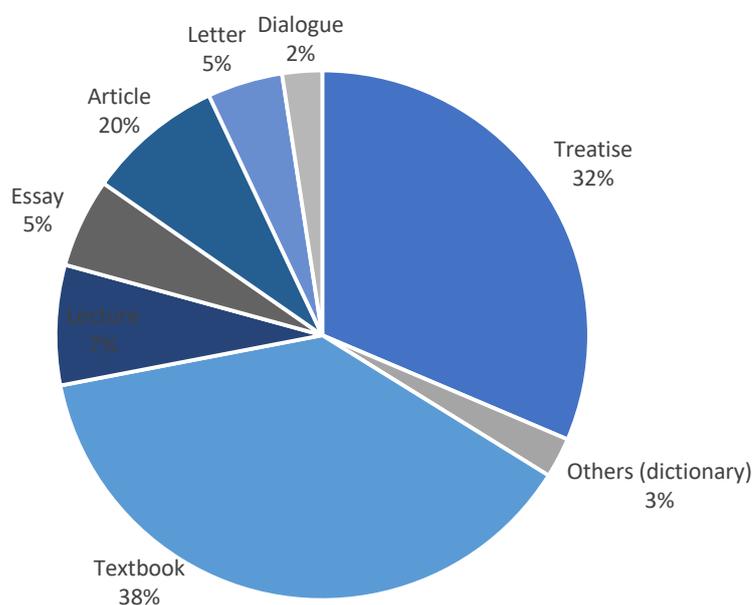
Figure 2.1. Percentage of the distribution of words per genre in CETA.
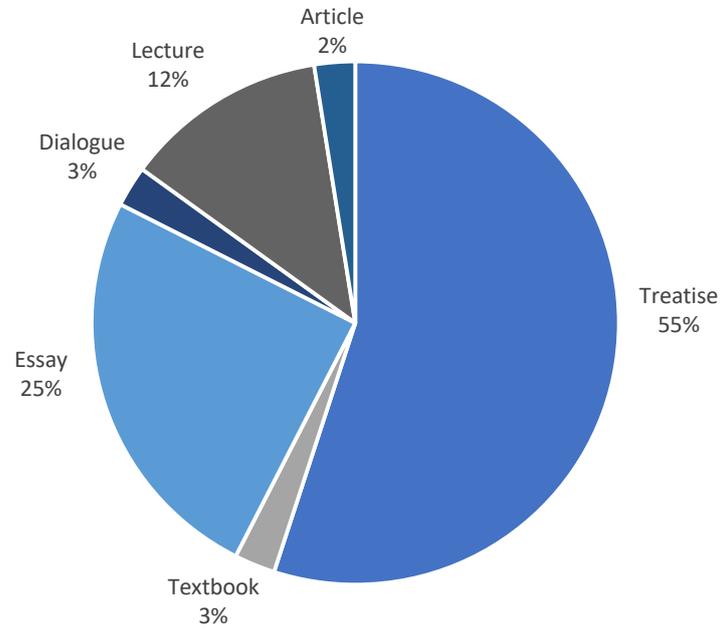
Figure 2.2. Percentage of the distribution of words per genre in CEPhiT
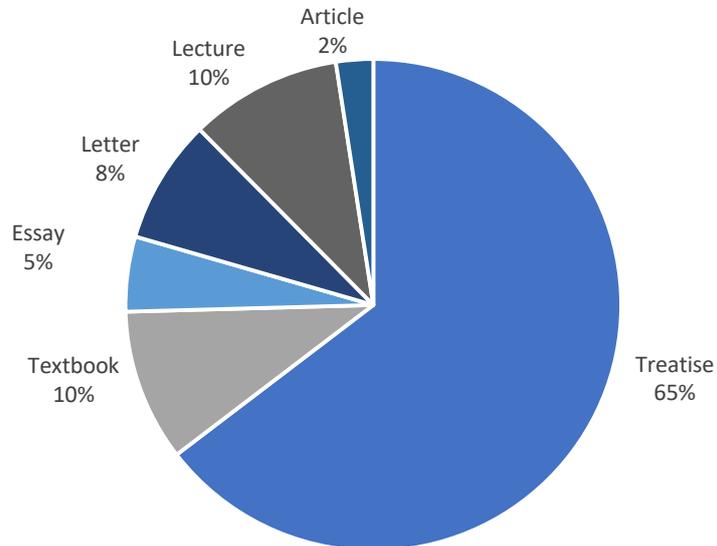
Figure 2.3. Percentage of the distribution of words per genre in CELiST
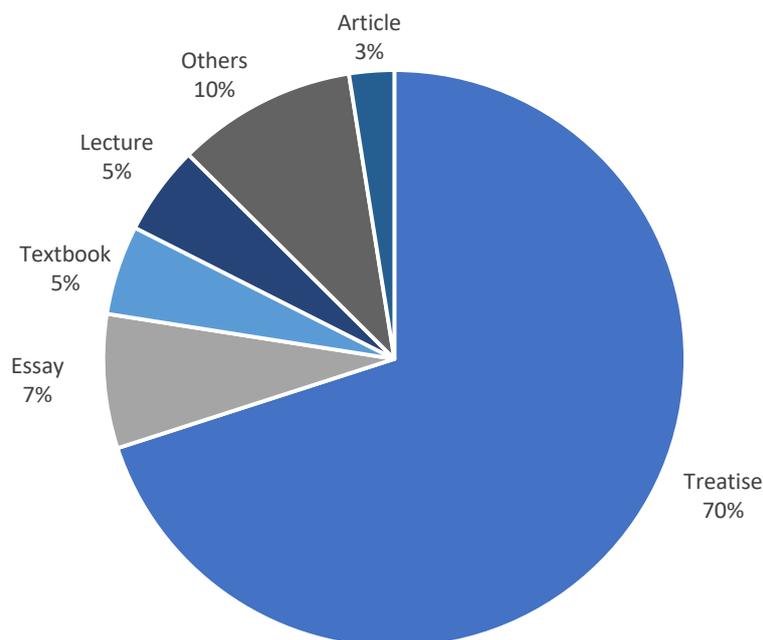
Figure 2.4. Distribution of words per genre in CHET

In the following section, I describe the *Corpus of English History Texts*, one of the subcorpora included in the corpus, and the one from where I will excerpt evidence.

2.3. The Corpus of English History Texts

The Coruña Corpus of English Scientific Writing currently includes three subcorpus: the first subcorpus compiled was The Corpus of English Texts on Astronomy (CETA), the second one was The Corpus of English Philosophy Texts and The Corpus of English History Texts (henceforth CHET) is the third subcorpus, and it covers the late Modern English period. It is precisely this last subcorpus the one I use for the purpose of this study.

In this sense, several scientific breakthroughs have been taken into account in

order to limit the time-span represented in the subcorpus. The first text in CHET dates back to 1704. The end of the sixteenth century and the beginning of the seventeenth century have been recognised by Taavitsainen and Pahta (1997) as the moment at which the medieval scholastic thought-style started to be gradually superseded by new patterns of thought, and new methodological procedures based on observation started to be common practices. The foundation of the Royal Society in 1660 and the publication of the guidelines for presenting scientific works in a clear and simple way had a lot to do in this process. The last text in CHET dates back to 1895.

Again, the end of the nineteenth century and the beginning of the twentieth century roughly coincide with some important events in the history of science such as the discovery of the electron (1896), the formulation of Planck's Quantum Theory (1900), and the publication of Einstein's Special Theory of Relativity (1905). Obviously, all of these events brought about the need to change scientific discursive patterns as put forward by Huxley in the 1897 International Congress of Mathematics. As regards the genres represented in CHET, there are samples of articles, essays, lectures, textbooks and treatises written by both male and female authors.

CHET has not a large size, but certainly not a manageable size for manual analysis either. The corpus includes approximately 400.000 words, as shown in the table 2.3, above. Each of the texts compiled in this subcorpus cover around 10.000 words. The distribution of words per century is well balanced, 201,794 of the words compiled belong to the eighteenth century whilst 202,823 belong to the

nineteenth one. In my analysis, I have used the *Coruña Corpus Tool* for quantification and text retrieval. Manual analyses have been also performed as well in order to check stance adverbs' functions in context. This tool simplifies the research to be done and the use of this tool combined with manual analysis is useful to obtain more accurate results, at least from a pragmatic and discursive perspective.

The following tables list text details included in CHET per century. Information on word counts are given for each text.

Text ID	Author	Year	Title	Extent (words)
hist1	Tyrrell, James	1704	The General Hiftory of England, Both Ecclefiaftical and Civil: Containing the Reign of Richard II	10,068
hist2	Anderson, James	1705	An Hiftorical Effay, shewing that the Crown and Kingdom of Scotland, is Imperial and Independent	10,068
hist3	Crawfurd, George	1710	A Hiftory of the Shire of Renfrew	10,106
hist4	Oldmixon, John	1716	Memoirs of Ireland, during the Four Laft Reigns	10,155
hist5	Strype, John	1721	Ecclefiaftical Memorials	10,078
hist6	Penhallow, Samuel	1726	The History of the Wars of New-England, With the Eaftern Indians	10,216
hist7	Horsley, John	1732	Britannia Romana. Book the First	10,065
hist8	Justice, Elizabeth	1739	A Voyage to Russia	10,005
hist9	Bancks, John	1740	The history of Peter The Great, Czar of Muscovy. The first book	10,084

Text ID	Author	Year	Title	Extent (words)
hist10	Hooke, Nathaniel	1745	The Roman History, from the building of Rome to the Ruin of the Commonwealth	10,144
hist11	Chapman, Thomas	1750	An Essay on the Roman Senate	10,187
hist12	Birch, Thomas	1760	The life of Henry Prince of Wales	10,048
hist13	Scott, Sarah	1762	The History of Mecklenburg	10,301
hist14	Adams, Amos	1769	An hiftorical View of New-England	10,068
hist15	Anderson, Walter	1775	The History of France	10,036
hist16	Cornish, Joseph	1780	The Life of Mr. Thomas Firmin	10,054
hist17	Gibbon, Edward	1788	The History of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire	10,020
hist18	Gifford, John	1790	The History of England	10,319
hist19	Adams, John	1795	A View of Universal History, from the Creation to the Present Time	10,120
hist20	Stock, Joseph	1800	A Narrative of What Passed at Killalla, in the County of Mayo, and the Parts Adjacent, during the French Invasion in the Summer of 1798	10,182

Table 2.4. Eighteenth-century texts in CHET.

Text ID	Author	Year	Title	Extent (words)
hist21	Adolphus, John	1802	The History of England	10,093
hist22	Warren, Mercy Otis	1805	History of the rise, progress and termination of the American Revolution	10,194

hist23	Bigland, John	1810	The History of Spain	10,341
hist24	Britton, John	1814	History and Antiquities of Salisbury Cathedral Church	10,009
hist25	Hardiman, James	1820	The history of the town and county of the town of Galway, from the earliest period to the present time	10,259
hist26	Callcott, Maria	1828	A Short History of Spain	10,333
hist27	Aikin, Lucy	1833	Memoirs of the Court of King Charles the First	10,022
hist28	Petrie, George	1837	On the History and Antiquities of Tara Hill	10,117
hist29	Smyth, William	1840	Lectures on Modern History	9,938
hist30	D'Alton, John	1844	The history of Drogheda	10,136
hist31	Masson, David	1855	Medieval History	10,189
hist32	Sewell, Elizabeth Missing	1857	A first history of Greece	10,057
hist33	Freer, Martha Walker	1860	History of the reign of Henry IV. King of France and Navarre	10,102
hist34	Bennett, George	1862	The History of Bandon	10,040
hist35	Gray, John Hamilton	1872	Confederation; or, The Political and Parliamentary History of Canada	10,051
hist36	Killen, William Dool	1875	The ecclesiastical history of Ireland	10,087
hist37	Breese, Sidney	1884	The Early History of Illinois	10,048

hist38	Kingsford, William	1887	The history of Canada	10,231
hist39	Cooke, Alice M.	1893	The Settlement of the Cistercians in England	10,761
hist40	Burrows, Montagu	1895	The History of the Foreign Policy of Great Britain	10,188

Table 2.5. Nineteenth-century texts in CHET.

2.5. The Coruña Corpus Tools (CCT)

In this section, I will describe the software used to interrogate CHET, i.e. the *Coruña Corpus Tools* (CCT), and, even if this piece of software has many potentials, I have focused in this summary on those which are deployed in my analysis of the texts. CCT is a software suite prepared by the MuSTe Research Group in joint work with the IRLab of the University of La Coruña as a companion to the *Coruña Corpus*. This suite allows the management of text compilations for text retrieval, but it has been especially designed by this joint team to meet the needs of researchers in their analysis of the CC subcorpora (Parapar and Moskowich and Crespo 2007; Moskowich and Parapar 2008). The software is prepared to interrogate the texts freely by inputting a headform or a wildcard, but it is also prepared to produce findings according to certain criteria, such as textual genre, gender, place of birth of the author, for example. This is possible thanks to the metadata attached to each text instructing the inquiry each time the software is used.

Figure 2.5. CCT main screen.

The CCT is built on Java and, for that reason, it can be run in virtually any platform and operating system. After loading the corpus of the user's choice in the File menu in the software ribbon, the software screen presents three tabs from where functions might be applied: the *info* tab, the *search* tab, and the *tags* tab. I shall describe each one, in turn, in the following sections.

2.5.1. The *info* tab

The *info* tab shows the folders in which the files of the texts compiled for the selected corpus together with their metadata files are included, as in figure 2.6, below. The metadata file contains information of the text and its author. The information concerning the author include a short biography, gender, date of birth and death, occupation, and place of education (see figure 2.11). The section of the text gives details concerning the genre the sample represents, the year of publication, the place of publication and the author's age when the text was

published. There is also information regarding the source library where the original physical copy is located and supplementary codicological details.
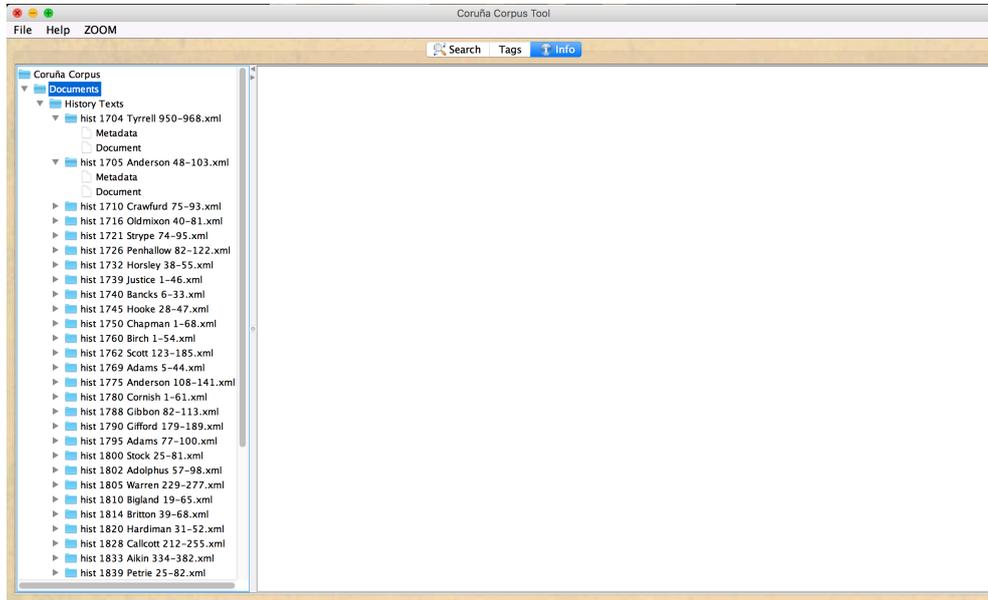
Figure 2.6. CCT info screen.
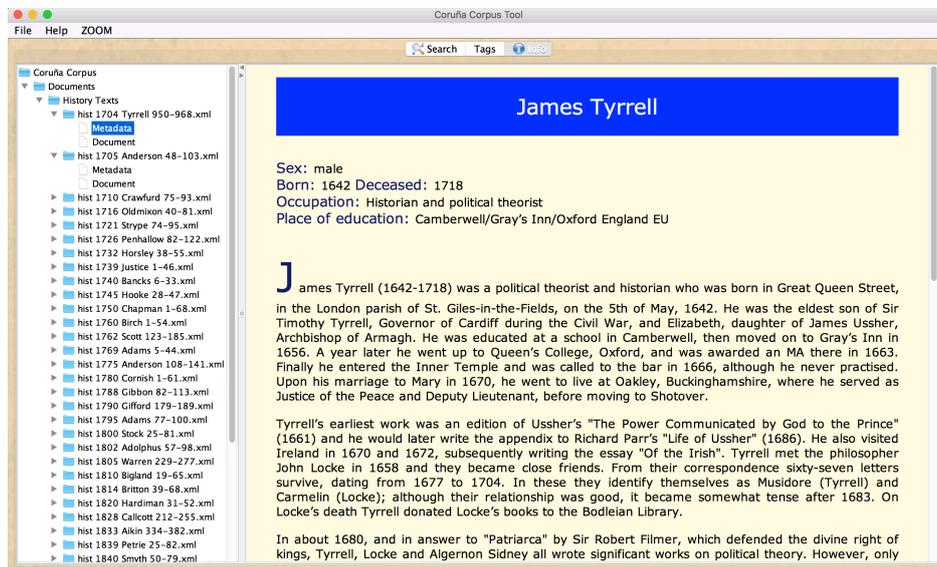
Figure 2.7. Author's information for Tyrrell (1704).
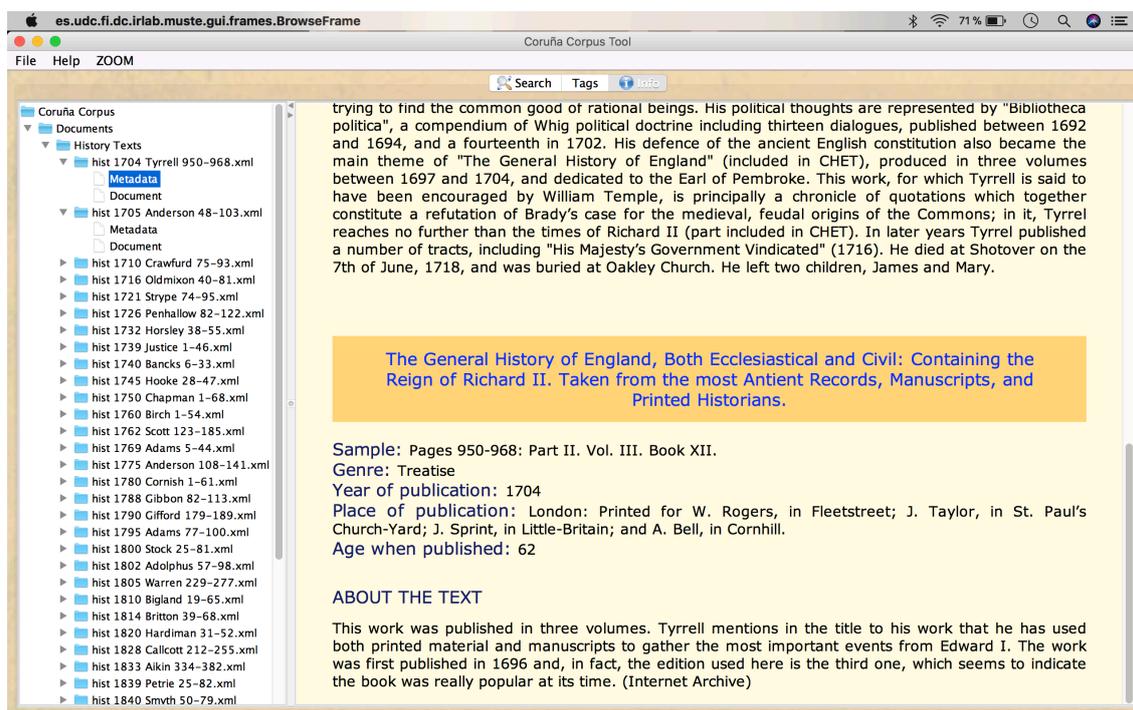
Figure 2.8. Text details for Tyrrell (1704).

2.5.2. The *search* tab

The *search* tab has many more options than any other tab, as the corpus can be interrogated from this screen according to different criteria. The search screen looks, as in figure 2.9, below. From this screen, the research can generate a word list or can interrogate the texts for a given word, phrase or sentence. The complete corpus or a selection of texts can be chosen from the *search in* option to deliver the subset screen, as seen in figure 2.9, below. Here, one can *(de)select all* the texts or some of them. Once the selection has been performed, the *close selection* button is pressed, and this information is used during queries.
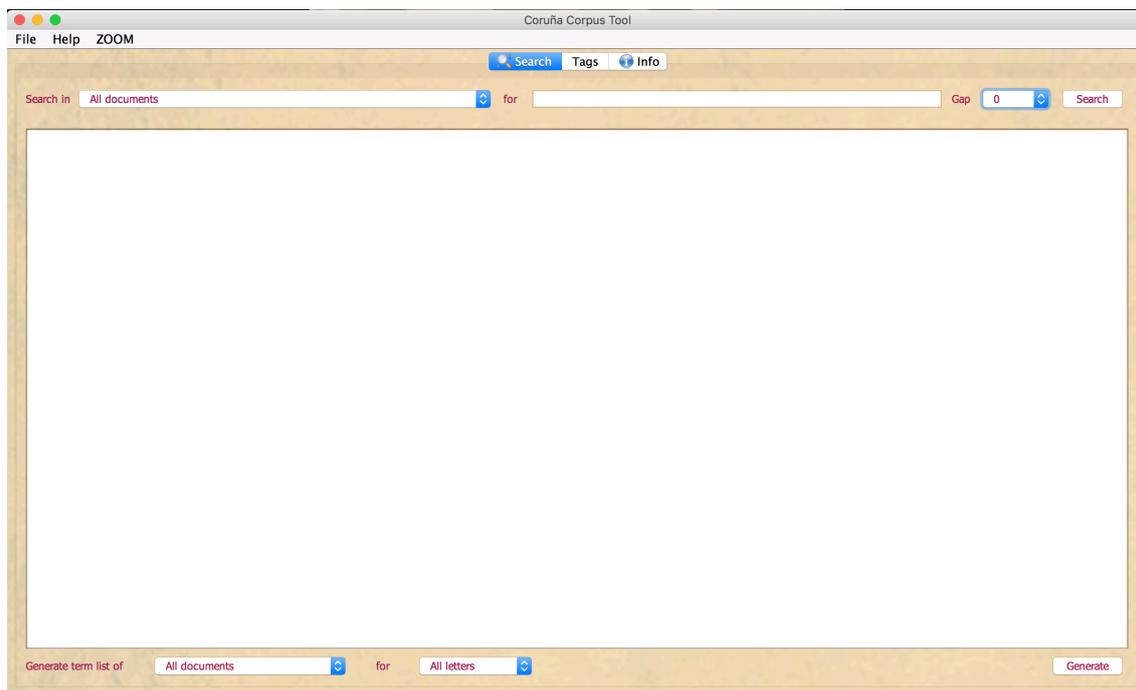
Figure 2.9. Search screen.
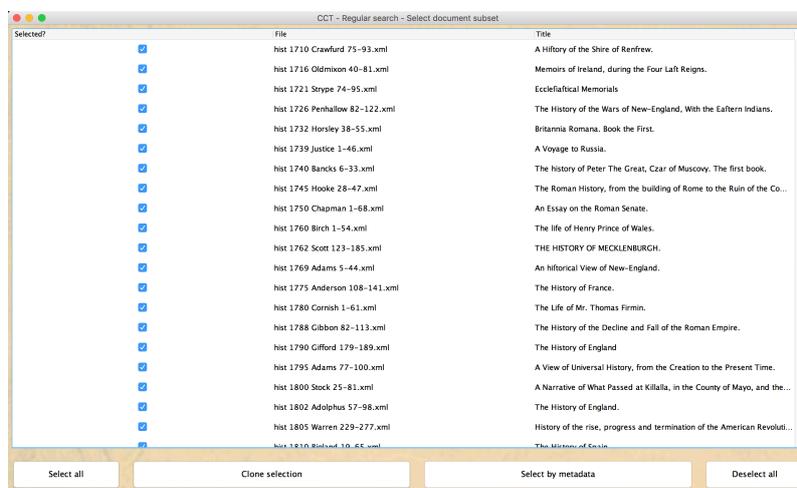
Figure 2.10. Select document subset screen.

There is also a *select by metadata* option which displays the criteria in figure 2.10.

Texts are selected according to certain characteristics, rather than randomly. This

includes place(s) of education, gender, birth range, death range, age-when-

published range, year-of-publication range, corpus selected and textual genre. After specifying all or some of these details, the choices performed are stored for application during search after the *apply* button is pressed. The *clone selection* button must be also clicked to keep selected variables for later use.

Figure 2.11. Select by metadata screen.

There are two ways in which a corpus can be searched through the use of CCT: (a) simple search, and (b) advanced search. A simple search is performed on the basis of a direct inquiry of a word, a phrase or a sentence done on a text, set of texts or the complete corpus, as in figure 2.12. The concordances lines obtained are arranged by text, and it offers the document number, the title of the work, left and right flanks of the inputted word. By pressing each line, the researcher is offered more context in which the retrieved example appears. That is shown in the context location window, as seen in figure 2.13. This extension of the context is the complete text, and the reader can scroll up and down the page to read as

much as need in order to properly evaluate and categorise the function of the
word.
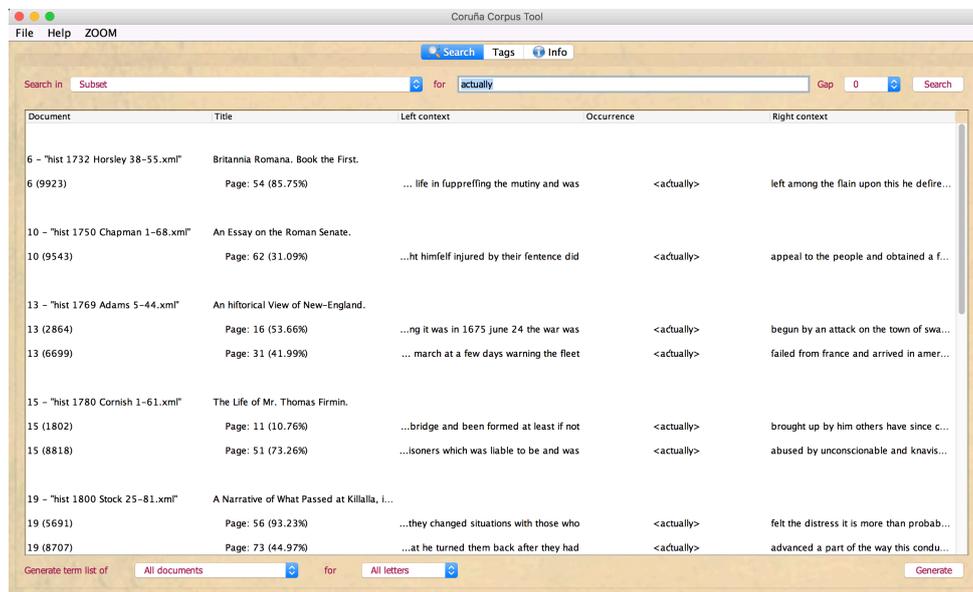
Figure 2.12. Simple search screen.
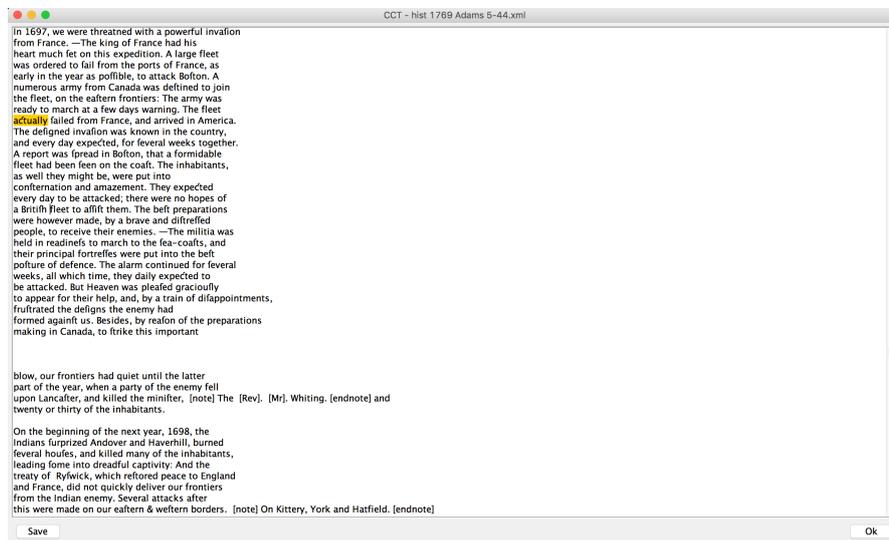
Figure 2.13. Context selection screen.

After a search is done, the last line of the concordances represents a summary of
the results, as shown in figure 2.14. This line offers a complete picture because,

after clicking on it, a new screen shows with information pertaining the number of tokens searched, the forms retrieved, and the statistics these forms represent. The occurrences are then given by text with information on the page they appear, their exact position in the text in the form of a percentage, and the form type.
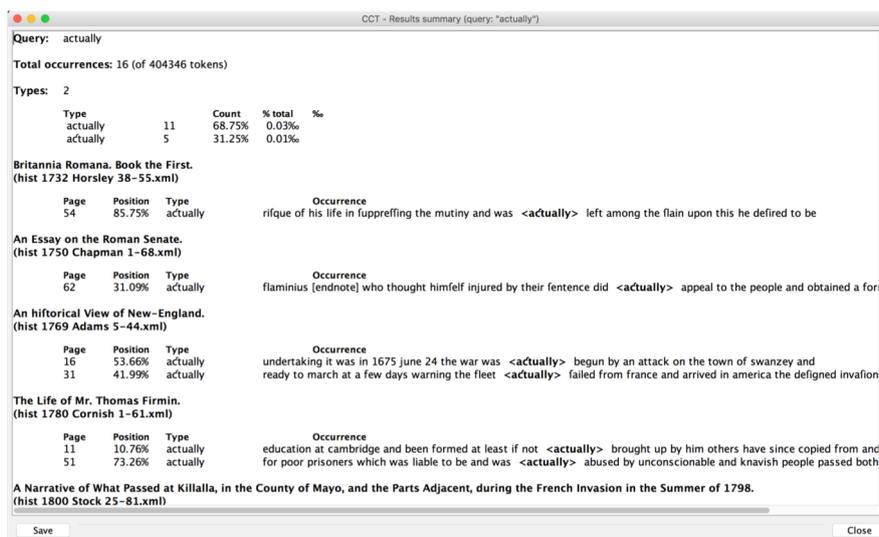
Figure 2.14. Results screen.

An advanced search allows the interrogation of the corpus by using the following wildcards (cf. Moskowich and Lareo 2011, i.e. the software manual):

Wildcard	Function
.	To be in the place of one character.
*	To be in the place of a previous character that may not appear, or it may appear several times.
+	To be in the place of a previous character that may appear once, or it may appear several times.
( )	To indicate that a portion of a word can or cannot appear. This is especially useful for interrogating the corpus for strings such as likely and unlikely, especially in combination with other wildcards, e.g. (un)*likely (see figure 2.16, below). The combination of this wildcard and the asterisk with the dot preceding this combination with ly added retrieves cases of –ly adverbs. Another way is given below by using a different wildcard (i.e. |).

|	To indicate that one string or the other can be used. This one is useful for my purpose of –ly adverbs, as –ly adverbs can be retrieved by using the string *ly|ly* in the search box (see figure 2.15, below).
[^restricted string]	To avoid the occurrence of a given character in a string. If the researcher produce a search of a given string and [^s], the software would retrieve cases of that string without a single case containing *s*.

Table 2.6. Wildcards in CCT.

Figure 2.15. Advanced search screen. ly|ly query to retrieve –ly forms.
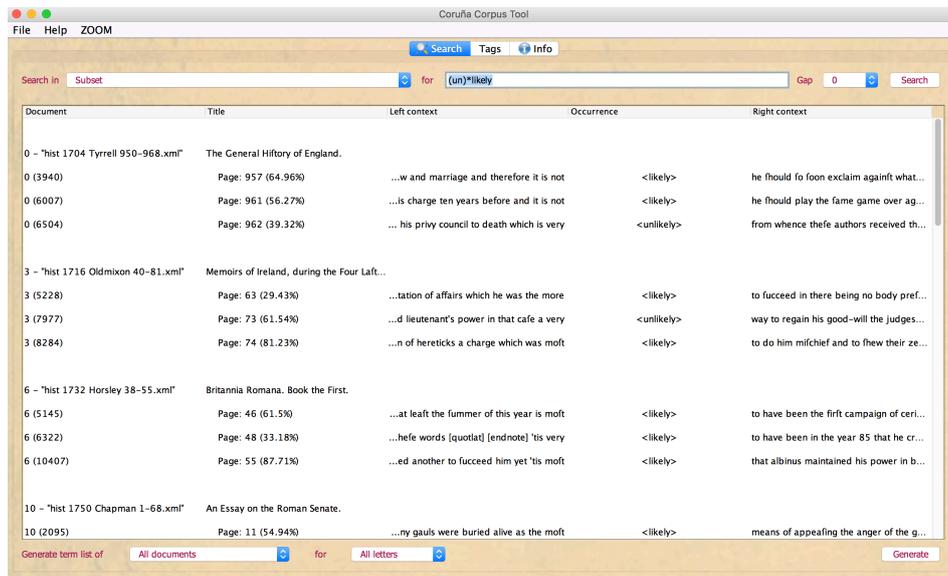
Figure 2.16. Advanced search using wildcard (un)*likely.

2.5.3. The *tags* tab

The main screen of the tags tab looks as in figure 2.17, below:
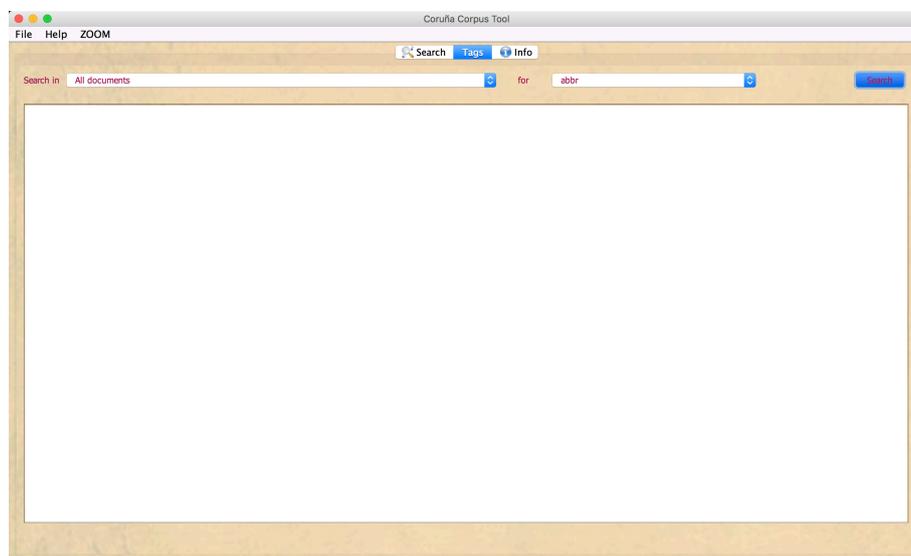
Figure 2.17. Advanced search using wildcard (un)*likely.

The *tags* tab allows also the retrieval of examples by selecting a text, a group of

texts, or the complete corpus. Searches are performed according to a particular tag as enabled by the software from a list. These tags have been provided by the compilators during the process of editing the texts for gathering them in the form of a corpus. The following figures show, first, the tags menu displayed and, second, a search carried out using one of these tags, i.e. *emph*.

Figure 2.18. The tags tab. Tag menu.
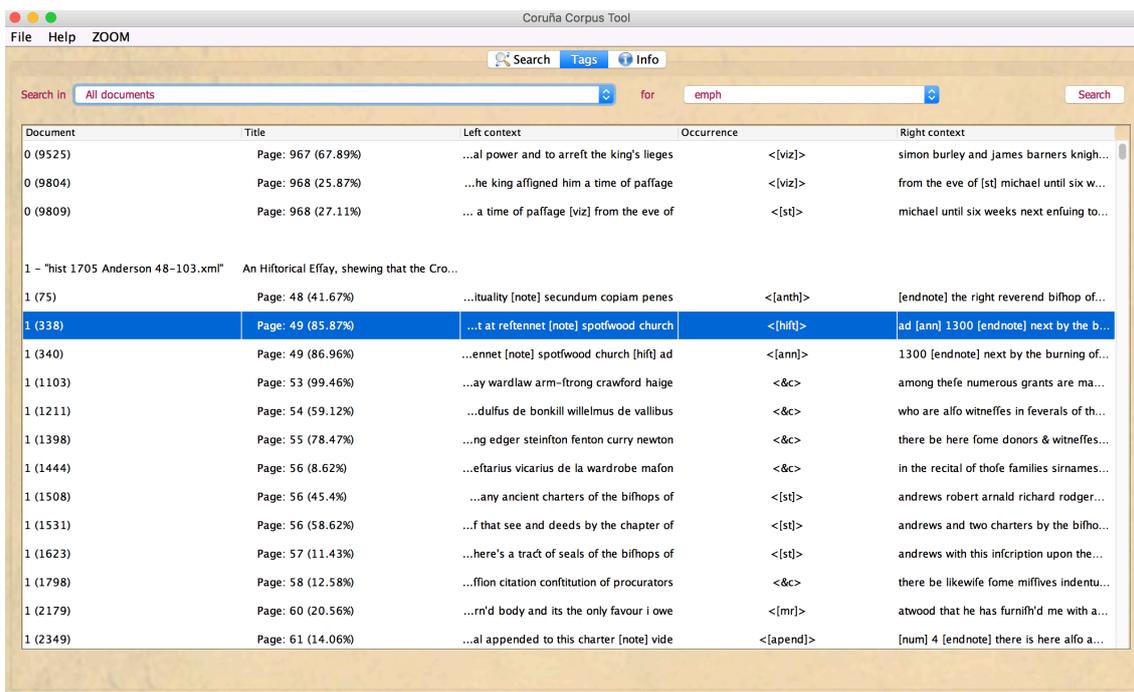
Figure 2.19. The tags tab. Tag search: emphasis.

2.6. Summary of this chapter

In this this chapter, I have described the *Corpus of History English Texts* (CHET) in the context of the *Coruña Corpus*. I have outlined the characteristics of the corpus: size, contents, procedure of compilation, genre and register features, and sociological aspects, among others. I have also presented a description of the suite for text consultation and retrieval, i.e. the *Coruña Corpus Tools*. As already said, this suite is essential to locate and count concordances for my query concerning *–ly* adverbs for my study. The CCT is also useful to determine the categorization of the *–ly* adverbs found and their pragmatic and discourse meanings.

3. Adverbs

3.1. Introduction

Adverbs can be considered as a quite heterogeneous grammatical category, and this aspect contributes to the difficulty in providing a clear definition of the category. Moreover, different scholars, such as van der Auwera (1998), Haspelmath (2001) or Eisenberg (2013), for instance, have made reference to this reality, stating the grammatical category of adverbs as being the "most problematic major word class" (2001: 16543), as being an "elusive" (1998: 3) part of speech and as being sometimes "confusing" (2013: 212). This lack of conceptual unity and the absence of a clear definition of this grammatical category and of its scope have led to treat the adverb category as an umbrella term for many words which, apparently, do not suit in other grammatical categories.

This can be understood also due to the diverse morphological structures that adverbs present, the different positions they can occupy into any clause and the various syntactic functions they can play. This situation regarding the misclassification of several words as adverbs has been already highlighted by some scholars, for instance, Huddleston and Pullum (2002) claim that "With fairly small-scale exceptions (including interjections) all other words are assigned to the adverb category." Thus, it is common to find some words which can formally seem to be an adverb, but that do not function as one, classified as such,

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especially when the adverb and the adjective share the same graphic form, or also when language learners relate some endings such as the suffix *–ly* with the specific grammatical category of adverbs without having into consideration that there exist also adjectives with the same ending. The following examples can serve to illustrate this:

    a. Adjectives that finish in *–ly*, suffix which is quite commonly associated to the grammatical category of adverbs, examples of adjectives with this ending are, among others, *lovely* and *friendly.* Examples taken from the *Oxford English Dictionary* (OED)*:*

        i. we've had a **lovely** day (adjective)

        ii. she gave me a **friendly** smile (adjective)

    b. The confusion appears when some words can function either as adverbs or adjectives without changing their graphic forms, e.g. *daily* and *fast.* The following clauses are some examples from the *OED:*

        i. *a **daily** newspaper (adjective)*

        ii. *a **fast** and powerful car (adjective)*

        iii. *the journey was **fast** and enjoyable (adjective)*

        iv. *the museum is open **daily** (adverb)*

        v. *he was driving too **fast** (adverb)*

        vi. *we're going to have to get to the bottom of this **fast***

From a semantic perspective, in the previous examples we can see that the adverbs and adjectives present obvious meaning connections, e.g. in example b.2. the adjective meaning according to the OED is "moving or capable of moving at high speed" while in example b.5. the adverb *fast* means *"at a high speed." And in example b.3. the adjective means "*taking place at high speed; taking a short time" whilst in b.6., the adverb's meaning is "within a short time". Therefore, the semantic meaning of the adjectives and adverbs in the previous examples are almost alike.

c. The question can be even more complicated when not only the syntactic function of the entity changes, but also its semantic meaning. In those cases, the analysis from different angles, e.g. semantic, syntactic and/or pragmatic, deems necessary. An example of this case is *dead,* for the specific the case of this adverb the *OED* states the following definitions:

    i. Dead (adjective): 'No longer alive'*.*

d. Sentence: there was no time to bury the **dead** with decency

    i. Dead (adverb): 'Absolutely; completely'.

e. Sentence: you're **dead** right

To shed some light into this matter, it is relevant to analyse the relation of adverbs with other parts of speech, especially with the one of adjectives, as it seems that the boundaries of these two categories are sometimes a bit fuzzy and confusing. From a morphological and syntactical point of view, adverbs and adjectives present a close link. Actually, this relation is quite obvious since many adverbs derive from adjectives. e.g. *real – really*. Geuder (2000: 1) affirms that "The term 'adverb' is meant to refer to adverbial modifiers which are morphologically derived from an adjectival base, or are formally identical to adjectives." Derivation is quite common, not simply in the English language, but also in other European languages such as French, Italian and Spanish (García-Page 1993; Molinier 1990), among others. In all the languages mentioned, the most common technique to create adverbs deriving from adjectives is suffixing. The suffixes used are varied; however, the most common ones are in French *–ment,* e.g. *communément*; in Italian *–mente,* e.g. *comunemente*; in Spanish *–mente*, e.g. *comúnmente*, *– weise/–lich* in German (cf. Helbig and Buscha 1994), e.g. *glücklicherweise/ bitterlich* (Azpian Torres 1999-2000: 263), and finally in English *–ly*, e.g. *commonly*. And it is precisely the *–ly* adverbs which are the target element to be analysed in this dissertation, and I shall describe its origin in English in section 3.3, below.

Apart from adjectives, the addition of determined suffixes can serve as well to modify other grammatical categories in order to transform those into adverbs such as

    a. –wise

> *likewise* [like (prep.) + -wise (suffix) = likewise (adverb)]
> *clockwise* [clock (noun) + -wise (suffix) = clockwise (adverb)]
> *nowise* [no (determiner) + -wise (suffix) = nowise (adverb)]

The examples presented above serve to illustrate how the suffix *–wise* can function as a modifier of a preposition like in the case of *likewise*, of a noun in the case of *clockwise* or it can work even to transform a determiner such as *no* into the adverb *nowise.*

    b. –ward(s)

> *afterwards* [after (prep.) + -wards (suffix) = afterwards (adverb)]
> *goalwards* [goal (noun) + -wards (suffix) = goalwards (adverb)]

Despite the discussions related to the boundaries and scope of the grammatical category of adverbs, there are, of course, some reliable and accurate definitions which can be followed. In the case of the present work, I have decided to follow the online version of the *Oxford English Dictionary* definition, which states that an adverb is "a word or phrase that modifies or qualifies an adjective, verb, or other adverb or a word group, expressing a relation of place, time, circumstance, manner, cause, degree, etc. (e.g., *gently*, *quite*, *then*, *there*)." From a grammatical perspective, the difference between adverbs and adjectives seems unquestionable as the former category modifies especially an adjective, a verb or another adverb and the latter category functions mainly as a modifier of a noun. The difficulties appear when some syntactic functions of these two grammatical categories overlap. Some adverbs can occur as complements of copulas, as

shown in the following instance:

(1)   Since you're here, we have a small favour to ask (The Guardian, 2017).

In the Modern English period, hypercorrection leads also to difficulties regarding the use of these two grammatical categories, although their lexical meanings and syntactic functions are clear enough, some degree adverbs started to lose the *–ly* suffix. The loss of this inflexion has to do with the existence of analogies with other degree adverbs as for instance *so* and *very.* Notwithstanding, in general terms, the adverbs which function as modifiers of a whole clause keep the *–ly* ending, as suggested in Van Gelderen (2006).

Having into consideration what has been said in the previous paragraph, a distinction shall be made concerning the adverbs which are integrated in the clauses and that function as modifiers and the other cases in which they occur on their own as independent elements in the clauses. In this second case, these elements can be called adverbials (Biber et al., 1999). The following examples, obtained from articles published in different British newspapers, have been included in order to exemplify what has been just said. In examples 2a, 2b and 2c the adverbs are integrated in the clauses functioning as modifiers: in case 2a the adverb *immediately* is modifying the adjective *clear*, in case 2b the adverb *repeatedly* modifies the verb *said* and finally, case 2c serves as an example of a clause in which an adverb is modifying another adverb, in this case, *almost* modifies *always.*

(2)

 a. It was not **immediately clear** if Trump's intervention would derail attempts to find a compromise on the issue, or negotiations over government funding.

 b. [adv. modifying an adj.] (Lauren Gambino, 2017)

 c. Mr Lansman, whose group has **repeatedly said** it opposes all forms of racism, put the blame on the fact that "Jeremy had not expected to be a candidate for leader.

 d. [adv. modifying a verb.] (Gordon Rayner, 2017)

 e. That long distance cable, an interconnector, would give the windfarms flexibility to supply whichever country's market was paying the most for power at any given time, and mean the power **almost always** had a use.

 f. [adv. modifying another adv.] (Adam Vaughan, 2017)

In contrast, in the following occurrences, 3a and 3b, the adverbs are independent elements in the clauses they are inserted and they function on their own. They modify the sense of the whole utterance while in the previous cases, the adverbs affected only the verbs they come along with:

(3)

 a. **Unfortunately**, stargazers were unable to see these moons as new moons are generally obscured by the light of the sun. (Telegraph reporters, 2017)

 b. **According** to Moody's analysis, home prices in the District could deflate by 2 percent, 2.5 percent in Montgomery County and 2.3 percent in Arlington County. (Kathy Orton and Aaron Gregg, 2017)

As I said previously, the main reason to choose adverbials as the target part of speech of this analysis is that it seems that adverbials stand as one of the grammatical categories that most clearly contribute to the expression of interpersonal meanings (Biber and Finegan, 1988). Classifications of adverbials include three main types, specifically *adjuncts*, *conjuncts* and *disjuncts*. Nonetheless, and as happens with other linguistic concepts, this taxonomy coined by Greenbaum (1969) and adopted, among others, by Quirk et al. (1972,

1985) has not been followed by all linguists.

One case in point is Biber et al. (1999: 763). They use *circumstance*, *stance* and *linking* adverbials as the corresponding terms. Within Systemic Functional Linguistics, Halliday et al. (2004: 123ff) proposes a similar classification of adverbs comprising three types as well: *circumstantial* or *adjuncts*, *conjunctive*, *conjuncts* or *linking* adverbials and, finally, *modal* or *disjuncts*. Generally speaking, adverbials contributing to referential meaning have been referred to as *adjuncts* or *circumstantial* adverbials; those fulfilling connective and text-organising functions are *conjuncts*, or *conjunctive/linking* adverbials; and adverbials conveying the speaker's evaluation of the propositional information are *disjuncts* or *modal* adverbials.

Focusing specifically on those adverbials expressing some evaluation of the propositional information, Greenbaum (1969) and Quirk et al. (1985) identify a group of adverbs, which provide a "comment about the truth-value of what is said". Greenbaum (1969) distinguishes between adverbs that "merely express shades of doubt or certainty" and adverbs that "in addition refer to the observation or perception of a state of affairs". Quirk et al. (1985), on their part, distinguish between adverbs that "express conviction" and adverbs that "express some degree of doubt", and similarly, Biber and Finegan (1988, 1989) deal with "surely-adverbials" and "maybe-adverbials". Biber et al. (1999), in contrast, take all of these adverbials to be under the label *epistemic stance adverbs* conveying doubt or certainty. In the same line as Greenbaum's (1969) original distinction, Biber et al. (1999) and Fraser (1996) further distinguish between adverbials that merely

convey degrees of certainty and adverbials that indicate the type of source.

In the fashion of Biber et al. (1999), Hyland's (2005) stance adverbs clearly indicate the authors' attitude towards their texts, and their use depends on the effect an author is seeking to have on readers. They can serve to express possibility or a lack of complete commitment to the truth of a specific proposition, thus exhibiting a hedging function.

3.2. The classification of adverbs

In this section, I focus on adverbs from a semantic perspective, its grammatical realisation or form and, finally, the place it occupies in a given utterance, as the position of the adverb can suggest an array of pragmatic functions; all these as a way of providing a classification of adverbs. There exist numerous classifications, as pointed out before in section 3.1. In this dissertation, I partially follow Conrad and Biber's (2000) classification, included in Table 3.1, below. From a meaning perspective, I opt for the classification in Downing (2015: 446ff), as given in Table 3.2, below.

Semantic class (meaning)	epistemic stance	Well perhaps he is a little bit weird.
	attitudinal stance	*Unfortunately,* IPC as proposed is applicable to only a relatively small number of pollutants.
	style stance	*Honestly*, I've got a headache.
Grammatical realisation (form)	single adverb	A message *actually* belongs to...
	adverb phrase	I assume you're right Lynda, but *quite frankly* I don't know.
	noun phrase	The enthusiastic housekeeper will *no doubt* be pleased to hear that...
	prepositional phrase	I'll tell you *for a fact* that Steven won't go for Ollie tonight...

	finite subordinate clause	She, she's in hospital here *I think*.
	non-finite subordinate clause	We feel that if we did not pursue this second transplant it would be like, *to put it bluntly,* pulling the plug on her.
Placement in the clause	initial	*Actually* I can't blame her.
	pre-verbal	I'll *actually* said thank you for that.
	post-verbal	I'm *actually* cold.
	final	They look good *actually*.

Table 3.1. Classification of adverbials, after Conrad and Biber (2000).

Meaning	Function	Type	Examples
Circumstantial	Space	Position	Put the chairs *here/outside/upstairs*.
		Direction	Push it inwards/down/through/out/away.
		Distance	Don't go too *far/near/close*.
	Time	Moment	They will be coming tomorrow/sometime/then/soon/later.
		Frequency	The doctor came once/daily/frequently/now and again.
		Duration	We didn't stay *long*. We spoke *briefly*.
		Relation	The taxi will arrive *soon*. It is*n't here yet*.
		Sequence	first, second, next, then, last, finally.
	Manner		Hold it *carefully*.
	Domain		The concert was a success *artistically* but not *financially*.
Stance		Certainty, doubt	You are certainly right. Perhaps I'm wrong.
		Evidential	*Apparently*, they emigrated to Australia.
		Viewpoint	We are in good shape *financially*, and *healthwise*, too.
		Emphasis	He is *plainly just* a creep. *Indeed* he is.
		Judgement	The Minister has *wisely* resigned.
		Attitude	*Thankfully*, it didn't rain. *Hopefully*, it will be fine tomorrow.
Degree		Comparison	This is the *most*/the *least* efficient scanner we've had so far.

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	Intensification	He lives *all* alone but seems *quite/fairly/ pretty* happy.
	Attenuation	It was *kind of* strange to see her again.
	Approximation	There were *about/roughly/more or less* 20 people there.
	Sufficiency	Is the water hot *enough*?
	Excess	Well, actually, it's *too* hot.
Focusing	Restriction	That is *merely* a detail. He is *just* interested in money.
	Reinforcement	The hotel had everything, *even* a fitness centre
Connective	Sequence	*First*, we have no money, and *second*, we have no time.
	Reinforcement	The house is small and *besides/furthermore* has no garden.
	Conclusion	It was a tiring trip, but *altogether* very interesting.
	Restating	We've got two pets, *namely* a rabbit and a canary.
	Reason	I couldn't find you, *so* I left.
	Condition	Take an umbrella; *otherwise* (= if not), you'll get wet.
	Clarification	He wants to live abroad, *or rather* anywhere away from home.
	Contrast	They accept his invitations, *yet* they run him down.
	Alternation	There's no tea. Would you like a cup of coffee *instead*?
	Concession	What you said was true; *still* it was unkind.
	Attention-seeking	*Now*, you listen to me! *Now then*, what's all this about?

Table 3.2. Classification of adverbials, after Downing (2015); examples are from the same source (pp.446-447).

Concerning placement, according to Conrad and Biber (2000), adverbs can be placed in initial, pre-verbal, post-verbal and final position. There are some tendencies in the placement of adverbs in a given clause which has to do with the

type of adverb. Adverbs of manner, place and time are usually given finally in the clause; if there is a cluster of adverbs, the adverb of manner goes first, and the adverb of place and the adverb of time follow. Most scholars claim that any adverb can occupy different positions in a clause: they can be placed in front, mid or end positions. The relevance of the placement of each adverb in clauses is such that their meaning changes depending on the place they occupy. Thus, placement is one dimension to be considered in the interpretation of occurrences found in CHET so as to determine what variations might exist regarding their meaning and functions.

The front position of a clause represents the first item; that is the case of *suddenly* in the following example:

(4)   **Suddenly** I remembered his name.

The mid position is considered between the subject of the clause and the main verb, e.g. *always* in (5a) below; if there is more than one verb in the clause, the adverb is usually placed after the auxiliary verb or the modal verb included in the utterance, e.g. *sporadically* in (5b):

(5)
          a. The lessons **always** start at half past ten.
          b. They have **sporadically** decided to change the requirements
          of access.

The end position of a clause is understood as the last element included in it; that is *roughly* in (6):

(6)   Why do you have to act always so **roughly**?

The only exception has to do with verb *to be*. In the clauses in which this verb occupies the main verb, adverbs come after it:

(7)   He is **always** on the phone.

However, there are cases in which adverbs, even when they co-occur with the verb *to be*, are positioned before the verb to give emphasis to the content; that is *never* in (f)

(8)   Why should I care about her? She **never** was kind to me.

Depending on the type of adverbs, they are more frequently placed in a specific position or another. For instance, adverbs indicating manner, place and time tend to occur most commonly in final position, while those conveying the authors' evaluation or viewpoint are generally placed at the beginning. The latter are known as sentence adverbs as they have a clear impact on the whole utterance, e.g. *actually* in the following example:

(9)   **Actually**, I consider that this solution is quite positive for
            everyone.

The specific case of the adverb *actually* is quite illustrative to show how a change in position leads to variations in pragmatic functions. In Aijmer (2016), this adverb is analysed in depth reaching interesting conclusions. First, regarding its position, Aijmer stated that this adverb is quite flexible occupying the utterance-initial position as well as utterance-final position. It is exactly this flexibility which has

triggered interest among scholars to check whether this adverb as well as others present different pragmatic functions depending on the position they occupy in a given utterance. Many scholars have analysed also the effect of position on the function of lexical items. Beeching and Detges (2014: 1), for instance, claim that those items can present different functions according to their right or left periphery location.

3.3. A historical overview of adverbs in *–ly* to the late ModE period

Because the scope of this dissertation concerns the adverbs in *–ly* in late Modern English, this section deals with a short overview of the history of adverbs in English up to the Modern period. The main morphological resource for originating adverbs is through derivation, rather than inflexion. They are derived from nouns and adjectives, thus changing their grammatical category. However, as the formation process of adverbs does not imply any further semantic feature, there is lack of agreement among scholars. Accordingly, some tend to consider this process as word-formation (Quirk & Wrenn 1956:107), whilst others subsume it under the label of inflexion (Wright & Wright 1925:299ff).

In order to transform other parts of speech into adverbs, suffixes are and had been used. In this section I will present a historical overview of how adverbs have been created in the different periods of the English language history. The Old English period is well-known for the great number of inflexions that existed in the English language. So, to convert adjectives into adverbs in Old English, the most recurrent suffix was *–e* as in *deope, georne* and *nearwe,* which roughly correspond to present day English *deeply*, *eagerly* and *narrowly*, respectively. In the case of

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adjectives whose ending was already *–e*, the adjective and adverb were homonymous such as *bliþe, ece* and *milde.* However, in present day English *joyful(ly)*, *eternal(ly)* and *merciful(ly)* are not homonymous anymore and the suffix *–ly* is needed to form the adverbs.

Other frequent adverbial endings during the Old English period was *–lice*, deployed to create adverbs from adjectives e.g. *sarlice* (OE) grievously (PDE); *modiglice* (OE) *proudly* (PDE); *holdlice* (OE) *graciously* (PDE); *hwætlice* (OE) *quickly* (PDE) as well as from nouns, e.g. *freondlice* (OE), *in a friendly manner* (PDE); *eornostlice* (OE)*, earnestly* (PDE); and the suffixes *–inga/–linga*, *–unga/–lunga* in words such as *færunga* (OE), *quickly* (PDE) and in *grundlunga* (OE) *to the ground* (PDE) and *grundlinga* (OE) *completely* (PDE). Nonetheless, not all adverbs where formed through derivation. In the specific case of denominal adverbs, those were created by means of inflexional forms such as in *anstreces* (OE), *continuously* (PDE), in which the inflexional suffix *–es* served to indicate the masc. gen. sg. or in *dæges* (OE), *daily* (PDE). As well as the dative plural e.g. *geardagum* (OE), formerly (PDE); *geþildum* (OE) patiently (PDE).

Another issue found regarding the grapheme of adverbs has to do with the confusion existing between the categories of conjunctions and adverbs owing to the fact that many different linguistic items could function as both, e.g. *swa,* which could mean 'as' or 'so'*; þa* meaning 'when' or 'then'; *þeah* meaning 'although' or 'however'. This confusion was resolved using different intonation patterns in oral speech and also with a different stress pattern, and the conjunctions were, therefore, more heavily stressed so as to differentiate them from the adverbs.

These techniques could not be transferred to the writing mode. Consequently, the use of those linguistic items led to confusions. Thus, authors of written texts also developed different techniques to get over this limitation and solve the problem, as doubling a word to signal that a given word is a conjunction instead of an adverb for instance: e.g. *ða ða* (OE), *when* (PDE); *ðær ðær* (OE), *where* (PDE); *ær ær* (OE), *before* (PDE) juxtaposing those to the adverbs *ða* (OE) *then* (PDE); *ðær* (OE), *there* (PDE); *ær* (OE), *previously* (PDE). Other techniques used to distinguish them was to add the particle *ðe* e.g. *ðeah* 'however', whilst adding the particle it turned to be *ðeah ðe* 'although' and also to use a pre-established word-order pattern and, therefore, *ða* followed by a verb would mean *then*, and *ða* followed by a subject would mean *when*.

Adverbs in the Middle English period have not been matter of extensive interest. Hence, we can only find a reduced number of studies dealing with the analyses of adverbs, the adverbial phrase and its position in utterances. We can find relevant studies not only focused on main sentence elements but also on Middle English word order, such as the ones carried out by Reszkiewicz (1962) and Palmatier (1969), in which some evidence on adverbs placement is provided. However, though it is unusual to find specialized studies concerning with the position of adverbs in this period of the language, we can find studies such as Jacobson's (1981) covering the Old English up to the Modern English period.

Diachronic, diatopic and stylistic variations do exist from Old English to Middle English concerning adverbs. From a syntactic perspective, adverbs are not so freely placed as in Old English, even if they can occupy almost any position. This

depends on diverse factors such as the type of clause, the type of adverbial phrase, the relevance of the adverbial in a specific utterance, among other aspects. The freedom to place adverbials in utterances has to do with their consideration by different scholars as optional elements. Conversely, the reduction of placement freedom is related to the loss of inflections, because, as the number of inflections decayed in Middle English, the position of adverbs in utterances consequently turned out to be more rigid, although it still shows some flexibility if we compare it to Present Day English.

In Middle English, unlike Present Day English, the adverbial phrase is commonly placed between a finite verb and its object, as in the following example:

(10)   Lat us now considere whiche been they that ye holde so **greetly** youre freendes. *The Canterbury Tales* VII.1364 (10: 1364)

Another typical position is when the adverb is found between the finite verb and the infinitive; that is the case of (11), below:

(11)   The fourthe signe is that he ne lette nat **for shame** to shewen his confessioun. *The Canterbury Tales* X.995 (12: 995)

Occurrences found in main clauses show a pattern in which the adverb is usually placed in postverbal position, as well as when we are dealing with degree and adverbs of manner; see (12), below:

(12)   He weneth **alwej** that he may do thyng that he may nat do. *The Canterbury Tales* VIM 124 (10: 1124)

On the other hand, occurrences found in subclauses may also happen in preverbal position, for instance, in relative clauses, as in (13).

(13)   He fareth lyk hym that handleth the scorpioun that styngeth and **sodejnly** sleeth thurgh his envenymynge. *The Canterbury Tales* X.854 (12: 854)

Once again, in the next period, i.e. the Early Modern English period, there were again variations concerning adverbs' position since authors tend to elude the use of adverbials between a transitive verb and its object. This *standardization* of word order, once more, addresses the loss of morphological marking mentioned before and that was so characteristic of the Old English period. Therefore, as a consequence of this, adverbs in Modern English are normally placed before the verb or after the first auxiliary, as in (14), below, whilst in the case of the heavier ones, they are located at the end of the utterances, such as the ones dealing with place and time.

(14)   conteyning that the lord Hastinges with diuers other of his traitorous purpose, had **before** conspired the same day, to haue slaine the lord protector ([HC] More, *Richard III* 53)

3.4. Conclusion

The English language has incessantly been modified, changed and adapted due to internal and external, linguistic and non-linguistic factors. Those changes have affected all the different linguistic levels and all parts of speech and adverbs have not been an exception.

Throughout the history of the English language, adverbs' placement in utterances has been quite flexible, although it is true that this flexibility was greater in the Old English period and later it has been reduced. The sentence adverbials have almost in all cases occupy the front sentence position, while the rest of adverbs tend to be found in mid or end position.

4. Metadiscourse

4.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the core aspect of the theoretical framework meant to be followed in the present research. It analyses the notion of metadiscourse, and then related concepts, including epistemic modality, evidentiality and stance. These terms are broad concepts whose boundaries have not been clearly defined, and so there is not full consensus among scholars in relation to their definition and their scope. In this chapter different theories are presented, but the main tenet is Hyland (1998, 2005).

4.2. Metadiscourse

The term metadiscourse was first mentioned in 1959 by the American linguist Zellig Harris who referred to it as "a way of understanding language in use, representing a writer's or speaker's attempts to guide a receiver's perception of a text" (Hyland, 2005: 3). Since then, the interest in this notion has grown enormously over the years to the extent that it is now frequently invoked in various fields such as discourse analysis, language teaching and pragmatics, among others. The bulk of literature and studies that have sprung throughout a couple of decades provide good evidence that metadiscourse is a powerful tool in linguistic analysis as it offers insight into the relationship between language and its context

of use, including the way writers articulate their texts and how they draw their audience to certain intended meanings.

It is undeniably true that we are dealing with a fuzzy term here. Swales (1990: 188) observes that "although the concept of metadiscourse is easy to accept in principle, it is much more difficult to establish its boundaries". Difficulties are not only found on the theoretical side but also when it comes to looking into metadiscourse in practice, since the number of linguistic resources that may signal metadiscourse relationships do not constitute a closed set. On the contrary, the presence of both text producers and text receivers in a given text could be codified through an endless list of elements and so this adds complexity to the task of analysing metadiscursive features. In this sense, Aguilar (2008: 58) points out that diversity itself is a typical feature of metadiscourse as it "embraces connectives, discourse markers, lexical phrases, advance organisers, hedges and authorial comment".

In order to provide a solid theoretical basis which may then allow us to carry out a robust analysis of a specific metadiscursive resource in our corpus, namely *-ly* adverbs, I shall offer a short overview of the concept by focusing on some definitions and taxonomies proposed by some scholars. Williams (1981: 121-122), for instance, defined metadiscourse as "writing about writing, whatever does not refer to the subject matter being addressed", hinting that there are at least two levels of meaning, that is, (i) the discursive level, which provides the propositional content of a text, and (ii) the metadiscursive level, which in principle supplies the audience with material to guide them through the interpretation process. This

distinction was adopted later on by Vande Kopple (1985, 2002) and Crismore and Farnsworth (1989), among others, who developed their views of metadiscourse drawing on concepts of Systemic Functional Linguistics, namely the ideational, interpersonal and textual functions of a text. Roughly speaking, the ideational function stands as a primary level and it has to do with the propositional material; the interpersonal and textual functions are related to the metadiscursive level. While interpersonal items indicate authorial attitudes towards the propositional material, textual elements contribute to unfolding texts into a cohesive and coherent whole. Crismore (1984: 282), for instance, develops this idea as follows:

> Metadiscourse functions on a referential, informational plane when it serves to direct readers how to understand the author's purposes and goals, and the primary message by referring to its content and structure. The referring can be on a global or local level. Metadiscourse functions on an expressive or attitudinal plane when it serves to direct readers how to 'take' the author, that is, how to understand the author's perspective or stance toward the content or the structure of the primary discourse.

Mauranen (1993) identifies two main trends in metadiscourse studies, i.e. the integrative and the non-integrative approach. The integrative approach takes textual interaction between writer and reader as a defining feature, while the non-integrative approach considers metadiscourse as a narrower concept which only looks into reflexivity, i.e. the capacity of language commenting on language itself (Ädel, 2010: 70). Non-integrative approaches tend to define metadiscourse as "reflexive linguistic expressions referring to the evolving text per se or its linguistic form, including references to the writer persona and the imagined reader qua reader and the reader of the current text" (Ädel, 2005: 154).

The majority of studies in metadiscourse tend to adopt the integrative approach taking Vande Kopple's (1985) model as the starting point and then certain adjustments are made. Following the Hallidayan functions, Vande Kopple (1985) divides metadiscourse into two categories: textual and interpersonal. Textual metadiscourse shows "how we link and relate individual propositions so that they form a cohesive and coherent text and how individual elements of those propositions make sense in conjunction with other elements of the text" (Vande Kopple 1985: 87). As for interpersonal metadiscourse, it "helps to express our personalitites and our reactions to the propositional content of our texts and characterizes the interaction we would like to have with our readers about that content" (Vande Kopple 1985: 87). In the taxonomy proposed by Vande Kopple (1985) shown in the Table 4.1 below, textual metadiscourse comprises four categories: (i) text connectives, (ii) code glosses, (iii) validity markers, and (iv) narrators. Interpersonal metadiscourse includes three types of devices, namely, (i) illocution markers, (ii) attitude markers, and (iii) commentaries.

The importance of the model proposed by Vande Kopple (1985) rests on the fact that it can be considered as the first attempt to systematise the analysis of metadiscourse devices, but, as pointed out by some scholars including Hyland (2005: 32), the functional overlap between some categories makes it difficult to render satisfactory analyses. One case in point is narrators and validity markers: narrators are used to indicate the information source the authors have for what they write; validity markers and, specifically within that category, attributors, are also related to the indication of the information source to support the authors'

position by relying on the credibility of someone else. In the light of the rhetorical functions that can be fulfilled by them both, it seems it would not be easy to establish a clear-cut distinction.

Textual metadiscourse	Function
Text connectives • Sequencers • Reminders • Topicalisers	They are used "to guide readers as smoothly as possible through our texts and to help them construct appropriate representations of them in memory"
Code glosses	They "help readers grasp the appropriate meanings of elements in text"
Validity markers • Hedges • Emphatics • Attributors	They are used to "assess the probability or truth of the propositional content we express and to show how committed we are to that assessment"
Narrators	They "function primarily to let readers know how who said or wrote something"
Interpersonal metadiscourse	**Function**
Illocution markers	They "make explicit to our readers what speech or discourse act we are performing at certain points in our texts"
Attitude markers	They "reveal our attitudes towards the propositional content"
Commentaries	They are used "to address readers directly, often appearing to draw them into an implicit dialogue with us"

Table 4.1. Vande Kopple's (1985) metadiscourse model.

Crismore et al. (1993) proposed a significant revision of Vande Kopple's model of metadiscourse. In their classification, there is still a distinction between two main categories, i.e. textual and interpersonal metadiscourse (see Table 4.2 below). Textual metadiscourse is now divided into textual markers, which include (i) logical connectives, (ii) sequencers, (iii) reminders, and (iv) topicalizers, and interpretative markers, with (i) code glosses, (ii) illocution markers, and (iii) announcements as

subcategories. Interpersonal metadiscourse may be realised in a text through the following five categories: (i) hedges, (ii) certainty markers, (iii) attributors, (iv) attitude markers, and (v) commentary.

Textual metadiscourse	Function
Textual markers	
• Logical connectives	They show connections between ideas
• Sequencers	They indicate sequencing/ordering of material
• Reminders	They refer to earlier text material
• Topicalisers	They indicate a shift in topic
Interpretative markers	
• Code glosses	They explain text material
• Illocution markers	They name the act performed
• Announcements	They announce upcoming material
Interpersonal metadiscourse	**Function**
Hedges	They show uncertainty to truth of assertion
Certainty markers	They express full commitment to assertion
Attributors	They give source/support of information
Attitude markers	They display writer's affective values
Commentary	They build relationship with readers

Table 4.2. Crismore et al.'s (1993) metadiscourse model (after Hyland 2005: 34).

Hyland (2005) follows an integrative approach to metadiscourse. For him, "Metadiscourse has always been something of a fuzzy term, often characterized as simply 'discourse about discourse' or 'talk about talk'" (Hyland, 2005: 16). Currently, there is broad agreement among scholars that the term metadiscourse makes reference "to material which goes beyond the subject matter to signal the presence of the author" (Hyland, 2005: 35), but there is still no agreed definition of what the term signifies. In this research, the following definition of the term has been adopted: "Metadiscourse is the cover term for the self-reflective expressions

used to negotiate interactional meanings in a text, assisting the writer (or speaker) to express a viewpoint and engage with readers as members of a particular community" (Hyland, 2005: 37-38). This definition is clearly related to the ones presented in previous works about the subject, but it also differs from them "overlapping with other views of language use which emphasize the interpersonal, such as evaluation, stance and engagement."

According to Hyland and Tse, (2004: 159) the main principles of metadiscourse are:

1. metadiscourse is distinct from prepositional aspects of discourse;
2. metadiscourse refers to those aspects of the text that embody writer-reader interactions;
3. metadiscourse distinguishes relations which are external to the text from those that are internal.

The first principle refers to the different levels of meaning Williams (1981) identified and, as we commented on earlier in this section, they were taken as the starting point for many definitions and taxonomies of metadiscourse ever since. Hyland and Tse (2004) revisit this feature typically associated to metadiscourse in literature and they claim that the distinction between propositional and non-propositional material as a way of identifying metadiscourse elements in a given text proves problematic because of a couple of reasons: the very definition of 'proposition' is far from clear, though we may all have an idea of what it refers to. The notion has been generally related to truth-conditional semantics and defined as a logico-semantic unit with a truth value. As Hyland and Tse (2004: 160) note, it is true that we may roughly "distinguish the propositional content of a text from the particular way it is expressed", but the whole sense of a text is derived from

the sum of these elements, and so they cannot be isolated to refer to them as different levels of meaning. If we did so, we would be missing an important aspect of metadiscourse, and that is that metadiscourse is not a discrete feature of the texts, but an integral part of them.

The second principle of metadiscourse has to do with the dichotomy between the textual and the interpersonal, which has been an ever-present debate in earlier literature as well. For Hyland and Tse (2004), even the textual aspects of a text properly speaking have to be taken as interpersonal: whenever writers are planning their discourse they have to bear in mind the potential readers, including their knowledge and understanding, their reactions and their needs, among other things, and that stands as an indicator of the interaction that takes place between writers and readers. Again, the authors highlight the fact that these two functions are both necessary and hardly separable, and they insist on the idea that "the distinction between textual and interpersonal metadiscourse is unhelpful and misleading" (Hyland and Tse, 2004: 164).

The third principle of metadiscourse accounts for metadiscursive devices whose function is to connect the elements in the unfolding text, i.e. internal, and those whose function is to "connect activities in the world outside the text" (Hyland and Tse, 2004: 165), i.e. external. Hyland and Tse (2004: 166) contend that the internal/external dichotomy is similar to that existing in *de re* and *de dicto* modality in modal logic or, in other words, a distinction should be made between "the reality denoted by propositions" and "the propositions themselves". In their model specifically, this applies to categories like hedges or boosters, both of which have

to do with differing degrees of likelihood for propositions to be true as well as with differing degrees of authorial commitment towards the information expressed. Modal meanings other than epistemic and/or evidential, namely, deontic or dynamic would better be related to the "enabling conditions and external constraints on [their] occurrence in the real world".

The relevance of metadiscourse in academic texts is undeniable, as has been emphasised in Mauranen (1993), Hyland (1998, 2005), Hyland and Tse (2004) and Mur Dueñas (2011), among others. In this thesis, I shall follow the integrative approach to metadiscourse proposed by Hyland (2005) and Hyland and Tse (2004) as well as their division of metadiscourse into two dimensions. On the one hand, there is the interactive dimension, which includes code glosses, endophoric markers, evidentials, frame markers and transition markers, and the interactional dimension including attitude markers, boosters, engagement markers, hedges and self-mention, on the other. Readers are an essential part in academic writing and authors are responsible for promoting and guiding the interaction with them. As a consequence, the use of interactive metadiscourse devices is basic for writers to successfully interact with their readers. Mur-Dueñas (2011: 3069) describes this division in the following terms:

> Thus, both interactive metadiscourse features (intended to organise and shape the material in the light of the readers' likely needs and expectations) and interactional metadiscourse features (aimed at portraying the scholars as authors and at binding writer and reader together) are a response to the interpersonal component of writing.

The following is a framework for the analysis of interactive resources proposed in

Carrió-Pastor (2016: 93-94) and based on Mur-Dueñas (2011) and Cao and Hu (2014):

Interactive metadiscourse types	Subtypes	Function
Transitional markers	Additive markers	Relations of addition
	Contrastive markers	Relation of comparison
	Consecutive markers	Relation of cause and effect
Frame markers	Sequencers	The order of units
	Topicalisers	The shift between topics
	Discourse labels	Discourse stages
	Announcers	Discourse goals
Endophoric markers	Anaphoric references	References to previous text
	Cataphoric references	References to subsequent text
Evidential markers	Personal evidentials	References to other scholars
	Impersonal evidentials	References to shared knowledge
Code glosses	Exemplification markers	Meaning with examples
	Reformulation markers	Reformulation of discourse

Table 4.3. Interactive resources, after Carrió-Pastor (2016).

In relation to the interactional metadiscourse dimension, Mur-Dueñas (2011: 3070) follows a five sub-groups division:

1. Hedges: features which limit the writer's full commitment to what is stated in a proposition and which may be the result of certain pragmatic conventions in academic writing.

2. Boosters: features which highlight the writer's certainty and conviction about a proposition and which may be the result of certain pragmatic conventions in academic writing.

3. Attitude markers: items which show the writer's affective evaluation of given parameters or entities.

4. Engagement markers: elements through which scholars bring the readers into the text, involving them in the negotiation of academic knowledge. These include personal pronouns, question forms, directives and asides.

5. Self-mentions: explicit signals of the authorial persona of the scholar(s). They feature self-references and self-citations.

As Hyland (2005: 18) claims, most rhetoricians, linguists and composition theorists agree on using metadiscourse in a wider sense. In this sense, they refer to the various linguistic tokens used to guide a reader through a text, so both the text and the writer's stance can be clearly identified. In other words, it is the author's manifestation in a text to "bracket the discourse organisation and the expressive implications of what is being said" (Schiffrin, 1980: 231).

In what follows, I shall concentrate on the model followed in this thesis for identification and quantification of metadiscourse devices in CHET, i.e. interactive and interactional metadiscourse.

4.2.1. Interactive metadiscourse

The interactive dimension of metadiscouse concerns the writer's awareness of a given audience and the way he or she wants to convey the information, interests, knowledge, etc. This dimension has to do with shaping the information in a text and therefore, the main function of the interactive resources employed in any text is to organise the discourse in a coherent and convincing way for the target audience.

However, they cannot be labelled as simply text-organizing devices, since their distribution depends on what facts a writer knows or can suppose of his or her target readers. Hence, as Hyland (2005: 50) claims, "They are a consequence of

the writer's assessment of the reader's assumed comprehension capacities, understandings of related texts, and need for interpretive guidance, as well as the relationship between the writer and reader." These interactive resources can be classified into five broad categories which will be addressed individually below.

4.2.1.1. Transitional markers

The linguistic devices mainly functioning as transitional markers are adverbials and conjunctions. They serve to organise a text, helping to create a clear and coherent structure, which is basic in scientific texts as in the historical ones. From a discursive perspective, they are used to help writers organise their ideas and readers' interpretation of the ideas conveyed by the authors. Following Martin and Rose (2003), we can claim that these devices are useful to signal mainly addition (e.g. *and, furthermore, moreover, etc.*), contrast (e.g. *anyway, in any case, nevertheless, etc.*), comparison (e.g. *equally, similarly, likewise, etc.*), and consequence (e.g. *consequently, therefore, thus, etc.*). According to Mauranen (1993), however, these markers are not indispensable for a text since they do not improve the propositional content; in her view, they merely serve to indicate the existing relations between the propositions which are linked by them facilitating the reading process. It is important to note that though it cannot be denied that they mostly display an organising function internal to the texts, the way they are deployed by writers may also provide us with signals of an interactional nature as we commented on earlier when referring to the principles of metadiscourse formulated by Hyland and Tse (2004).

4.2.1.2. Frame markers

They are used to indicate text boundaries. As Hyland (2005) claims, the items "included here function to sequence, label, predict and shift arguments, making the discourse clear to readers or listeners." The main function of these linguistic elements is, then, to put in order the arguments included in a text. They can work at different levels to indicate addition, e.g. *first, next, then*; to establish divisions among text sections, e.g. *to sum up, to summarize, by way of introduction*; to specify discourse objectives, e.g. *this paper proposes, I argue, there are reasons why*; and finally, they are also used to signal a theme or topic change.

4.2.1.3. Endophoric markers

These markers are used to make reference to other parts of the text in which they are inserted, e.g. *as noted above, as stated in the next section, see table 3, see figure 2, etc.* They provide cohesion to the text and guide readers through it. The type of reference displayed by these markers may be anaphoric or cataphoric. As cohesive devices, they are aimed to provide continuity of reference between the information being pointed out and the endophoric devices themselves (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 31).

4.2.1.4. Evidential markers

Evidential markers are "metalinguistic representations of an idea from another source" (Thomas and Hawes, 1994: 129) and whose function is to indicate *source of knowledge*. It has a strong relation with the concept of *stance;* however, this one is classified as an interpersonal feature being defined as the writer's viewpoint

on a certain subject matter. The notion of stance will be dealt with in depth later on when the interactional category is presented.

Cornillie (2009: 45) takes evidentiality to be a "functional category that refers to the perceptual and/or epistemological basis for making a speech act". According to Willet (1988), there are two main types of evidentiality, namely, direct and indirect evidentiality. While direct evidentials are those that indicate that the speaker/writer witnessed the action being described, indirect evidentials are those that indicate that the speaker/writer got to know the information not because he himself witnessed it, but because he was told by someone else or because he made a deduction on the basis of some information he had at his disposal. The use of direct evidentials is linked to the acquisition of information through the senses, i.e. visual or non-visual; indirect evidentials, on their part, may belong to the reported category, i.e. first- or second-hand information, or folklore, or to the inferential category.
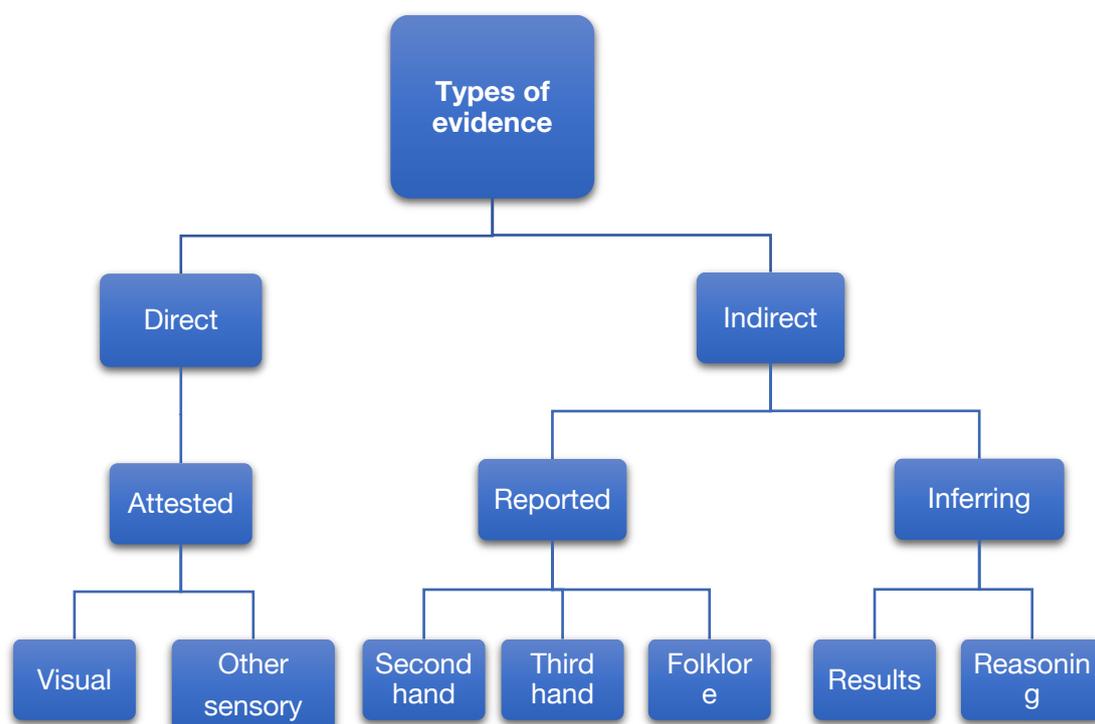
Figure 4.1. Types of evidence (Willet 1988).

Willet's (1998) classification of evidentials was later on improved by Aikhevald (2004: 65), who takes evidentials to fall into six different categories: (i) visual, (ii) non-visual, (iii) inference, (iv) assumption, (v) hearsay and (vi) quotative. Visual evidentials are those that indicate that the information has been acquired through direct observation; non-visual evidentials are those referring to information that has been obtained through any of the other senses (hearing, smelling, tasting and touching). Inference evidentials apply to the information acquired through "visible or tangible evidence, or result" (Aikhenvald 2004: 63). The assumption category applies to evidentials which indicate that the source of knowledge is "evidence other than visible results" (Aikhenvald 2004: 63). Hearsay and quotative evidentials both refer to information that has been reported, the difference between the two

being that the source of information is left unspecified in the case of hearsay evidentials while it is made explicit with quotatives.

Evidentiality is considered to be by many authors as a subdomain of epistemic modality, in which case it is not only supposed to indicate the writer's source of knowledge, but also some sort of evaluation regarding the truth of the propositional content. This is particularly the case of the works by Chafe 1986, Palmer 1986, Kranich 2009 and Torres-Ramírez and Ortega-Barrera 2010, among others. In this vein, Crystal (2008: 176-177) defines evidentiality relating source of information to degrees of certainty towards the truth of the information presented in the following terms:

> [Evidentiality is a] term used in semantics for a type of epistemic modality where propositions are asserted that are open to challenge by the hearer, and thus require justification. Evidential constructions express a speaker's strength of commitment to a proposition in terms of the available evidence (rather than in terms of probability or necessity). They had such nuances of meaning to a given sentence as 'I saw it happen', 'I heard that it happened', 'I have seen evidence that it happen (though I wasn't there)', or 'I have obtained information that it happened from someone else'.

Other scholars hold the position that evidentiality and epistemic modality are two distinct categories, both semantically and functionally speaking. One case in point is Cornillie (2009: 46-47) who contends that "Evidentiality refers to the reasoning processes that lead to a proposition and epistemic modality evaluates the likelihood that the proposition is true". Similarly, de Haan (1999: 4) claims that "Epistemic modality evaluates evidence and on the basis of this evaluation

assigns a confidence measure to the speaker's utterance […] An evidential asserts that there is evidence for the speaker's utterance but refuses to interpret the evidence in any way".

When dealing with epistemic modality and evidentiality, the notion of reliability is frequently brought to the foreground. Plungian (2001: 354) discusses the relationship between the reliability of a piece of information and the way it was acquired, pointing out that "visual information is thought to be more reliable, whereas mediated information is the least reliable". However, this does not always hold as noted by Bermúdez (2005: 20) and, particularly, by Alonso-Almeida (2014), who claims that "cultural implications, professional styles and personal preferences also play a part".

Interpersonal meanings can be definitely conveyed by the use of evidential comments that can include references to the authors' source of knowledge and even specify the degree of reliability of a source or knowledge as it is illustrated below:

(1)   Stephen, aware of this circumſtance, and apprehending that, while he was engaged in the ſiege, his enemies **might** be making a dangerous progreſs under the conduct of the Earl of Glouceſter, whoſe vigour and activity experience had taught him to dread, might juſtly deem it an act of policy to permit the empreſs to join her brother, as his enemies would then be concentrated in one point, againſt which he would be enabled to direct his whole force (hist 1790 Gifford).

(2)   The Athenians had no money, no ships, no soldiers, —one
           might have supposed that their spirits must have sunk
           completely. But they did not (hist 1857 Sewell).

(3)   I ſhall here add a Remarkable Tranſaction, which **muſt** have
           been done about this time (if it were ever done at all) which I
           have ſome reaſon to doubt it was not, becauſe our own
           Hiſtorians are wholy ſilent in it (hist 1704 Tyrrell).

(4)   At this criſis, had general Gage ventured without his
           entrenchments, both the American army and the people, **muſt**
           have been involved in extreme diftrefs (hist 1805 Warren).

The four examples quoted above show cases of complex modal structures with
the modals followed by the progressive in (1) and the perfective in the other three
cases. This is what Boye and Harder (2009) call *evidential substance*. This
structure seems to fit very well in history texts, as it reflects disciplinary tradition.
Historians, lacking some first-hand knowledge, are able to make inferences in the
light of the evidence they have. This cognitive material is still matter of future
criticism in the event new evidence appears. The use of *might* as the *irrealis* of
may (Palmer 2001) may suggest a marked indication of avoidance of imposition
on the authors' part.

Our concern in this thesis is not modal verbs, but adverbs, above all those
showing some sort of evidential meaning. The following excerpts include
examples of the evidential adverb *evidently* in context:

(5)   By a reference to the passage previously quoted from the Four
           Masters, on which this **evidently** rests, it will be seen that the

only foundation for a belief in the existence of this college or Lyceum, is an etymological inference from the name of the house or mur, in which Ollamh Fodhla died, a name which, when translated grammatically, can have no other meaning than the House of Ollamh himself, as the genitive singular form of Ollamh is Ollamhan (hist 1839 Petrie).

(6)   Bancroft is in error when he says it was built "four days' journey below Peoria lake," and **evidently** confounds that lake with the Illinois lake first visited, which I have assumed to be but an expansion of the river near Ottawa. If this conjecture be correct, "four days' journey" below it, as Hennepin's narrative states, would place Crève Cœur at a point below, but near the site of the present flourishing city of Peoria, a spot I should like to visit, so full of interest as it is, and where, for the first time in this magnificent valley, the pennon of France was unfurled to its winds (hist 1884 Breese).

The sense for *evidently* in (5) is precisely "in a way that is easy to see or understand" or even "as evidence shows". The evidence here is in the passage explicitly attributed to the annalist called Four Masters, an important scribe in the compilation of ancient Irish literature. The use of *evidently* here seems to suggest that the author is appealing to some shared knowledge, if only because the excerpt being referred to was shown earlier in the text. The adverbial stands as a clear means for the author to negotiate social interactions by engaging the readership on material with which they have already been acquainted. *Evidently* in (6), on its part, appears to carry an extended evidential meaning in the sense pointed out by Simon-Vandenbergen and Aijmer (2007: 220), that is, "as

knowledge of the world shows". The context is negative insofar as the writer states that the historian Bancroft mistakes Peoria lake for Illinois lake, and so in this excerpt the adverbial is more authority oriented, in which case it is used to build the writer's credibility. This is also reinforced by the explicit presentation of the writer's ego through the use of the first person singular pronoun, which definitely stamps his personal authority onto the text as a commanding figure with respect to their readers.

Obviously will be also looked into in this research. Some examples are included and commented on below:

(7)   It is also stated in these prefaces, as well as in many other very old Irish documents, that the ancient laws of the Irish previously to St. Patrick's time had been called Feinechas; and some of these ancient etymological conjecturers suppose that the one was formed from the other by a Ceannfochras, or change of initials, but such conjectures are of very little value, as the words are **obviously** from different roots (hist 1839 Petrie).

(8)   At every pause of the terrible drama his voice was to be heard loudly proclaiming non-interference. He positively refused to join the Allied Powers at Pilnitz. He was **obviously** and avowedly forced into war at last by the nation, and had no choice (hist 1895 Burrows).

Obviously seems to have developed from a manner adverb to a sentence adverb with an evidential meaning. According to the information retrieved from the *Oxford English Dictionary*, its etymological meaning was that of "lying or standing in the

way; placed in front of or over against". The adverb first meant "by the way, in passing, incidentally" and later on it acquired the meaning of "in a clear perceptible manner". This meaning is attested in 1638, i.e. *obviously writ or painted*. It then developed the meaning of "evidently, plainly or manifestly" approximately from 1668 onwards, i.e. *Other matters more obviously deducible by Argumentation*. The development from manner to sentence adverb has been recognised by Simon-Vandenbergen and Aijmer (2007: 150) as involving a shift in perspective, from a more objective to a more subjective and speaker-oriented kind of evaluation. In this sense, Nuyts (2001) considers the dimension of subjectivity/intersubjectivity as the degree to which the speaker assumes personal responsibility for the evaluation of evidence or whether the assessment is shared by others. In the case of the examples above, the evidential interpretation of *obviously* appears to be attached to the meaning of "obvious to everyone" and so the type of evaluation expressed is more intersubjective rather than subjective because the writer alone cannot be deemed to be responsible for the assessment of the state of affairs. The pragmatic effect pursued by the writer in using *obviously* here is to present the information as accepted and shared, emphasising solidarity and building up membership to a group with common understandings.

4.2.1.5. Code glosses

They show the author's expectations about the reader's knowledge. Moreover, they are used to add additional information by explaining, elaborating or rephrasing the information given so that the readers are able to understand the

meanings intended to be conveyed in a specific text e.g. *in other words, this means, it can be defined as, for instance,* etc.

4.2.2. Interactional metadiscourse

The interactional dimension involves the way in which writers interact with their potential reader and how they comment on the contents. The purpose of writers when using interactional metadiscourse is to show their points of views as well as to make readers part of it, to involve them into the point of view they want to convey. And its scope reaches even further as most writers in academic writing use interactional metadiscourse not only to engage readers, but also to construct the text with the readers. As Hyland (2005: 80) claims "They help control the level of personality in a text as writers acknowledge and connect to others, pulling them along with their argument, focusing their attention, acknowledging their uncertainties and guiding them to interpretations". The interactional metadiscourse devices can be organised into five broad categories which will be commented on below.

4.2.2.1. Stance

The notion of stance is similar to that of metadiscourse in the sense that there are various degrees of conceptual and functional overlap between them and the many other labels that have been used in literature to refer to them and to other related phenomena. Similarly to metadiscourse again, stance stands as a phenomenon which "has not yet been fully explored" (Lorenz, 1999: 5). It is a complex linguistic concept whose function is to signal authorial attitudes. It seems to be pervasive

in language as there seems to be almost nothing that can be said without conveying some sort of attitude, no matter what type. Stubbs (1983: 1) argues that

> Whenever speakers (or writers) say anything, they encode their point of view towards it: whether they think it is a reasonable thing to say, or might be found to be obvious, questionable, tentative, provisional, controversial, contradictory, irrelevant, impolite, or whatever. The expression of such speakers' attitudes is pervasive in all uses of language. All sentences encode such a point of view, […] and the description of the markers for such points of view and their meanings should therefore be a central topic for linguistics.

Much research has been carried out as to the way in which language is used to express opinion and attitude. The concept has been analysed from different perspectives; but there is no scholarly consensus as to the exact extent of its scope. The following shows this lack of conceptual uniformity:

1. Stance relates to the expression of the speakers and writers' "personal feelings, attitudes and value judgements, or assessments" (Biber et al., 1999: 966).

2. Stance "can be seen as an attitudinal dimension and includes features which refer to the ways writers present themselves and convey their judgements, opinions and commitments. It is the way that writers intrude to stamp their personal authority onto their arguments or step back and disguise their involvement (Hyland, 2005: 176).

3. "Stance is generally understood to have to do with the methods, linguistic and other, by which interactants create and signal relationships with the propositions they utter and the people they interact with" (Johnstone, 2009: 30-31).

4. "the writer's identity as well as the writer's expression of attitudes, feelings, or judgements" (Dzung Pho, 2013: 3).

Some relevant works on the analysis of stance include Du Bois (2007) and Hyland and Tse (2005). Du Bois (2007: 163) refers to the "stance triangle" when analysing

stancetaking in dialogic discourse. The author points out that any act of stancetaking comprises three elements, namely (i) evaluation, (ii) positioning and (iii) alignment, which means that whenever we take a stance, we evaluate a certain object, and, at the same time, we position ourselves in an evaluative dimension with respect to that object; and finally, we also align ourselves with others. In other words, the stance triangle proposed by Du Bois emphasises the interational nature of stancetaking as it necessarily involves specifying (i) where the stancetaker and the subject to whom the stancetaking is targeted stand in relation to the object being evaluated, and (ii) where the two subjects stand in relation to each other. In a similar vein, Hyland and Tse (2005) dissect the features involved in evaluative that constructions and they put forward the existence of at least four elements, i.e. the evaluated entity, the evaluative stance, the source of the evaluation and the evaluative expression itself.

All of the definitions above, Du Bois's (2007) stance triangle, and Hyland's and Tse's (2005) proposal have in common that they all identify the evaluative dimension of stance. In general terms, stance can be understood as the way in which speakers appraise people, objects and ideas, and it also covers self-evaluation, as Alonso-Almeida (2015: 1) claims. Evaluation is defined by Hunston and Thompson (2000: 5), as follows:

> evaluation is the broad cover term for the expression of the speaker or writer's attitude or stance towards, viewpoint on, or feelings about the entities or propositions that he or she is talking about. That attitude may relate to certainty or obligation or desirability or any of a number of other

sets of values. When appropriate, we refer specifically to modality as a sub-category of evaluation.

Evaluative language also has to do with the introduction of some linguistics elements, through which the authors may express their opinions, both positive or negative, in relation to the propositional content. There are different linguistic devices which are commonly used to transmit these interpersonal meaning, possibly the most common ones are modal verbs, adjectives and adverbs.

Biber et al. (1999) consider the term stance to be a superordinate, which covers not simply the senses speakers want to convey, but also the propositional content. The term is defined as the expression of "personal feelings, attitudes and value judgements, or assessments", as already mentioned. The linguistic elements which can convey stance are numerous but I shall only focus on adverbs. Biber et al. (1999) make a distinction between three main groups of adverbs: (i) circumstance adverbs, i.e. *here*, *now*; (ii) linking adverbs i.e. *nevertheless*, *moreover*, *additionally*; and (iii) stance adverbs, which are categorised as and defined, thus:

> Epistemic stance adverbials and attitude stance adverbials both comment on the content of a proposition. Epistemic markers express the speaker's judgment about the certainty, reliability, and limitations of the proposition; they can also comment on the source of the information. Attitude stance adverbials convey the speaker's attitude or value judgment about the proposition's content.

Epistemic stance adverbials (Biber et al. 1999: 59-60) can entail a large number of meanings such as:

1. Doubt and certainty, e.g. perhaps, probably.
2. Actuality and reality, e.g. actually, in fact, really.
3. Source of knowledge, e.g. apparently, evidently, according to
4. Limitation, e.g. in most cases, typically, mainly
5. Viewpoint or perspective, e.g. in my opinion, from my perspective.
6. Imprecision, e.g. kind of, roughly.

Those stance adverbs can be used to indicate authors' attitude and certainty towards their propositions. The adverbs object of the analysis carried out here, namely *apparently*, *fairly* and *possibly* fall within this category. The forms *fairly* and *possibly* indicate a low level of authorial commitment to text content by presenting information with doubts and hesitancy. On the other hand, adverbs such as *apparently* can be classified as perceptual evidential adverbs, as they indicate that the evidence the author has for the content he/she expresses has been obtained through the senses.

In this thesis, I shall focus on stance adverbs alone, particularly those ending in *-ly*. The following examples illustrate how they may be used to signal authorial stance in a text:

(9)   WITH all Submiſſion I conceive, that the very uſeing of this Title,
           Baſileus, is an unanſwerable and pointed proof of our
           Independency, and puts the Soveraignty of Our Crown beyond
           all Queſtion, and **clearly** evinces, that even in the days of Our
           Edgar, who by patcht up deeds is repreſented as a cringing
           Homager; Our Crown and Kingdom was Imperial and
           Independent; And further, this Title ſerves to convict all the
           Stories and Charters of ancient Times, concerning the Homage
           for Scotland, of Fable and Forgery, it not being preſumable that

Our Edgar wou'd affume a Title, which did not of right belong to him and his Predeceffors (hist 1705 Anderson).

(10)   Thus also, in the reign of Laoghaire, the same Annals record only one celebration of the Feis Teamhrach, namely, at the year 454; and that this was the only assembly of the kind held in his reign is **clearly** proved from the following entry at the year 461: "Leogaire filius Neill post Ceana (cænam) Teamro, annis vii. et mensibus vii. et diebus vii. vixit." Indeed these records sufficiently indicate that such assemblies were of rare and irregular occurrence (hist 1839 Petrie).

(11)   The words noftra ripa **may probably** fignify the Roman or fouth fide of the river or aeftuary of Tay. who told the whole adventure (hist 1732 Horsley).

(12)   It **may probably** be placed between the years 1151 and 1154, as the charter of Henry, which might, however, it is to be remembered, either precede or follow the foundation, is given as duke of Normandy and count of Anjou (hist 1893 Cooke).

In the first two cases, the adverb *clearly* is working as a booster to strengthen the information conveyed. Moreover, its function is reinforced by the use of the verbs *evinces* in the first case and *proved* in the second case. In contrast, examples (11) and (12) present the modal verb *may* which is complemented by the adverb *probably* working both as hedge there, and whose function is to contribute to mitigate the propositional content. The combination of these two epistemic devices seems to follow from the authors' intention to avoid imposition.

4.2.2.1.1. Hedges

Hedges are linguistic devices which serve to indicate authors' commitment with the propositional content presented. This is a broad concept which has been linked with others such as *mitigation* or *politeness.* Following Hyland's taxonomy, "Hedges therefore imply that a statement is based on the writer's plausible reasoning rather than certain knowledge, indicating the degree of confidence it is prudent to attribute to it."

My analysis of hedges in history texts in the eighteenth and nineteenth century includes a definition of hedges based on existing studies, including Hyland (1994, 1996, 1998), Salager-Meyer (1994), Markkanen and Schröder (eds. 1997), Crompton (1997), Caffi (2007) and Fraser (2010), among others. All these scholars show their own methodology of study and body of data, but, for the purpose of this work, I will follow Hyland's definition (1998: 5), which states that the term hedge can be defined as "the means by which writers can present a proposition as an opinion rather than a fact". For his part, Fraser (2010) highlights that, although there exist different taxonomies related to hedges, there is "general agreement today that hedging is a rhetorical strategy, by which a speaker, using a linguistic device, can signal a lack of commitment to either the full semantic membership of an expression (propositional hedging) [...] or the full commitment to the force of the speech act being conveyed (speech act hedging)" (Fraser 2010: 22).

Salager-Meyer (1994) claims hedges are used for two different purposes:

(i)   the first one: to "present the true state of writers' understand, namely, the stronger

claim a careful researcher can make" (p. 150) what means that writers use hedging devices to express uncertainty because they are really not sure about the information given or cannot demonstrate it, and

(ii) the second one: to "convey (purposive) vagueness and tentativeness, and to make sentences more acceptable to the hearer/reader, thus increasing their chance of ratification and reducing the risk of negation" (p. 150).

Hyland's position (1998) is not really in contradiction with Salager-Meyer's introspection and contextual analysis. In fact, the analysis of context is unavoidable in this study if one really wants to highlight cases of hedging with any degree of confidence (Alonso-Almeida, 2012).

In fact, hedging is a linguistic phenomenon which is understood by linguists in miscellaneous ways. It has been defined in multiple occasions. However, at present there is no scientific consensus on the exact extent/definition of the concept. It can be considered a challenge for pragmatics and discourse analysis. Scholars have analysed it from different perspectives and have reached diverse conclusions that will be examined in this section. Each of them with their definitions and analysis of the phenomenon have broadened and enriched the content of the concept. Some of the most extended definitions of the term are:

1. "words whose job is to make things more or less fuzzy" (Lakoff, 1972: 195).

2. Markkanen and Schröder (1997: 5) consider hedges as "modifiers of the writer's responsibility for the truth value of the propositions expressed or as modifiers of the weightiness of the information given or the attitude of the writer to the information".

3. "A hedge is an item of language which a speaker uses to explicitly qualify his/her lack of commitment to the truth of a proposition he/she utters". (Crompton, 1997: 281).

4. "Those expressions in language which make messages indeterminate, that it, they convey inexactitude, or in one way or another mitigate or reduce the strength of the assertions that speakers or writers make". (Mauranen, 1997: 115).

The concept of hedge was originally used by Lakoff (1972) in his article *Hedges: A Study in Meaning Criteria and the Logic of Fuzzy Concepts*. Fuzziness is one of the few features about hedges in which scholars agree, that is the reason why Lakoff's theories are so frequently used by other scholars as a point of departure to develop new theories or new perspectives into the hedging phenomena.

In the sense proposed by Hyland (1998: 5), we can claim that hedges are linguistic devices and strategies used to express possibility, or a lack of complete commitment to the truth of a specific proposition. This means that hedging is essentially an epistemic phenomenon, as clearly stated by this author (Hyland, 1998: 157), who established the following classification of hedging:
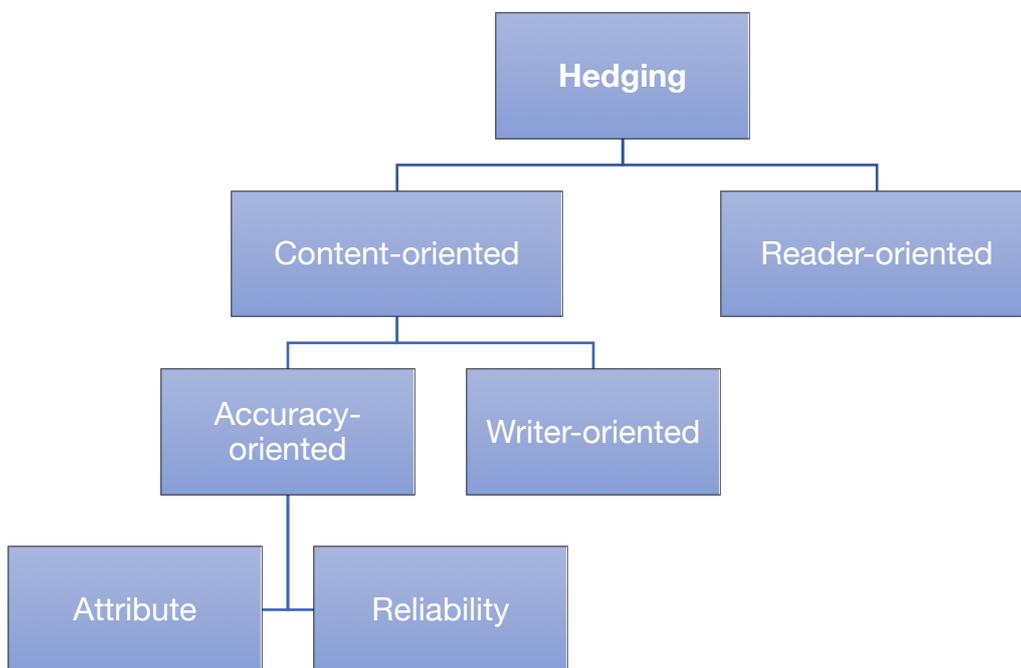
Figure 4.2. Hedging, after Hyland (1998)..

Furthermore, Hyland (1998: 156) consider hedges as (a) polysemeous and (b) polypragmatic. *Polysemy*, as used here, means that hedges have semantically different related meanings and, consequently, it is difficult to establish a prioristic categorical relation between a hedging device and a specific meaning. To complicate matters further, there is often a problem of functional indeterminacy, as hedges may occur simultaneously in a same speech event. This may obscure the identification of the function of those hedging devices framing a given proposition. What follows is an instance of polysemic interpretation of the modal *can*:

> If my opinion of the appearances I have been adverting to is futile, or any arguments can be produced to invalidate it, I am open to conviction; but still then I shall retain it, and think myself excusable in advancing my ideas on the subject, till the physical causes of these appearances **can** be ascertained – all that has hitherto been said of them, like my observation, amounting to no more than mere hypothesis (Bryan 1797: 92-93).

In this example, we can see that the modal verb *can* has a polysemic nature. *Can* is used to indicate dynamic possibility in the sense that it indicates that the physical causes of the appearances are determined by certain given conditions. Actually, the presence of *can* argues for the lack for specific technological media by means of which a particular event can be fully accounted for and explained within the realm of scientific knowledge. Another outstanding interpretative function of *can* is the expression of politeness in the form of a positive politeness strategy. Indeed, it seeks to mitigate *P*= 'the physical causes of these appearances be ascertained', as current information follows from pure

observation rather than another less subjective criterion. In this context, *can* may be also interpreted epistemically because it conveys some degree of uncertainty concerning the truth of *P*.

Hedges are also said to be *polypragmatic* in the sense that any speaker can use hedges to mitigate a proposition seeking to convey an array of pragmatic meanings according to context. One case in point is *may.* This epistemic modal verb functions deontically as in *you may attend the celebration* in which *may* can express permission; or epistemically to communicate possibility or probability, as in *it may snow.*

In the diagram shown above, there are two main types of hedges and some sub-types:

1. Content oriented hedges which serve to "mitigate the relationship between propositional content and a representation of reality; they hedge the correspondence between what the writer says about the world and what the world is thought to be like" (Hyland, 1998:162).

a. Accuracy-oriented hedges are the ones used by authors when they want to be precise about the information they provide the readers with.

b. Writer-oriented hedges are the ones used by an author to protect his public face using passive voice, indirect constructions, avoiding direct references, etc.

2. Reader-oriented hedges show the attention that an author pays to the interactional function of the text that it is being written.

It is interesting to notice that the term hedge has also been defined by some scholars such as Brown and Levinson (1987: 145) as "a particle, word or phrase that modifies the degree of membership of a predicate or a noun phrase in a set; it says of that membership that it is partial or true only in certain respects, or that it is more true and complete than perhaps might be expected". Thus, they are providing to hedges the possibility not just to mitigate the strength of a statement but also to reinforce it.

To refer to that reinforcement other scholars such as Hyland have used the term "booster". Hedges and boosters can be considered opposite concepts because while hedges, such as *might* and *perhaps*, are used to mitigate the strength of commitment to a proposition, boosters, such as *obviously* and *clearly*, are linguistic devices and strategies used to express the author's confidence about a proposition. Moreover, we can claim that their relevance in academic discourse lies in the fact that "they not only carry the writer's degree of confidence in the truth of a proposition, but also an attitude to the audience" (Hyland, 1998).

The main problem in relation to hedges is that it is quite complex to identify what can or cannot be considered as a hedge. In fact, diverse linguistic devices can work as hedges at a determined moment in a specific context, and behave in a pragmatically different way on other occasions. As Darian (1995, cited in Markkanen and Schröder 1997) claims, "hedges can belong to any part of speech". As such, no linguistic item can be considered inherently hedgy but "can acquire this quality depending on the communicative context or the co-text". Apart from context, the speaker's intentions and the background knowledge of

the interlocutors are also relevant in hedging identification and interpretation. However, it is important to distinguish between devices and strategies as these two categories are sometimes confused. Regarding the linguistic devices which can be used as hedges, we can list modal verbs, auxiliary verbs, epistemic adjectives, adverbs and lexical verbs. Whilst, among the strategies we can count the use of the passive voice, impersonal constructions, conditionals, etc.

Different scholars such as Crompton or Salager-Meyer have developed their own theories about the way to identify a hedge. In his essay "Hedging in academic writing: some theoretical problems" Crompton claims that "hedge" is a problematic concept basically due to the difficulty to determine when a word is functioning as a hedge or not and he questions for instance if the word "suggest" should always be considered a hedge or not. To solve the situation, Crompton (1997: 282) proposes the following test in order to identify when a proposition is hedged or not:

> Can the proposition be restated in such a way that it is not changed but that the author's commitment to it is greater than at present? If "yes" then the proposition is hedged. (The **hedges** are any language items in the original which would need to be changed to increase commitment.)

However, Compton's definition and test present some drawbacks and scholars as Salager-Meyer (1998: 299) considers that they do nothing but impoverish the concept; in fact, "the solution put forward by Crompton does not really solve the problem, and the test he proposes in his paper cannot identify hedges as accurately as he claims".

Salager-Meyer considers that there is "no definite formula to identify a hedge" and that the only way to ascertain when a word is functioning as a hedge is the procedure consisting in a contextual analysis carried out by "a person with a deep knowledge of the discipline" which can help to understand the proposition, combined with introspection. She considers that without introspection identifying hedges "would almost be a mere guess". In her words "a hedge is not a physical phenomenon, but a feature shared by all languages inasmuch as they are the product of human relations".

Some of the conceptions of hedge which have been included in this section have an illustrative function of the topic but the position I will follow in this dissertation is the one included in Hyland (1998, 2005), although, as I have previously said, Salager-Meyer's position about this concept is relevant and interesting as well, especially in what has to do with the cognitive nature of hedges and the importance of context in order to identify them correctly.

4.2.2.1.2. Boosters

Boosters, which have been mentioned in the previous category as they can be considered as an opposite concept to the one of hedge, are linguistic features which emphasise the authors' certainty about any propositional content. They are employed to reinforce the illocutionary force of a claim and to show the writer's commitment towards the content they are conveying as well as solidarity with his or her potential audience, e.g. *It is **evidently** a good choice*.

4.2.2.1.3. Attitude Markers

In the case of attitude markers, instead of indicating the authors' attitudes towards the relevance or reliability of their propositions, they are used to denote the writer's affectiveness, which means that the writer also evaluates the information but at a more affective level. There are linguistic elements such as punctuation, text location, comparatives, etc., which can also convey the authors' attitudes towards the information and his potential readers.

4.2.2.1.4. Self-mentions

These are linguistic elements which signal explicitly the writer presence in any text through the occurrence of elements such as first person-pronouns, *I* and *we*, and possessive adjectives (*my*, *mine, our, ours*). This authorial presence, which is consciously chosen, helps authors to show their position in relation to their arguments and the topic they write about, e.g. *In this study **we** present a methodological approach*.

4.2.2.2. Engagement markers

These are elements which address readers and are employed by writers to involve the audience into their texts so as to make them participate in the discourse, negotiating the content or knowledge. Among the devices that can function as engagement markers, we can find asides, directives, personal pronouns and question forms. By the use of these markers, authors can strengthen or soften the presence of their potential readers in their texts, e.g. (1) ***you may notice*** *there exist some differences;* (2) ***we must*** *remember to include*.

4.2.2.2.1. Reader pronouns

Reader pronouns serve, on the one hand, to indicate authority since the author addresses the potential readers from an advantageous position and, on the other hand, to indicate collegiality as some kind of debate or dialogue in relation to the negotiation of knowledge is established. This type of negotiation or interaction is used by writers as a face threatening strategy predicting readers' claims or objections to the arguments presented. Therefore, the use of, for instance, the inclusive *we,* aids readers to follow the arguments and interpret them as the writers' desire, e.g. *with the theoretical explanation included in this study, we should be able to identify the main linguistic difficulty and provide a coherent answer to it.*

4.2.2.2.2. Directives

They serve to indicate readers how to interpret facts in the way the writer wants and also provide guidance about how to perform actions. Imperatives (e.g. *think about this option*), modal verbs (e.g. *it must be done in the following…*) and adjectives expressing judgement (e.g. *it is essential to be capable of identifying…*) are the basic linguistic devices functioning as directives. The use of directives depends on the field of study, in the case of scientific language, they are commonly included in the texts for instance when the author is instructing readers how to carry out a process in sciences and engineering texts. Specifically, in history texts, those elements are not so common since it is not an experimental science, the information is sometimes conveyed as facts rather than presenting it as a possibility or an experiment, and therefore the arguments are sometimes

presented in a succinct format.

The use of directives to establish or guide reader's interpretation of the facts is obviously more threatening for the author's face since, by using these linguistic elements, he or she is reinforcing his or her position regarding the propositional content, e.g. (1) *It is essential to note that in this field of study statistics are a must,* (2) *Let us consider that without this invention, the social and cultural evolution that the region experimented would have never took place.*

4.2.2.2.3. Questions

It is a basic element in any communicative interaction. For any writer, the use of questions functions as a tool to engage and involve readers. It is a way to make readers participants as there exists some kind of interaction between writer and readers. Moreover, they serve to potentiate the readers' interest and it provides them with the sense of being part of the construction of knowledge which is carried out in the text. Although most questions in the scientic register are rhetorical in the sense that the writer is in fact not expecting any response, the use of these questions can be regarded as a way to present an opinion in a more face-saving manner, e.g. *Was it, in fact, impossible to predict the final result? Evidently it was not.*

However, we cannot generalise by affirming that this metadiscursive resource is used in the scientific register, i.e. hard sciences, in fact, Hyland (2005: 153-154) claims the contrary according to his research results:

Questions were largely confined to the soft fields. The fact that they reach out to readers was seen as a distraction by my science informants:

Questions are quite rare in my field I think. You might find them in textbooks I suppose, but generally we don't use them. They seem rather intrusive, don't they? Too personal. We generally prefer not to be too intrusive.

(Mechanical Engineering interview)

I am looking for the results in a paper, and to see if the method was sound. I am looking for relevance and that kind of dressing is irrelevant. People don't ask questions as it would be seen as irrelevant. And condescending probably.

(Electronic Engineering interview)

In contrast, during his interviews, he found out that for what he called *the soft-knowledge writers* questions were an essential manner of relating to readers (Hyland 2005: 154):

In my field that's all there are, questions. Putting the main issues in the form of questions is a way of presenting my argument clearly and showing them I am on the same wavelength as them.

(Philosophy interview)

Often I structure the argument by putting the problems that they might ask.

(Marketing interview)

4.2.2.2.4. Shared knowledge

It is used by writers when they consider that the contents they are presenting are

already known by the audience. Shared knowledge as a metadiscursive feature draws attention to the concept of discourse community in the sense put forward by Barton (1994: 57), that is, "a group of people who have texts and practices in common". E.g. *as you know, these features are commonly used in this register.*

4.2.2.2.5. Personal asides

Personal asides are comments done by the authors which interrupt the discourse and they serve to establish a closer relation with readers as the writer is providing an explanation or giving an opinion about the information conveyed. They are showing that knowledge is being built by the author with the involvement of the readers which have the perception of being participants instead of passive readers. This possibly has to do with the fact that the potential readers of scientific writing are mostly colleagues, e.g. *The results have been rather positive, what I believe is due to the new methodology which has been implemented during this year.* Sometimes they appear in apposition, although their use is not so frequent as the one of the metadiscourse devices explained previously.

4.3. Conclusion

In this chapter, I have offered an overview of what is understood as *metadiscourse* as formulated in Hyland (2005). I have described the different dimensions of metadiscourse, i.e. interactive and interactional, and the devices which are comprised in these two dimensions. The use of these elements implies a different pragmatic meaning and thus a different propositional attitude. For this dissertation, there are metadiscursive devices more relevant than others, and

therefore the extension of the diverse sections presented in the chapter varies greatly, being the ones of evidentiality, stance and hedging the ones in which a deeper analysis has been made.

The frequent use of these metadiscursive elements comes to reinforce the idea that interaction in written texts from the scientific register is essential so that the readers get engaged in the propositional content; they can even re-interpret it as writers use some of these linguistic devices to negotiate meaning and knowledge construction depending on the choices of metadiscursive devices displayed in the texts. Metadiscourse is the way in which authors can express their attitudes, that is, commitment or lack of it, certainty or uncertainty, collegiality, and so on, towards the information they convey.

I have revised some concepts related to that of *metadiscourse* such as (i) evidentiality, indicating the line that will be followed in this study, in which it is considered as functionally different from epistemic modality; and (ii) evaluation, a concept which is intimately related to metadiscourse and stance. In relation to stance specifically, I will follow Biber et al.'s (1999) classification of adverbs to analyse the evidential adverbs included in the historical texts of our corpus.

To summarise, the diverse metadiscursive features listed and described along this chapter are relevant in scientific writing as they signal interaction between writer-reader by providing evaluation of the propositional contents and alignment with the audience. Moreover, they also serve to create meaning and hence to clarify any specific context to facilitate the readers' interpretation of the information conveyed.

5. –*ly* adverbs in CHET

5.1. Introduction

In this chapter, I offer an analysis and interpretation of -*ly* adverbs in CHET. In this analysis, I have classified my findings according to a functional perspective, as described in Downing (2015) and outlined in Chapter 3, above. Interpretation of results is performed under the framework of metadiscourse in the line of Hyland (1998 and 2005; cf. Chapter 4, this volume). Conclusions will report on the quantitative and qualitative evidence drawn from my study of -*ly* adverbs.

5.2. Corpus inquiry and examples

My analysis of the texts has been done electronically by means of the *Coruña Corpus Tools*. I interrogate the corpus using the string *ly|ly* to obtain cases of adverbs ending in -*ly*, e.g. *amicably, beautifully, chiefly, impressively, legally, recently, sagaciously, unintentionally*. The examples retrieved from the corpus are organised according to the five broad adverbial groups *circumstantial, stance, degree, focusing*, and *connective* (after Downing 2015 explained in the Methodology sections of the present dissertation, Chapters 2, 3 and 4). In those cases where there is either graphemic or spelling variation, examples are conflated and counted together, as this variation has not proven distinctive from a semantic standpoint. Statistics are given in the form of raw material and percentages, as the present study does not seek to compare results from a

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gender or genre perspective for the time being, and so is left for future research.

5.3. Results

The analysis of the corpus reveals 4237 cases of *-ly* adverbs, which I have grouped into Downing's big five adverb categories, as given in Table 5.1:

circumstantial	stance	degree	focusing	connective
1727	991	617	764	138

Table 5.1. Distribution o f-ly adverb categories in CHET; raw numbers.

Figure 5.1 shows the frequency of these adverbs in percentages:
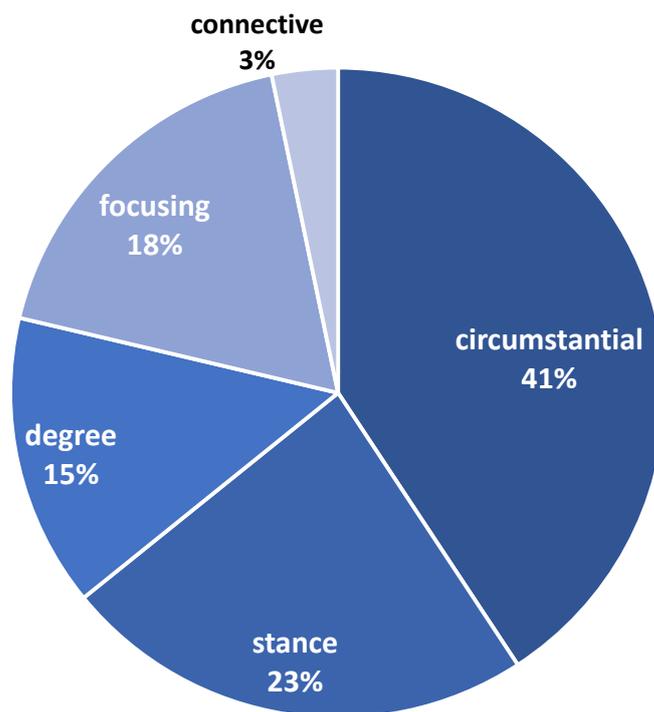
Figure 5.1. Frequency of -ly adverbs in CHET.

As seen in Figure 5.1, circumstantial adverbs are the commonest ones in the

corpus. Stance adverbs are second in frequency and these are followed by focusing and degree adverbs. The least frequent adverbs belong to the group of connective adverbs. Within each group, adverbs are distributed in the following adverb subcategories, as in Table 5.2:

	Circumstantial									
	Space			Time					Manner	Domain
	Position	Direction	Distance	Moment	Frequency	Duration	Relation	Sequence		
R	0	0	0	430	210	55	0	120	888	24
P1	0	0	0	24,90	12,16	3,18	0	6,95	51,42	1,39
P2	0	0	0	10,15	4,96	1,30	0	2,83	20,96	0,57

	Stance					
	Certainty/doubt	Evidential	Viewpoint	Emphasis	Judgement	Attitude
R	224	162	43	88	247	227
P1	22,90	16,56	4,40	9,00	25,26	23,21
P2	5,29	3,82	1,01	2,08	5,83	5,36

	Degree					
	Comparison	Intensification	Attenuation	Approximation	Sufficiency	Excess
R	14	555	5	8	34	1
P1	2,27	89,95	0,81	1,30	5,51	0,16
P2	0,33	13,10	0,12	0,19	0,80	0,02

	Focusing	
	Restriction	Reinforcement
R	1528	0
P1	98,33	0
P2	18,03	0

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	Connective										
	Sequence	Reinforcement	Conclusion	Restating	Reason	Condition	Clarification	Contrast	Alternation	Concession	Attention-seeking
R	8	0	96	25	9	0	0	0	0	0	0
P1	5,80	0	69,57	18,12	6,52	0	0	0	0	0	0
P2	0,19	0	2,27	0,59	0,21	0	0	0	0	0	0

Table 5.2. Distribution and frequency of adverb subcategories.
R=raw numbers; P1= percentage per category; P2= -ly adverb overall percentage.

5.4. Description of adverb categories in *CHET*

In this section, I offer a categorisation and description of those adverbs ending in *-ly* in CHET following the order in Table 5.2, above.

5.4.1. Circumstantial

Circumstantial adverbs comprise those forms expressing space, time, manner and domain. In other words, this group includes those adverbs indicating information concerning *where*, *when* and *how*. This group is characterised by its semantic heterogeneity, as pointed out in Aarts (2018: 44), and so it includes examples as varied as the following: *rarely, wonderfully* and *yearly*. CHET exhibits instances of all this category, although forms are other than *-ly*. For this reason, the subcategory of *space* indicating *position, direction* and *distance* is not included in the present inventory of forms and discussion, as the analysis of data has not retrieved any single case showing *-ly*. The distribution of circumstantial adverbs is given in Figure 5.2., below:
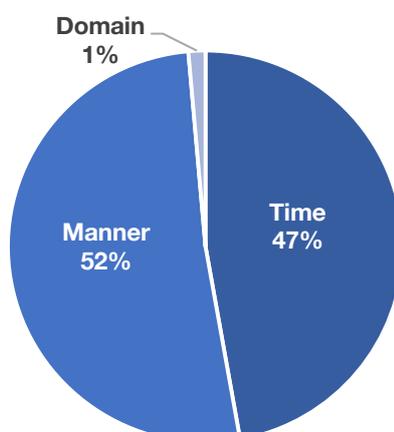
Figure 5.2. Frequency of circumstantial -ly adverbs in CHET.

As shown in Figure 5.2, the most common circumstantial adverbs groups are manner and time, in this order. Domain is not a very productive field in history texts, and cases amount to 24 in CHET.

5.4.1.1. Time

The distribution of *-ly* forms showing time is given in the following figure:
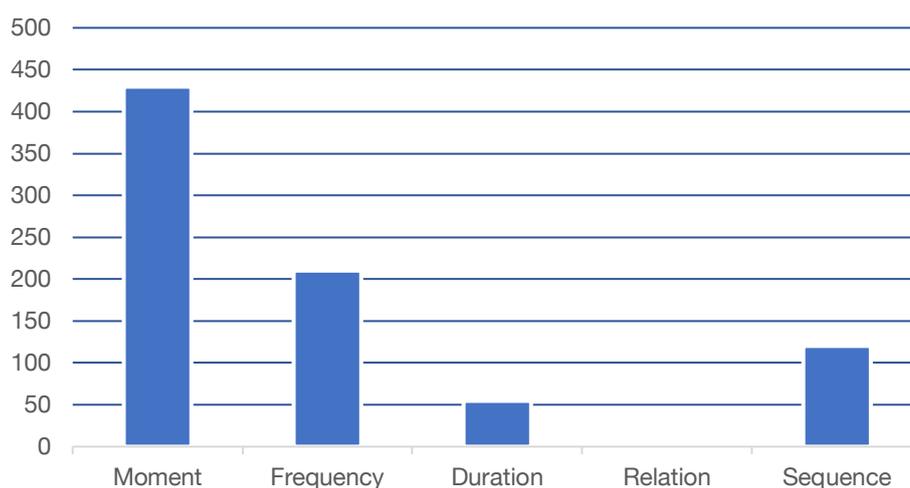
Figure 5.3. Distribution of time adverbs.

As it is evident in Figure 5.2, the most common *-ly* circumstantial time adverbs are moment and frequency. These are followed by sequence and duration adverbs in the rank, and, finally, there has only identified one case of relation adverb. The nature of the topic, i.e. history, justifies this, as the predominant text-types in the genres included in CHET are narrative and descriptive, and so elements showing chronological and sequential information are to be expected.

5.4.1.2.1. Moment

Moment adverbs represent ca. 10% of the cases, and involves forms addressing a point in time, such as the following: anciently, early, formerly, immediate(e)ly, latterly, newly, originally, presently, previouſly, promptly, recently, feafonably, fucceffively, and suddenly. The following is an example of anciently:

(X)   The map having been prepared, Captain Bordes, Mr Larcom, and myself proceeded to the hill of Tara, where we called in the co-operation of Mr O'Donovan, then employed on the Survey in the district, that we might have the advantage of his assistance in our endeavour to ascertain how far the various monuments still remaining could be identified with those **anciently** described (hist 1839 Petrie).

In this instance, *anciently* is used in an account of research conducted to verify the uniqueness of the monuments studied. This time expression is used to modify the participle form *described* it precedes. From a pragmatic perspective, the use of *anciently* comes to make clear that the information owned come from a remote past, and so it may be subject to error. From a metadiscourse perspective, the use of this adverb might have a hedging function, as it somehow softens the

strength of the action depicted. This hedging effect helps to reinforce this mitigating tone exhibited in the argumentation process followed in this instance. This is clearly marked by the epistemic modals *might* and *could* given earlier in the text.

One of the most productive time adverbs in CHET is *immediately*. This form normally appears preceding the lexical verb to indicate temporal closeness between the two actions described, as in the following examples. In (1), the use of **immediately** is a direct consequence of the action pictured in the preceding lines. The deontic force of the modal verb *should* makes almost inevitably the use of *immediately* to indicate this sense of urgency. A similar deontic force appears to motivate the presence of *immediately* in (2). This sense of obligation to fulfil an action, i.e. *surrender*, in return of another, i.e. *were offered their liberty*, follows straight from the conditionality manifested.

(1)   They agreed that the ſpeaker ſhould communicate the circumſtance to a few members who might be confidentially entruſted: the reſult was, that committees were **immediately** ſent by the aſſembly to many towns in the province, in a cautious, guarded manner, to require the ſtocks of powder on hand in their ſeveral magazines (hist 1805 Warren).

(2)   The others being conducted into the king's preſence, were offered their liberty, on condition that they would **immediately** ſurrender all the fortreſſes in their poſſeſſion (hist 1790 Gifford).

Another common use of *immediately* is as a modifier of prepositions and adverbs, and, even if the temporal meaning of *immediately* cannot be denied, there is,

moreover, an intensifying function, as evinced in the following concordances:

(3)   end of london-bridge that many were ſtifled to death and **<immediately after>** their arrival the young princeſs was crown'd queen at weſtminſter (hist 1704 Tyrrell).

(4)   this he was called home to be made conſul and **<immediately after>** his conſulſhip he was ſent over legate to britain so (hist 1732 Horsley).

(5)   according to the latter he was made legate of britain **<immediately after>** his conſulſhip this teſtimony of the hiſtorian is ſo particular (hist 1732 Horsley).

(6)   that the irish committed to writing in their native language **<immediately after>** the introduction of christianity not only the laws bardic historical (hist 1839 Petrie).

(7)   of an inflammatory sermon preached by a minister named kearns **<immediately after>** the queen's death he deemed it his duty to call (hist 1875 Killen).

(8)   froude says english in ireland **<immediately after>** the revolution there was much unoccupied land in the country (hist 1875 Killen).

The following are also examples of time adverbs in CHET:

(9)   They ſet fire to the churches and monaſteries; and even whole villages and towns, that had been **previouſly** ſtripped of their inhabitants, were reduced to aſhes (hist 1790 Gifford).

(10)   This prelate, about the same time, founded, in honour of St]. Anne, a chapel and chauntry in this church, in which another had been **previously** dedicated to the Blessed Virgin. About

the year 1430, an interesting inquiry was held here before this Prelate, after an appeal to Rome, relative to the tithes, and right of fishing in the Boyne; the adverse claimants were the Prior of Lanthony, for his vicars of St. Peter's as well as of Colpe and Mornington, and the Prior of Louth, for his vicars of Termonfeckin and Kil-clogher (hist 1844 D'Alton).

(11)   Being ſuſpecťed of an intention of reſtoring Arianiſm, he was **fuddenly** attacked and aſſaſſinated in his palace, and his mangled body was expoſed to the inſults of the populace (hist 1810 Bigland).

(12)   The toleration, that, in respect to the private opinions of King William, permitted three Roman Catholics to remain at the Aldermanic Board here during the whole of his reign, was, on the accession of Queen Anne, **instantaneously** controlled, and in 1702, the before mentioned Ts. Cox, vicar, and Wm. Meyer, curate of this church, having certified that Thomas Peppard Fitz-George, Christopher Peppard Fitz-George, and Anthony Bird of this town, merchants, had not received here the sacrament of the Lord's supper, according to the custom of the Church of Ireland, for the last seven years, and Henry Meade, Mayor, having certified that the said individuals had refused to take the oaths or sign the declaration usually tendered to all freemen of the corporation, they were thereupon expelled from said body (hist 1844 D'Alton).

(13)   Bagdad had **recently** conſtrucťed on the Banks of the Tigris. The model was inſtantly copied and ſurpaſſed (hist 1788 Gibbon).

As in the examples, the time adverbs *previously*, *suddenly, instantaneously* and

recently in CHET are often placed in premodifying position, i.e. mid position, preceding the verb, all of them in the past. In this sense, there is a marked correlation between tense –i.e. past *stripped, had been dedicated, was controlled, was attacked*– and the semantics of the adverb.

It has been found that circumstantial moment adverbs do not appear to modify adjectives.

5.4.1.2.2. Frequency

Circumstantial time adverbs of frequency report on how often a particular event takes, took or has taken place. Some instances of these adverbs are: *annually, assiduously, constantly, continually, customarily, frequently, generally, irregularly, occasionally, periodically, rarely, regularly, repeatedly, sparingly* and *usually*, among others. One characteristic of frequency adverbs in the corpus is that they are generally given in pre-verbal position, as can be seen in the following examples with *assiduously*, *regularly* and *occasionally*:

(14)   Attached to literature, he **assiduously** devoted every leisure
          moment to its alluring and gratifying pursuits; and even till
          within the two last days of his life devoted some hours each
          day to reading (hist 1814 Britton).

(15)   Bad as the ſituation of the owners of the caſtle during their
          captivity appeared to be, it muſt be confeſſed it was in many
          reſpecᵗs far better than that of the town's people. The caſtle,
          being head-quarters, was **regularly** ſupplied with proviſions,
          drawn from the plunder of the country; and the preſence of the

French officers, added to the large family always refident in it, left little room for intruders from the rebel army (hist 1800 Stock).

(16)   Hiftorians have recorded the fpeech to his glory; but it is eafy to affect an oftentatious difplay of generous compaffion which cofts nothing but words, or it might be the expreffion of temporary feeling which every warrior muft **occafionally** experience (hist 1810 Bigland).

Although rare, frequent adverbs are also used to modify adjectives, as in the example, below:

(17)   IN confequence of fome obfervations by the lord chancellor, the whole political conduct of the deceafed earl came under review, and was by fome ftrenuoufly cenfured, as the fource of all the fubfequent difafters of the country; by fome partially defended, as founded on integrity, profecuted with vigour, but **occafionally** deficient in confiftency and wifdom; by others it was extolled in all its parts, as the prodigious effort of a fuperior genius, who had forced his way at a critical emergency, raifed the fpirits of a defponding nation, given energy to vacillating counfels, and raifed the country to unrivalled glory (hist 1802 Adolphus).

5.4.1.2.3. Duration

Adverbs of duration inform about for how long a particular event is being through. The forms *briefly*, *eternally*, *independently*, *infinitely*, *perpetually*, *quickly*, *shortly*, *succinctly*, *unremittingly* and *yearly* are instances of adverbs of duration in CHET.

They typically appear in mid position preceding the lexical verb, as in the following examples:

(18)   The Generalife was a part of the town famous for its gardens, and as being the burial-place of the kings. The partisans of the two monarchs were **perpetually** skirmishing with each other, and much of the best blood in Grenada was shed in these unnatural combats, while the troops of Castile were ravaging the country up to the very gates (hist 1828 Callcott).

(19)   From dread of exaſperating the facťious, he ſtopt them on their way; and when allowed, with privacy, to proceed to Paris, he **quickly** diſmiſſed them, with ſome verbal and ambiguous aſſurances of his friendſhip for the States (hist 1775 Anderson).

(20)   Though the subject is of great interest, it would be too great a digression from the purpose of this memoir to illustrate the belief in the magical powers attributed in this hymn to women, smiths, and Druids; but it may be **shortly** stated, that there is abundant evidence of the continuance of such superstitious credulity, not only in the Irish accounts of succeeding ages, but also in the popular belief of the people in several parts of Ireland, to the present time (hist 1839 Petrie).

The semantics of the adverbs in (19) and (20), namely *quickly* and *shortly*, involves the use of simple past tense and they imply brief and controlled duration, as opposed to the semantics of *perpetually* in (18). In this last example, the adverb is paired with the progressive tense, i.e. *were skirmishing*.

5.4.1.2.4. Sequence

Sequence adverbs are used to indicate order or arrangement, either chronologically or of any other sort. Some examples from the corpus are *secondly*, *finally*, *lately*, *primarily*, *respectively*, *secondly*, *subsequently*, *thirdly* and ultimately. In (21), below, there is an example of *secondly* and *thirdly*:

(21)   In token of the high importance attached by the Germans to this connection, it became an established custom that every German emperor should on his accession receive a triple coronation —first, asking of Germany; **secondly**, as emperor of the West; and **thirdly**, as king of Rome. Until the year 1508, no king of Germany ventured even to assume the title of emperor until he had been formally crowned by the pope (hist 1855 Masson).

In this instance, sequencing is signalled by the use of the *-ly* adverbs, *secondly* and *thirdly*, in combination with *first*, rather than its variant *firstly*. The order in this case makes explicit the number of titles a German emperor had in the medieval period. The information given in the last lines of (21) contradicts, however, a hypothetical chronological order of the three titles, as it states that, during the medieval period up to the early nineteenth century, a German Emperor had to be first crowned as Holy Roman Emperor (Loud and Schenk, 2017). This seemingly contradiction seems to seek a more rhetorical effect, if anything else. The presence of these listing markers owns a further textual function, as it helps to organize the text.

5.4.1.3. Manner

According to Biber et al. (1999: 553), adverbs of manner "express information about how an action is performed. Many –though not all– manner adverbs have -ly suffixes, taking their meanings from the adjectives from which they are derived." CHET offers a good representation of adverbs of manner deriving from adjectives: *accurately, anonymously, arbitrarily, beastly, bravely, calmly, carefully, carelessly, cheerfully, completely, confidently, contemptuously, earnestly, easily, indifferently, insensibly, loudly, naturally, powerfully, privately, publicly, seriously* and *vigorously*, among others. Examples are offered below:

(22)   It was deſtitute of original genius; they **implicitly** tranſcribe the rules and maxims which had been confirmed (hist 1788 Gibbon).

(23)   These men might be —as they often were— coarse and ill-educated; they might be foul-mouthed and drunken; and they might seldom exhibit anything of the true spirit of the Gospel; but they took an interest in the concerns of their adherents; counselled them **individually** when in difficulties; addressed them in their own tongue; heard their confessions; and dispensed the last rites at death (hist 1875 Killen).

(24)   Both Dr. Hayes and Professor Chapman are of opinion, that, no matter how **intimately** the particles of the powdered ore may be mixed together, it is not possible, in the case of such rich ores, to get two assay portions of exactly similar composition by victories (hist 1872 Gray).

(25)   Several veffels had been **privately** ſent both to the Dutch and Engliſh iſlands to procure arms and ammunition; but ſo narrowly

were they watched by the Britiſh cruiſers, that they had returned

with little ſucceſs (hist 1805 Warren).

(26)   Also, the archbishop of Glasgow, having presented himself

without the embroidered robes prepared for his use, which he

scrupled to wear, was **publicly** removed from the side of the

king of Scotland, by his favorite English bishop, with an insolent

and indecorous violence (hist 1833 Aikin).

Manner adverbs, as those in (22) to (2), are often compared with modal adverbs, but a more thorough analysis resolves that, while modal or stance adverbs, e.g. *probably,* has a propositional scope, including aspect and tense features, manner adverbs are analysed as event predicates (Katz, 2008: 221). In this context, the manner adverbs in the examples above, namely *implicitly, individually, intimately, privately* and *publicly*, affect the events described, as shown in the following diagrammatic representations:

a.   [V-present [**implicitly** [tranſcribe the rules]]]
b.   [V-past [[counsel them] **individually**]]
c.   [V-present [**intimately** [mix together]]]
d.   [V-past [**privately** [send to the Dutch]]]
e.   [V-past [**publicly** [remove the embroidered robes]]]

The nature of these adverbs is not homogeneous, and so they may have different pragmatic interpretations. These might refer to a more impressionistic view of how facts have been done, e.g. *implicitly*, and to a more descriptive report of facts, e.g. *individually, intimately, privately* and *publicly*. These adverb forms are useful to the extent they provide more accurate information of state of affairs. This is fundamental in scientific writing, in general, and, consequently in history texts, as

the main objective of this type of writing is to offer detailed technical evidence of the research conducted.

5.4.1.4. Domain

Domain adverbs "provide the relevant frame within which to evaluate the truth (or appropriateness) of a given speech act" (Cinque, 1999: 175). This means some sort of restriction concerning the interpretation of the predicate which the domain adverb accompanies, as put forward in (Haumann, 2007: 164). From here, it follows that the proposition *A considerable number of the members of the Synod of Ulster now dissociated* in example (27), below, is true only in the domain of what pertains to the church (cf. *OED* ecclesiastic A. *adj.* 1a). From a metadiscourse perspective, the hedging function is evident, as the use of this restriction protects the writer's public face from future critical reaction.

(27)   A considerable number of the members of the Synod of Ulster sympathized with the non-subscribers; and, though now **ecclesiastically** dissociated, still continued with them an exchange of pulpit services (hist 1875 Killen).

The case of the adverb *grammatically* in example (28), below, also indicates domain, but it is, however, different with respect to *ecclesiastical* in (27). The adverb *grammatically* indicates field of procedure and makes explicit the approach in which the event has been done, i.e. [V-present [[translate] **grammatically**]] in (b). This type of adverbs is known as *means-domain adverbs*; they "characterize the domain-bound means by which an action is accomplished" (Haumann, 2007: 133).

(28)   By a reference to the passage previously quoted from the Four Masters, on which this evidently rests, it will be seen that the only foundation for a belief in the existence of this college or Lyceum, is an etymological inference from the name of the house or mur, in which Ollamh Fodhla died, a name which, when translated **grammatically**, can have no other meaning than the House of Ollamh himself, as the genitive singular form of *Ollamh* is *Ollamhan* and it is thus understood by Keating, who has not a word about the college of the *Ollamhs*, or Professors, but simply states that Ollamh Fodhla died in his own house (hist 1839 Petrie).

5.4.2. Stance

Stance adverbs are second in frequency in the texts collected in CHET after circumstantial adverbs. The subgroups of stance adverbs in this corpus are certainty/doubt, evidential, viewpoint, emphasis, judgement and attitude. These present the distribution given in Figure 5.4:
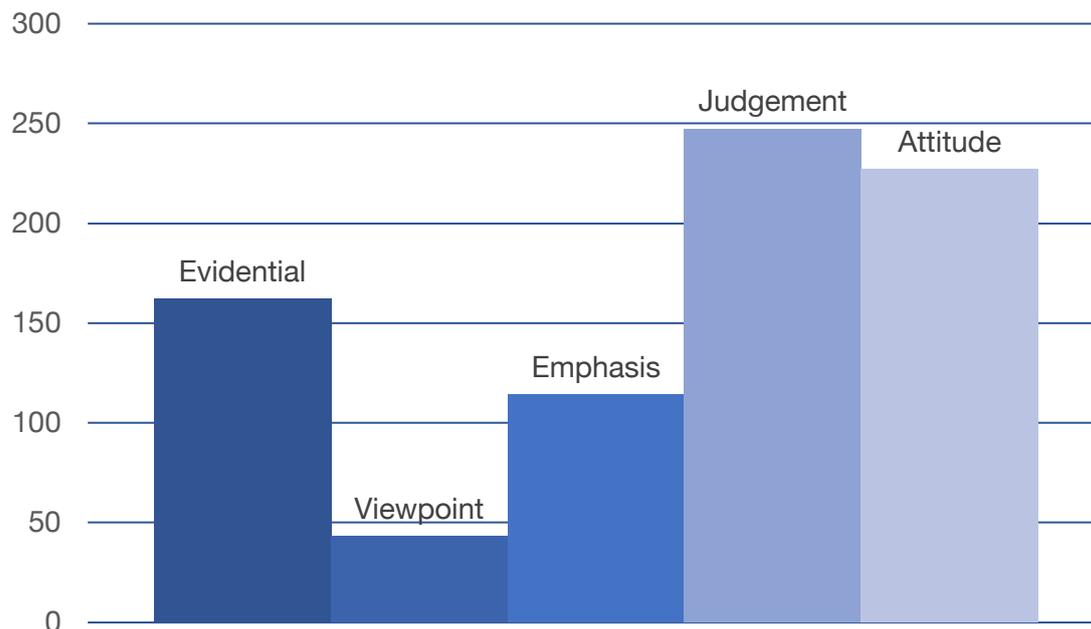
Figure 5.4. Occurrences of -ly stance adverbs in CHET.

5.4.2.1. Certainty, doubt

Adverbs of certainty and doubt in the corpus are *conjecturally*, *doubtfully*, *improbably*, *possibly*, *probably* and *undoubtedly*, for example. These examples are related to the author's position concerning the truth of a particular proposition. For this reason, the adverbs are clearly a modifier of the complete proposition and not the event alone, as in (29), below:

(29)   The treatise then goes on to explain **conjecturally** the
         etymological meanings of the word *Senchus* and afterwards
         the technical law terms used in the work (hist 1839 Petrie).

In this example, the form *conjecturally* refers to declared vagueness towards the proposition manifested, i.e. *explain the etymological* meanings, and so it has a scope over the proposition. The use of this adverb seeks to make manifest the

author's lack of commitment towards his texts, and so the meaning of the adverb is clearly epistemic. From a metadiscourse perspective, this adverb fulfils a hedging function to mitigate the illocutionary force of the proposition (P). In a similar vein, *probably* is epistemic in the following instances in the sense that it communicates the chances of P to be true (Cornillie 2009):

(30)   So that I think **probably** *John* the Son of *Reginald de Crawfurd*, who had Lands contiguous to the Barony of *Crawfurd*, mentioned from the Chartulary of *Newbottle*, was a Son of the Firſt Sir *Reginald Crawfurd* of Loudoun (hist 1710 Crawfurd).

(31)   They then moved for a *Ceſſation of Arms* but our Commiſſioners, having no power, replied, that if they went to *Boſton* it might **probably** be granted (hist 1726 Penhallow).

Much as the adverb *probably*, the mitigating function of *possibly* is semantically defined, as it always suggests a likely situation that may actualise or not, but one the speaker is blatantly not confirming. In my corpus, I have found ten occurrences in texts from the eighteenth century and twelve in texts from the nineteenth century, being thus evenly represented in each century. In relation to its position in the sentences, in the examples presented, the adverb is always used after a modal verb, e.g. *could, may, might*, thus preceding the main lexical verb, as shown in the following excerpts:

(32)   The middle syllable is, as I understand it, the sign of the genitive in the Highland tongue, and gall signifies a stranger; so that the word imports the fort of strangers. Or if Gall be supposed the first syllable of Galgacus, then 'tis Galgacus's fort. I only farther

add, that [Mr]. Gordon in his account of his Galgacan camp takes no notice, I think, of a stone that is in the middle of it, a tumulus nigh it, and a military way that goes from it; and in computing its contents, omits the legions, and the four alae, that were kept as a reserve: for the auxiliaries alone were eight thousand, and the horse on the wings were three thousand. But the legions might **possibly** have been at Ardoch, or Innerpeffery, before they marched to the battle (hist 1732 Horsley).

(33)   But as it does not appear that any wise or good end could be answered by this dream, as his wife was dead before he could **possibly** come to her assistance, ought it not to be ascribed to those fancies of the brain of which no rational account has been yet given (hist 1780 Cornish).

(34)   The demand of the prince was now formally enforced by ambassadors deputed for that purpose; but the king peremptorily refusing to comply with it, David again entered Northumberland, at the beginning of the year 1138; when his troops committed the most destructive ravages, reducing whole towns to ashes, and putting the defenceless inhabitants to the sword, without the smallest discrimination either of age or sex. These abominable acts of cruelty are chiefly attributed by the Scottish historians to the men of Galloway; whom they represent as a ferocious, undisciplined band, that no endeavours of their sovereign could **possibly** restrain within the smallest degree of subordination (hist 1790 Gifford).

(35)   letters were certainly known in Ireland, at least to some persons, in the beginning of the fourth century, and might

possibly have been known nearly a century earlier, a period which would extend to Cormac's time. —See Ussher's Primordia, [pp]. 206 and 211, and *Rerum Hibernicarum Scriptores*; *Prolegomena*, [p]. lxxxiii (hist 1839 Petrie).

(36)   The soldiers left the assembly to follow the advice of Xenophon.Every thing that could **possibly** be spared was set on fire, and soon after the ten thousand Greeks proceeded on their retreat (hist 1857 Sewell).

(37)   Helyot also falls into this error. (Endnote) there being nine abbeys of the order besides Cîteaux then in existence. These with Cîteaux herself may **possibly** make up the ten mentioned, says Manriquez, in the collection of "diffinitiones" of 1134. This was the assembly which sent forth the celebrated "Charta Charitatis," the "Great Charter" of the Cistercian order, in which its own constitution, as well as that of the entire system of which it formed a part, is declared (hist 1893 Cooke).

The scalar nature of the adverb *possibly* suits beautifully the purposes of the epistemic modal meanings in all cases. The authors combine this form with *may, might* and *could* to indicate different levels of likeliness of the events to be true. This combination of the modal and *possibly* may mean either that the author lacks the necessary evidence for the conclusion presented, or it may be a negative politeness strategy to avoid imposition. The use of this adverb suggests the authors' need to protect their public image rather than a real evaluation of the state of affairs. That is, even if they rely on solid ground to assert a particular conclusion, *possibly* adds an extra rhetorical effect to enhance the epistemic meaning as realized by the accompanying modals. Their objective, it seems, is to

avoid future harsh criticism, and so *possibly* is also classified as a hedge (Hyland 2005).

5.4.2.2. Evidential

Evidential *-ly* adverbs in the corpus communicate information source to make a particular claim. Instances are *actually, apparently, avowedly, clearly, evidently, manifestly, obviously, plainly, verily* and *visibly*, among others. Starting off with the adverb *actually* in this corpus, it is mainly used in pre-verbal position. The meaning associated to this form in dictionaries is related to the truth or factuality of a situation (e.g. OED actually, *adv*. 1. In action; in fact, in reality, really. Opposed to possibly, potentially, theoretically). Its evidential meaning follows from the sense of factuality one can only make manifest on the assumption of owned evidence to assert the proposition this adverb frames. *Actually* is strongly related to *in fact* and *in point of fact* in the corpus and I will comment on these two, below as a contrast.

Regarding the position of actually, this form is even more flexible than, say, *in fact*. Yet, Oh (2000) found no difference between *actually* in final position and in initial position. Occurrences in medial position in examples (38), and (39) and (40) express a contradictory or unexpected information:

(38)   Their opinion was so unfavourable, that Isabella's patronage, if
        not **actually** withdrawn, was indefinitely deferred; and he was
        told that nothing could be done until the war with the Moors
        should be over (hist 1828 Callcott).

(39)   But the Spartans were rather afraid that Tissaphernes, the satrap who had once been the friend of Alcibiades, would try to injure their cause with the young prince, for he was never heartily an ally of the Spartans, although he had not **actually** broken off the alliance with them. It was necessary, therefore, that the Spartans should have some clever person to keep up the friendship of Cyrus, and there was no one more likely to do this than Lysander (hist1857 Sewell).

(40)   The cardinal de Bourbon, from his sick bed at Gaillon, offered contribution; while the count de Soissons, humbled but not submissive, **actually** prayed to be employed in the royal service (hist 1860 Freer).

Example (38) shows a case of actually in the protasis part of the conditional. This combination of *if* followed by *not actually* expresses a supposed contradiction concerning two ideas, which cannot coexist at a same time. The phrasing if not actually withdrawn given as an apposition seems to suggest some degree of doubt that Isabella's patronage was simply suspended or withdrawn. Instance (39) offers a case of *actually*, which is used to emphasize the meaning of *broken off*, as this event is not really expected after being informed that "he was never heartily an ally of the Spartans". Finally, contrast is also indicated by the use of *actually* in (40) to establish a difference between the actions taken by Cardinal de Bourbon and Count de Soissons.

Examples (41), (42), (43), (44), (45) and (46) excerpted from my corpus present cases of actually, which emphasize the propositional content, or add new information:

(41)   Whilst sir Edward Coke was **actually** lying on his death-bed, sir Francis Windebank, secretary of state, was sent with an order of council to search his house for dangerous or seditious papers, by virtue of which he carried off his Commentary on Littleton, to which was prefixed a history of his life written by his own hand, several of his unpublished works on legal subjects, and fifty-one other manuscripts, one of which was his will (hist 1833 Aikin).

(42)   To such tranquil declaimers on the merit of casting away life and property, in preference to bowing the head to a storm, it is obvious to reply, that had they changed situations with those who **actually** felt the distress, it is more than probable they would have seen good reason to adopt the very conduct, which in the fulness of security they take upon them to condemn (hist 1800 Stock).

(43)   After the return of peace the intrigue was renewed, and in 1631 a treaty was **actually** drawn up and signed by Cottington on one part and Olivarez on the other, which stipulated that in consideration of the interference of king Philip for the restoration of the palatine, a certain number of English ships should cooperate with a Spanish fleet in the invasion of Holland (hist 1833 Aikin).

All the cases given above present a similar structure, and so *actually* precedes the lexical verb all times in order to give emphasis to the propositional content. In (41), the author wants to emphasize the fact that Sir Edward Coke was near to his death at the moment of searching his house for the desired evidences. This emphatic use of *actually* is also seen in example (42) with the intention of signalling

those people who have "felt the distress" only. Likewise, in instance (43), *actually* is placed before the main verb to reinforce its meaning and give prominence to the information presented. In this context, it may be considered a booster. Here, the idea of factuality concerning the existence of the treaty between Spain and England is clearly marked by *actually*, which could well be replaced by "already". This calls for the truth of the information offered.

In the following instances, *actually* reports on the truth of the event described:

(44)   But happily for one of the most important of all causes, the cause of civil liberty, the experiment was really made; and all that the exclusionists had foreseen, all that with very manly wisdom they had endeavoured to prevent, **actually** took place (hist 1840 Smyth).

(45)   It was towards the middle of the afternoon, that a cloud of dust gave notice that the army of Artaxerxes was **actually** drawing near. Then, a dark mass was seen moving steadily forwards, brightened at times by the sparkling light which flashed from the armour and the weapons of the soldiers (hist 1857 Sewell).

(46)   After the death of Alfred, however, England, and indeed the whole of Britain, became a prey to the Scandinavian freebooters from Denmark and Norway. Norwegian chiefs landing in the north of Scotland, converted the half of it into a Norwegian kingdom; and for a period of twenty-six years (1016-1042), England was **actually** under Danish rule. The complete conquest of England, however, was reserved for the Normans, or naturalised Scandinavians of France, under the celebrated William, Duke of Normandy, who landed at

> Hastings, on the 14th of October 1066, with 60,000 followers; and after defeating the native forces under the last of the Anglo-Saxon descendants of Egbert, made himself master of the whole of England (hist 1855 Masson).

The use of *actually* in (44) supports the accuracy of the information. In this case, it is beyond doubt for the speaker that the exclusionists' predictions became real. This idea of factuality is recorded in *actually*, as in (45). The use of the adverbial in this case is justified by the evidence put forward earlier in the text, i.e. the presence of "a cloud of dust". In (46), *actually* seems to function as a logical marker to include the evidences specified in the text preceding this adverbial regarding the Scandinavian background of England. Another interpretation relates to the truth of the statement, and so *actually* is used as an intensifier and may be replaced by "really" or "truly".

As already said, *actually, in fact* and *in point of fact* are much related adverbs. *The Cambridge Dictionary* (online) considers the discourse markers under scrutiny as semantically closed. In the same vein, the *Merriam-Webster Dictionary* defines *actually* as a synonym to *in fact*:

a. in act or in fact: really trying to find out what actually happened;
b. in point of fact —used to suggest something unexpected.

According to the *Collins Dictionary* (online), the discourse marker *in fact* or *in point of fact* can be used (a) "to indicate that you are giving more detailed information about what you have just said" exemplified as follows: *We've had a pretty bad time while you were away. In fact, we very nearly split up this time;* or (b) "to introduce or draw attention to a comment that modifies, contradicts or contrasts

with a previous statement" and provides the following example: *That sounds rather simple, but in fact it's very difficult.*

All the cases found of *in fact* in CHET date back to the nineteenth century. As to the position of this marker, it is generally found in topic position in a clause. It can also occur finally when the communicative situation is informal, as *The Cambridge Dictionary* registers. Hence, it does not occupy a fixed position in the propositional structure in my data. This can be seen in the following excerpts, where *in fact* is placed before or after the lexical verb:

(47)   the whole of the English household resigned their functions to the corresponding officers for Scotland, whose places were mostly hereditary, and who very nobly discharged the duties of hospitality which at the same time devolved upon them. Such **in fact** was the excessive expense thus incurred by many of the Scottish nobles, bent on vindicating their country from the reproach of poverty, as to bring upon them embarrassments the chagrin of which has been suggested as one of the motives of that disaffection to their prince which quickly succeeded to these vehement demonstrations of loyal sentiment [...] (hist 1833 Aikin).

(48)   Through a fraud of the lord-register in taking the votes, the articles appeared to be carried, although the majority was **in fact** against them: lord Rothes demanded a scrutiny, but it was authoritatively refused by the king, unless that nobleman would take upon himself to charge the lord-register with the capital crime of wilfully falsifying the votes, which, on failure of proof, subjected the saccuser to the like punishment (hist 1833 Aikin).

In my view, the uses of *in fact* in examples (47) and (48) indicate evidential meaning. Regarding the semantic meanings mentioned above, in the majority of the examples, the authors use *in fact* to indicate that they are providing more details about the topic, or they add some details to clarify something, such as in example (47). The use of this adverbial follows from the speaker's analysis of the evidences at hand. Example (48) contains an intersubjective use of *in fact*, as the speaker seems to indicate that the meaning manifested in the propositional content suggests an inclusive source. Thus, *in fact* can be safely substituted by "we all know". This idea is reinforced by the co-text of the adverbial, which reads "the majority was **in fact** against them", thus sharing responsibility of his claim with third parties, i.e. "the majority". In this specific case, *in fact* seems to express procedural meaning, as it suggests a contrast between the information presented previously and that given after the adverb, so reinforcing the value of "against" after *in fact* in this instance.

In occurrences (49) and (50), *in fact* is employed to strengthen the propositional content.

(49)   It appears from Prynn's narrative of the proceedings against
         him on account of the Histriomastix, that Noy exhibited
         considerable reluctance to prosecute; and **in fact** took no step
         in the business till urged by Laud, who had employed Heylyn
         to extract the passages regarded as libellous (hist 1833 Aikin).

(50)   In the mean time, without collecting all the matter relating to
         the history of Tara, which would **in fact** be nothing less than a
         history of Ireland, it will be necessary, for the satisfaction of the

reader, and the completeness of this memoir, to bring forward the notices of the more remarkable events in connexion with its early state, whether apparently authentic or apocryphal, without minutely canvassing their claims to credibility (hist 1839 Petrie).

In both cases *in fact* can be substituted by *really.* From a pragmatic perspective, *really* is considered as a booster, and so it comes to reinforce the propositional content of the utterance in which it is inserted. In (49) *in fact* strengthens the idea that "he didn't want to prosecute and did nothing until *Laud* urged him" to do so. Whilst in case (50) it contributes to boost the idea concerning the fact that the history of Tara is nothing more than the history of Ireland.

Examples (51), (52), (53) and (54), below, have in common that, from a grammatical perspective, *in fact* is given as an apposition in the utterances in which they are inserted:

(51)   This instance occurs in the last line of the quatrain, where [quotation] "war-songs" is incorrectly given as the translation of Duil Rosgadhach, which is, **in fact**, simply the title of Cennfaela's Commentary on the Laws, as appears from Cormac's Glossary, in which it is frequently quoted (hist 1839 Petrie).

(52)   This bishop had, **in fact**, signed the invitation to the Prince of Orange, it may be remembered; he was one of the seven (hist 1840 Smyth).

(53)   The real truth was, that Tissaphernes was wavering between Sparta and Athens, — doing, **in fact**, what Alcibiades himself

had recommended, —sometimes appearing to favour one, and sometimes the other (hist 1857 Sewell).

(54)   We had maltsters to supply nut-brown ale; butchers, juicy sirloins; glovers, gloves; shoemakers, shoes; **in fact**, representatives of all the trades that now contribute to the social requirements of the age (hist 1862 Bennett).

Having said this, it should be considered that their pragmatic functions are not alike in all the cases. Occurrences (51), (52) and (53) are procedural and indicate contrast between the information presented before and after the adverb. In example (54) the author uses *in fact* to summarize the information previously presented as a list in this utterance. In example (55) below, the adverbial is used to introduce an explicative, and so its evidential meaning is dubious:

(55)   Here was a perpetual medley of "fast" and loose characters, drunkards, swearers, Bacchanalians, Cyprians —**in fact**, the vile human sweepings of both town and country (hist 1862 Bennett).

The adverbial in this case introduces a covert explicative clause, and so the author characterises *drunkards, swearers, Cyprians*, etc. as people of the lowest moral condition and extraction, thus stating clearly his stance towards this social aspect. As pointed before, the use of *in fact* in this example is not evidential, as it results from a desire to introduce a new clearer description of the author's feelings towards the topic. So, it seems to indicate procedural meaning rather than anything else.

Examples (56) and (57) are indeed evidentials as shown by the context in which

they appear:

(56)   After the student has perused the history in Hume and Rapin, and compared it with the parliamentary debates of Cobbett, he will see that the indictment that was afterwards preferred against James by the two houses of legislature was strictly founded **in fact**, point by point (hist 1840 Smyth).

(57)   It is very material to observe that the declaration and enactment was totally on the popular side, was declaratory entirely and exclusively of the rights and liberties of the people, in no respect of the prerogatives of the crown; the Bill of Rights was **in fact** a new Magna Charta; a new petition of right; a new enrolment of the prerogatives, if I may so speak, of the democratic part of the constitution, which, though consented to by William, an elected prince, and perhaps even thought necessary to his own justification and security, could only have been extorted by force from any reigning hereditary monarch, (hist 1840 Smyth).

In (56), the use of *in fact* results from an authorial intention to make clear that the preference for the indictment against James was far beyond any shadow of doubt, as it was "strictly founded... point by point". The word *strictly* reinforces this idea of factuality. The same adverbial *in fact* in (57) also owns evidentiary qualification, and so it might well be substituted for other evidential words, such as *obviously, clearly,* and *evidently,* for example. The identification of the said "Bill of Rights" is nothing else than a "Magna Carta", and the use of *in fact* seems to indicate that this comparison is not a matter of debate for the author.

The *Oxford English Dictionary* (online) states that the expression *in point of fact* is used "to emphasize the truth of an assertion, especially one opposite to what might be expected or what has been asserted", and the dictionary also registers the other adverbial expression under scrutiny in this study, *actually*, as a synonym. As can be seen from the two examples available in CHET given below, this adverbial expression shows reinforcement of meaning:

(58)   We now therefore turn to consider what this intelligent statesman, really and **in point of fact**, was able at last to accomplish for the cause of religious liberty in England, at that time the most enlightened country in Europe in all the principles of civil liberty (hist 1840 Smyth).

(59)   [...] if I may so speak, of the democratic part of the constitution, which, though consented to by William, an elected prince, and perhaps even thought necessary to his own justification and security, could only have been extorted by force from any reigning hereditary monarch, and, **in point of fact**, was certainly not procured by the English nation on this occasion, till the regular possessor of the crown had ceased to wear it, and till the country had appeared in a state of positive and successful resistance to his authority (hist 1840 Smyth).

The form *in point of fact* is not very common in the language, so it is not surprising to find only two cases in our data, both from 1840 and same authorship. The *Oxford English Dictionary* records this adverb as early as 1628 and indicates low frequency of usage in Present-day English. The use of this form refers to actual state of events and appears parenthetically in between commas in our instances.

In example (12), the adverbial comes together with the adverbial *really*, which also refers to factuality. The combination of these two adverbials reinforces the idea of resemblance to truth concerning the events described. Likewise, the combination of *in point of fact* and *certainly* in (13) insists on the accuracy of the information presented to the extent that these two adverbials together renders the idea of the association of the concepts of democracy and despotic government undebatable.

Another evidential form in CHET is *apparently.* The *Oxford English Dictionary* defines this form as a sentence adverb, which makes reference to "as far as one knows or can see." Following Biber et al.'s taxonomy, this adverb would be classified as a stance adverb. In CHET, *apparently* presents up to 17 occurrences and appears to be rare in the eighteenth century subcorpus, with the majority of cases identified in the nineteenth century subcorpus. In relation to the adverb position in the sentences, it occurs in post-verbal position, pre-verbal position and as an apposition. This fact is relevant because, as we shall see, position has an effect on meaning in the case of this adverb.

The following examples illustrate *apparently* in pre-verbal position:

(60)   Robert accepted his excuses, and was **apparently** reconciled; but he was too well acquainted with the disposition of Stephen, to repose the smallest degree of confidence in his oaths (hist 1790 Gifford).

(61)   PETER PETOW was appointed by the former, and FRANCIS MALLET by the latter; but during the dispute her majesty died, and the accession of Queen Elizabeth occasioned a decided change in ecclesiastical affairs. Under the new sovereign, and

the next bishop, the reformation assumed a positive, popular, and permanent character. Henry the Eighth **apparently** tolerated it merely to secure his own supremacy; but Elizabeth protected and encouraged it from fervent zeal in the cause (hist 1814 Britton).

In (60) *apparently* has an evidential meaning, particularly it stresses the visual nature of the information source. This evidential meaning is reinforced by the presence of the adversative particle *but*, which contradicts this visual input to some extent. Similarly, in (61) the evidential meaning of the adverb is again reinforced by the use of *but* again later in the sentence. The evidential meaning presented is of a cognitive, rather than a visual, nature, and so this adverb could be compared to the cognitive evidential adverb *presumably* to indicate that Henry's tolerance was pretended for his own protection.

The following examples illustrate *apparently* as apposition in the utterances:

(62)   HUMBERT, the leader of this singular body of men, was himself as extraordinary a personage as any in his army. Of a good height and shape, in the full vigour of life, prompt to decide, quick in execution, **apparently** master of his art, you could not refuse him the praise of a good officer, while his phisiognomy forbad you to like him as a man (hist 1800 Stock).

(63)   The same rights and liberties which had been claimed, demanded, and insisted upon, when the crown was tendered, were afterwards converted into the materials of an act, which was presented to the king, and received the royal assent, and the whole was then [quotation] "declared, enacted, and

established by authority of that present parliament, to stand, remain, and be the law of the realm for ever." This was done and no more; this was all that, **apparently** at least, was attempted; no pretences were made to any merit of salutary alteration or legislative reform; the original declaration, the subsequent bill of rights, were each of them expressly stated to be only declarations of the old constitution; they were each an exhibition of the rights and liberties of the people of England, already undoubted and their own; experiment, innovation, every thing of this kind, is virtually disclaimed, for nothing of the kind is visible in the style or language of these singular records (hist 1840 Smyth).

(64)   Military subordination is as essential to the successful conducting of a campaign as personal courage. If the accounts of the Invasion can be relied on, the latter was conspicuous — the former may be improved. Apart from the opinion prevalent in Canada, of mismanagement and inattention in the highest military authority at that time in Upper Canada, there was also singular want of proper information, and ignorance of the topography of the country. In an enemy's country**, apparently,** the routes could not have been more thoroughly unknown — on this point all seemed confusion. Yet the whole affair took place in a small angle of the oldest settled part of Canada, had been anticipated in that quarter for weeks before, and looked for by those in charge of the military defence of the country (hist 1872 Gray).

In (62) *apparently* has an evidential meaning, and it stresses the visual nature of the information source again, as the context itself suggests: "a good height and

shape", "full vigour of life", "quick in execution", etc. In (63) the adverb is also of a cognitive nature, as it follows from a deductive process. This deduction results from Stock's interpretation of the style or language found in some records. Additionally, the evidential meaning is reinforced by the phrase *at least* which serves to mitigate, or even contradict to some extent, the evidential meaning of the adverb. Similarly, in (64) my interpretation of this adverb as an evidential is supported by the use of the phrase "could not have been more thoroughly unknown —on this point all seemed confusion" later in the sentence. This adverb could be compared to the cognitive evidential adverb *seemingly* to indicate the lack of knowledge about the routes. It seems to capture the author's inferential process, which is exemplified in the list of the different aspects why this invasion took place. Pragmatically, *apparently* has a mitigating function, seeking to soften the claims put forward by the authors. In fact, this adverb might be categorized as a negative politeness device, as the authors want to avoid imposing their views.

Finally, in examples 65 and 66 *apparently* is used in a post-verbal position:

(65)   But the Established Church, with all its advantages, was barely able to maintain its ground. In 1731 there were in Ireland, according to Burke in his Hibernia Dominicana, [p]. 28, 2,010,221 of a population —made up of 1,309,768 Romanists, and 700,453 Protestants. This is **apparently** a grossly incorrect estimate. In 1733 it was computed that there were about three papists to one Protestant (hist 1875 Killen).

(66)   There was **apparently** some peculiarity in the relationship of Biddlesdon or Bitlesdon and its parent-house Garendon, for

the former is expressly stated both in the charter of Ernald de Bosco [Monast] "Sciatis me dedisse terram meam de Bitlesdena in bosco et in plano ordini de Cistels intitulato ad abbatiam de Gereldona (hist 1893 Cooke).

In (65) and (66), *apparently* is not used with a mitigating function, but as a booster. In the want of some more examples to verify this, I am inclined to think that this adverb in post-verbal position belongs to the realm of clarity rather than presupposition, as evidence given in the examples contradicts the initial assumptions in these instances. Note that, in (65), the author demonstrates with figures the wrong estimates stated by Burke. The adverbs in these cases may well be substituted by *evidently*.

A last example of evidentials in CHET is *avowedly*. All cases of this forma have been attested in the nineteenth-century subcorpus:

(67)   Why fhould he be partially acquitted to the prejudice of a gallant officer, whofe only crime had **avowedly** been that he was too zealous, too brave, too enterprizing, too anxious for the good of his country, had ftrictly obeyed his orders, and performed all that Britifh valour could effect in executing the minifter's plan (hist 1802 Adolphus).

(68)   They did not, however, **avowedly** base their opposition on anything which they alleged to be positively erroneous in the Confession: they rather challenged the authority by which subscription to it was enforced; and they contended that no Church was warranted to require such a recognition of a merely

human composition as a test of ecclesiastical fellowship (hist 1875 Killen).

(69)   Thefe naval preparations may perhaps be faid, not to have been merely of a defenfive nature, the line yet **avowedly** obferved by the Americans; but they had advanced too far to recede; fophiftical diftinctions of words, or names, were laid afide. It is a fact, of which every one is fenfible, that fuccefsful oppofition to arbitrary fway, places a civic crown on the head of the hero that refifts; when contingencies that defeat confer an hempen cord inftead of a wreath of laurel (hist1805 Warren).

(70)   For more than three years —1789-1793 —he guided the country through the extreme excitement produced by the dreadful scenes passing in France. At every pause of the terrible drama his voice was to be heard loudly proclaiming non-interference. He positively refused to join the Allied Powers at Pilnitz. He was obviously and **avowedly** forced into war at last by the nation, and had no choice (hist 1895 Burrows).

The adverb *avowedly* is placed in medial position in all the examples offered right before the lexical verbs *been*, *base*, observe and *force*. The *Oxford English Dictionary* (online) defines *avowedly* in the following terms: "In an avowed manner; with open declaration or acknowledgement; confessedly, openly". This sense of the word is close to other evidential adverbs, such as *manifestly, plainly* and *patently*, for instance. In example (70), avowedly is given together with *obviously*, which is another evidential. The function of this stance adverb in these examples is to strengthen propositional content by stressing factuality, and so the pragmatic effect is the manifestation of reliability concerning the information presented.

5.4.2.3. Viewpoint

Viewpoint adverbs are concerned with the speaker's perspective about the information presented and, according to Plag (2003: 98), "the scope of viewpoint adverbs is not the verb phrase, but the whole clause or sentence". Examples of viewpoint adverbs in the corpus are *legally, inevitably, learnedly, personally, prophetically* and *theoretically,* among others.

The adverb *inevitably* occurs only with modals, as seen in the following four cases which correspond to the only examples registered in the corpus:

(71)   Conſequently the only mode of reducing it muſt have been by cutting off all ſupplies of proviſion, which would **inevitably** have required a great length of time to perform (hist 1790 Gifford).

(72)   Greatly apprehenſive of the fatal effeċts that muſt **inevitably** have proceeded from a rupture with a nobleman whoſe power and popularity were ſo firmly eſtabliſhed, he made overtures to Robert for an accommodation; and, after much difficulty, obtained a perſonal interview, in which he apologized for his paſt intentions, and ſolemnly ſwore, in the preſence of the Archbiſhop of Rouen, that he would never again form any deſign againſt the perſon or liberty of the Earl (hist 1790 Gifford).

(73)   The great object of Portugal at that time was to find a way to India and China by sea. But the slow progress made between the doubling Cape Bogador and reaching the southern point of Africa suggested the idea, that, by putting boldly out to sea, and sailing westward, a shorter way would **inevitably** be discovered, since the rotundity of the earth was now scarcely disputed. In the year 1474, he communicated his ideas on the

subject to Paul Toscanelli, a Florentine physician, who encouraged him in his theory, and entreated him to persevere in endeavouring to persuade some of the princes of Europe to undertake the experiment (hist 1828 Callcott).

(74)   Men who cheerfully went forth into the wilderness to undergo discomfort and privation; to be subjected to associations particularly repellent to men of gentle and refined minds; finally, to be tortured, to be burned, unflinchingly to meet the death which they must have ever felt would almost **inevitably** be their fate (hist 1887 Kingsford).

The examples above show that *inevitably* occurs in mid-position between a modal verb, either *must* or *would* and the lexical verb. The function of this form is to reinforce the deontic meaning intended with the use of the modal verbs. This deontic force is certainly softened by the presence of the restriction adverb *almost* in (74), surely with an intention to avoid imposition of claim.

5.4.2.4. Emphasis

Emphasis adverbs are used to give added importance to the element it accompanies, namely another verb or an adjective, as in the following instance from CHET:

(75)   Little was perform'd this year by land, the armies engaging in no action of importance, and the contending powers being **chiefly** ſolicitous about the increaſe of their naval ſtrength, which for good reaſon, as we ſhall preſently ſee, was by each

fide deem'd to be more than ever its principal affair (hist 1745 Hooke).

The adverb *chiefly* appears as a premodifier affecting the adjective *solicitous* to highlight its meaning. This adjective in the eighteenth century differs somehow from its present counterpart, and so this word means 'anxious' in (75). This is reinforced by *chiefly* to set a comparison between the state of the "contending powers" and "the armies engaging in no aċtion of importance".

5.4.2.5. Judgement

Judgement adverbs "are used to express an emotion or evaluation towards the propositional content of the sentence (or part of the sentence) to which they are attached" (Liu 2012: 1). The instances *bitterly, cleverly, elegantly, exultingly, fatally, insolently, luckily* and *miserably* from CHET are judgement adverbs, as in the following instances showing judgment adverbs in mid position preceding the verb:

(76)   Henry in after life frequently related this anecdote with great humour and mirth, expressing his delight at having so **cleverly** deceived king Philip (hist 1860 Freer).

(77)   Temple Luttrell followed the mover, and concluded a long ſpeech, fully diſplaying the bad condition of the ſhips, the neglect of ſupplies, and the general deplorable ſtate of the ſervice in every department, by declaring, that nothing could be clearer than the inadequacy of the naval power to the preſent criſis of public affairs, excepting the proſtitution, miſmanagement, and atrocious criminality of thoſe miniſters

whom our deluded ſovereign had **fatally** choſen to entruſt with this beſt protecťion of the realm (hist 1802 Adolphus).

(78)   Of these, four watched at the commandant's door, in the lobby of the middle story; four were placed in the hall; the rest were distributed at the gates in back and front, which had **luckily** been repaired and made secure by the bishop just before the invasion (hist 1800 Stock).

According to Bonami and Godard (2006: 274), the use of evaluative language, i.e. judgement adverb, satisfactorily expresses the writer's stance towards the propositional content:

> In the case of simple assertion, the speaker asserting p without an evaluative commits himself to the truth of p, at the same time as he asks the addressee(s) to evaluate p; when he asserts evaluative p, the same conversational moves are present, but, in addition, the speaker commits himself to the proposition associated with the adverb while withdrawing it from the addressee's evaluation.

From here it follows that the author's appraisal of the event (***cleverly** deceived*, ***fatally** choſen* and ***luckily** been repaired*) is imposed on the reader, and so this may be considered as a face-threatening act. The use of these judgement adverbs hinders the chances to negotiate meaning with readers, even if these forms do not have scope over the proposition. The use of *cleverly, fatally* and *luckily* as disjuncts only indicates authorial commitment, even if placed sentence initially, as in the following example:

(79)   Most **fortunately** it happened that the gentry of England had their understandings less bewildered by the abstractions of divinity and law than the nobility and bishops (hist 1840 Smyth).

In this instance, the judgement adverb is placed in topic position to highlight the author's assessment of the complete propositional content, and this disjunct is also gradable by a degree adjective, which can also have some emphatic nuisances. The use of *fortunately* does not seem to modify the contents of the propositional in any way.

5.4.2.6. Attitude

Attitude adverbs evaluate the actor's approach towards the accomplishment of the event. Examples of these adverbs in CHET are *actively, barbaroufly, cordially, gallantly, judiciously, obftinately, proudly, tacitly* and *willingly*.

(80)   *Beft* faid he would **willingly** Swear, if his Lordfhip would firft declare what thofe Articles were; which the Bifhop did, and giving fome Exhortation to the reft, he and they took their Oaths. And then were fworn againft them in their Prefence, *John Pykas, John Ebb,* alias *Hacker*, and William Raylond (hist 1721 Strype).

(81)   This Honour he would very willingly have declined, **judicioufly** fuppofing he fhould find great Difficulties in the Enterprize, the ill Succefs of which would be laid at his Door: Knowing befides, that the Army he was to command, tho' formidable in Number, was only a Multitude of undifciplined Peafants, with whom he

could never undertake any daring Action to come off with Honour (hist 1740 Bancks).

In these two examples, the adverbs *willingly* and *judiciously* are given preceding the verbs. These two adverbs specify the actor's stance concerning the predicate. These adverbs are similar to manner and judgement adverbs, and the difference lies in the semantics of the words. The adverbs *willingly* and *judiciously* talk about the mental state of the actor at the moment of doing the action or stance to perform that action.

5.4.3. Degree

The adverb of degree is used to indicate grading. According to Klein (1998: 14), this type of adverbs "indicates a range on the scale of the appropriate dimension in which the quality concerned can be placed". In CHET, I have identified degree adverbs of comparison, intensification, attenuation, approximation and sufficiency, and they present the distribution of occurrences in Figure 5.5.
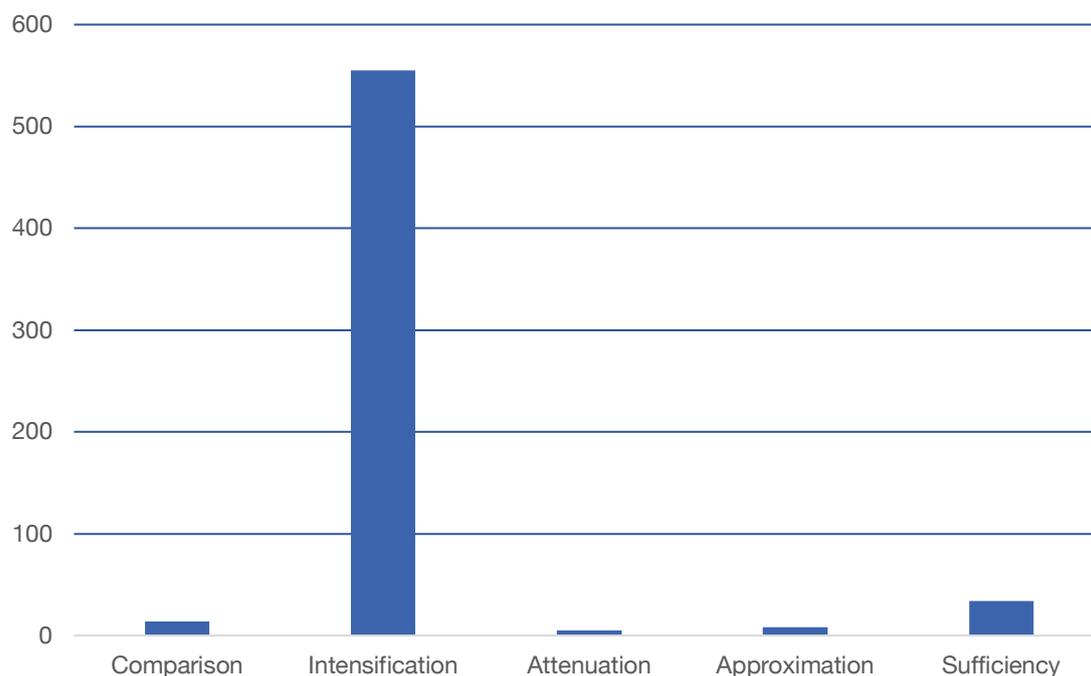
Figure 5.5. Occurrences of -ly degree adverbs in CHET.

In the subsequent sections, these categories of degree adverbs are described in the context of CHET.

5.4.3.1. Comparison

Comparison adverbs are adjuncts showing degree. These can precede the verbs or premodify. Some examples with mostly and comparatively excerpted from CHET are the following:

(82)   Lysander appeared, and Athens was blockaded, both by sea and land. Offers of peace were made, but they were rejected; for one of the points on which Lysander **mostly** insisted was, that the Long Walls, built by Themistocles, between Athens and Piræus, should be pulled down (hist 1857 Sewell).

(83)   Immediately on the king's crossing the border, the whole of the English household resigned their functions to the corresponding officers for Scotland, whose places were **mostly** hereditary, and who very nobly discharged the duties of hospitality which at the same time devolved upon them (hist 1833 Aikin).

(84)   In this he was fortunate above many others, ſince few could be accommodated with houſes, the fire having ſpared but a **comparatively** ſmall number, which had been occupied before this diſtreſſing event happened (hist 1780 Cornish).

(85)   As the consummation of this work is essential to the well-being of Confederation, and as without it the original plan of union would be **comparatively** abortive, it may not be out of place to consider it for a few moments (hist 1872 Gray).

In these examples, we can see that, while *mostly* appears to be used either to modify a verb or to modify an adjective, *comparatively* is, however, limited to occur preceding an adjective, as shown in the concordances below:

(86)   Canada with her unbounded, but yet undeveloped resources with her **comparatively** light taxation (hist 1872 Gray).

(87)   he was still young and **comparatively** untried (hist 1895 Burrows).

(88)   he original plan of union would be **comparatively** abortive (hist 1872 Gray).

(89)   We have seen that the island was in a **comparatively** healthy state (hist 1895 Burrow).

(90)   it was reduced to the **comparatively** narrow circle of lands (hist 1855 Masson)

(91)   a **comparatively** small portion, however, still remains in the possession ofThomas Henry O'Flaherty (hist 1820 Hardiman).

(92)   ſince few could be accommodated with houſes, the fire having ſpared but a **comparatively** ſmall number (hist 1780 Cornish).

The pragmatic functions of comparison adverbs are heterogeneous. In these examples, *mostly* seems to be a booster and its role is to reinforce the event framed. The adjunct *comparatively* has the reverse effect and its function is that of minimising the strength of the claim.

5.4.3.2. Intensification

Intensification adverbs "refer to the modification or measuring of the degree of gradable notions, either qualitative or quantitative" (Ghesquière 2017: 34). Intensifying adverbs in CHET are *considerably, entirely, especially, extremely, fairly, highly, terribly* and tremendously, among others. The adverb *fairly* will be used here to illustrate the use of intensification adverbs.

The adverb *fairly* is defined by the *Oxford English Dictionary* as a "submodifier to indicate a moderately high degree". Examples of this meaning, (a) and (b), can be found below these lines, or it can be also used "to emphasize something surprising or extreme" exemplified in (c) and (d) from the OED entry *fairly* adv.:

a. 'I am fairly difficult to get along with apparently and we haven't talked in a number of years.'
b. 'I've been through a phase of having a fair amount of capital and I was fairly miserable to be honest.'
c. 'In the history of empire and colonialism, the voices raised in dissent are fairly few actually.'

d. 'So in each case, it tends to be fairly extreme behaviour that's likely to give rise to liability.' (*Fairly*, adv. OED)

In CHET, we can find 7 occurrences, which belong to the eighteenth century, and 12 occurrences in texts from the nineteenth century. In relation to its position in the sentences, the adverb is generally placed before the verb and in most cases used after a modal verb: *could, may, might* and the verb comes after the adverb. Examples are the following:

(93)   Because from their knowledge of its great strength, and of the many resources its prodigious wealth furnished, they judged the conquest of it impracticable at this time, and before Sicily was subdued. And that they judged right, one may **fairly** conclude from Polybius's not reproving their policy, and from the difficulties they afterwards met with in that enterprize, even when masters of Sicily, and of all the islands between Italy and Africa (hist 1745 Hooke).

(94)   As the connexion between them is so natural, it might **fairly** be supposed that the same advancement which the former seemed at this epoch to have received, would have been received in like manner by the latter; but there is more difficulty in this latter case than there is even in the former, and the same sort of efforts for religious liberty that failed at the Restoration, failed likewise at the Revolution (hist 1840 Smyth).

(95)   But as the election of ſenators, made by the people in the firſt inſtance, ſeems to have been made, in conſ equence of a conſtitutional right to chuſe all magiſtrates without distinction; it was evidently, not the effect of any conceſſ ion of the king's, but of a power which was properly veſted in them; and which,

for that reaſon, they would be as cautious of parting with, as any other privilege, to which they were intitled, by the conſtitution of their ſtate: and therefore, unleſs it ſhould appear plainly, that the people were excluded from having any ſhare, in the enſuing elecťions of ſenators, I think, we may very **fairly** preſume, that they continued to exerciſe the ſame right, in every ſubſequent inſtance, which we have already ſhewn them to have done, in the firſt (hist Chapman, 1750).

(96)   Previous to the erection of this church, and for many years after, it was customary for the Protestant inhabitants to bury their dead in the graveyard attached to the Church of [St]. Michael the Archangel, [note] This was pulled down in order to afford building materials for the Kilbrogan Church; and, if walls have ears, we may **fairly** assume that the stones in the first Protestant church in Ireland have been listening to both sides of the question for centuries. [endnote] now the Roman-Catholic burial-ground at Kilbrogan, where a few of their monuments still remain, such as: "Here lyeth the body of Anne Dyke, alias Harrison, a virgin, formerly from Bristol" (hist 1862 Bennett).

(97)   The joy of the British at the cessation of the war led the upper classes to disregard all risks in order to gratify the intense passion for foreign travel which had for centuries been characteristic of the aristocracy. Not that any one could be **fairly** supposed to guess that if the war broke out again Napoleon would detain every English man and woman within his dominions, a proceeding worthy of an Oriental despot (hist 1893 Cooke).

In example (93), which is a treatise dating back to the eighteenth century, the position of the modal verb may before the adverb fairly serves to reinforce the moderated nature of the adverb as its semantic meaning in the context given has to do with "expressing possibility" in the pattern modal verb: *may* + adverb *fairly* + cognitive verb: conclude. Example (95) presents a comparable pattern to example (93): *may* + *fairly* + *presume*. The difference with the previous one is that in this specific example the mitigating function is even stronger than in the previous one due to the presence of the intensifier very and the semantic meaning of the verb presume, which seems to indicate a reinforcement of the sense of possibility. Other similar examples are the following:

(98)   But the wealth of the province, and the truſt of the revenue, were founded on the fair and plentiful produce of trade and manufaꞔtures: and ſome ſymptoms of liberal policy may be traced in a law which exempts from all perſonal taxes the mariners of Peloponeſus, and the workmen in parchment and purple. This denomination may be **fairly** applied or extended to the manufaꞔtures of linen, woollen, and more eſpecially of ſilk: the two former of which had flouriſhed in Greece ſince the days of Homer; and the laſt was introduced perhaps as early as the reign of Juſtinian (hist Gibbon, 1788).

(99)   At this period neither dignitary could, under the sanction of the law, walk at midday along the streets; and the work now completed —which may be said **fairly** to exhaust the subject— is a singular evidence of what ecclesiastical ambition can accomplish in the face of surrounding discouragements (hist Killen, 1875).

All the cases of *fairly* show a similar pattern, as they co-occur with the epistemic modal *may*. Some of them with the cognitive verbs, namely *conclude* (95) and *presume* (96), as pointed above, while (98) and (99) show different verb semantic classes, such as the communicative verb *say*, for example. Generally speaking, the function of the modal *may* as an epistemic marker in all these instances is certainly strengthened by the presence of *fairly* in an attempt to mitigate the claim resulting from the deductive process shown in the instances (96) and (97). In the other two examples, the adverb *fairly* comes to indicate perspectivization concerning the propositional content framed.

In the specific case of the adverb *fairly,* previous analyses (cf. Álvarez-Gil, forthcoming) have shown that there exist disciplinary differences regarding the pragmatic functions of the adverb in history and astronomy texts, contrasting the findings shown previously, which have been taken from CHET with the occurrences from the Corpus of English Texts on Astronomy (CETA). In CETA, there are 4 occurrences of *fairly,* all of them in the nineteenth century texts. These are given, below:

(100)   Owing to the want of air, however, it seems impossible that any form of life analogous to those on earth can subsist there. No appearance indicating vegetation, or the slightest variation of surface which can **fairly** be ascribed to change of season, can any where be discerned (hist Herschel, 1833).

(101)   It is clear that as the joint M is urged home towards the surface, the legs will open, and the ruler will become more nearly straight, but will not attain perfect straightness till M is brought

fairly up to contact with the surface at m, in which case its whole length will become a tangent to the sphere at m, as is the line xy. This explains what is meant by the dip of the horizon (hist Bradford, 1845).

(102)   Still greater uniformity is observable in the different parts of the same line; for each line maintains its individual width throughout. Although at and near the point where it leaves the dark regions, or the Solis Lacus, —for the same phenomenon appears there, some slight enlargement seems to take place, after it has **fairly** started on its course it remains substantially of the same size from one end to the other (hist Lowell, 1895).

In cases number (100), (101) and (102), *fairly* is placed next to a verb and, in all the instances, the adverb functions as a mitigator of the propositional content manifested. In case (100), there are other elements reinforcing the attenuating function of the adverb, such as *the slightest variation of surface which can fairly be ascribed*. Note that the same that happens in (100) occurs again in (103):

(103)   For the system seems sublimely superior to possible obstructions in the way; the lines running, apparently, not where they may, but where they choose. The Eumenides-Orcus, for example, pursues the even tenor of its unswerving course for nearly 3500 miles. Now, it might be possible so to select one's country that one canal should be able to do this; but that every canal should be straight, and many of them **fairly** comparable with the Eumenides-Orcus in length, seems to be beyond the possibility of contrivance (hist Lowell, 1895).

There are certain parts of speech strengthening the mitigating function of the

adverb, e.g. *some, slight, seems to take place*. In this case, the adverb *fairly* is placed next to an adjective, and its pragmatic function differs from the other cases, as it works to reinforce the meaning of the adjective next to it rather than a complete proposition.

Regarding the textual genre, there exist some differences in the occurrences analysed previously, as in the use of modal verbs accompanying *fairly*, for instance. In the historical excerpts analysed, modal verbs tend to co-occur frequently, not only in the examples above these lines, but also in other examples shown in a previous study (Álvarez-Gil, 2017), with the adverb *fairly* in order to downtone the propositional content. In the specific examples included in this study, the modal verb deployed is always *may*, although we can find other examples in which modal verbs such as *might, must* and *could* also co-occur with this adverb to accomplish the pragmatic function of mitigation.

There exist disciplinary differences in the use of *fairly* as a mitigator in the vicinity of a modal verb, and so I have found almost all cases of this pattern in historical texts rather than in my consultation of the astronomy ones. Despite this evident disciplinary difference that wants more future attention and research, the pattern *modal verb + fairly + verb* is found only once in the corpus of astronomy texts. Here, this pattern recurrent in historical texts has been attested just once in an astronomy treatise, e.g. *can **fairly** be*. This may be tentatively considered textual genre rather than domain-based variation. In any case, the adverb signals mitigation of the claim, and so it might be categorized as an example of positive politeness seeking to avoid future academic criticism. The concepts of

intensification and strengthening seem to work harmoniously in the interpretation of examples (104) and (105), below, to validate authoritative interpretation.

(104)   There is often much Damage from Lightning, which abates the Pleaſure of the Summer; and afterwards occaſions ſeveral Blights, by the ſcorching Heats, which ſpoil the Woods for the Diſtance of ſeveral Verſts. Her Majeſty is ſometimes **extreamly** frighten'd at the exceſſive Lightning (hist 1739 Justice).

(105)   The disturbances caused by these two parties were very great, yet they proved **extremely** useful to Alcibiades (hist 1857 Sewell).

5.4.3.3. Attenuation

Attenuation adverbs are used in CHET to mitigate the event or proposition it frames. The pragmatic function of attenuating devices is to avoid the bad side effects of strong claims. An illustrative case in CHET is *slightly*, as shown in examples (106) and (107), below. In these examples, *slightly* is used as a premodifier of the adjective *different* in (106) and the verb *objected* in (107).

(106)   Manriquez does not quite accept the above statements, but thinks that the change was made before 1104, for in that year a vision of Christ in white was recorded, *et neque crediderint in album inter nigros quos sibi in omnibus volebat conformari*. The argument, looked at from a **slightly** different point of view, would seem convincing. The white garb was undoubtedly regarded by the monks as peculiarly befitting the special worship of the Virgin Mary to which the order was dedicated, and may have been adopted on this account (hist 1894 Cooke).

(107)   He moved, that the people of Ireland might be permitted to fend on board Britiſh veſſels, navigated according to law, to the coaſt of Africa, and other foreign ſettlements, all Iriſh manufaƈtures, wool and woollen cloths excepted. The motion was **flightly** objeƈted to, but carried without a diviſion (hist 1802 Adolphus).

5.4.3.4. Approximation

Approximation adverbs restricts the meaning of the modified word they accompany. In CHET, all the instances identified belong to the nineteenth century. Some approximation adverbs from the corpus are *eminently*, *practically* and *virtually*. Examples are the following:

(108)   The caution, the moderation, the forbearance, the modest wisdom with which the leading actors in the scene conducted themselves, are the proper subjects of our panegyric, but must never be so dwelt upon, that we are to forget the real meaning of these proceedings, their positive example, their permanent instruction, transmitted **practically** and visibly not only to the sovereign, but to the people (hist 1840 Smyth).

(109)   Beginning with the south-western portion of the map of Europe, we find that the country called Spain did not constitute in the tenth century, as it does now, one **virtually** united territory, but was divided into two clusters of kingdoms —the Arabic or Moorish kingdoms of the south, and the Christian kingdoms of the north (hist 1855 Masson).

In these examples, the adverbs show different syntactic distribution with respect

to the items they modify. In (108), the adverb is placed after the verb and before the adjective in (109). Both cases indicate a semantic space close to the modified item: *transmitted* and *united*, and this reduction seems to be useful to minimise the potential risk of a face threatening act.

5.4.3.4. Sufficiency

There is only one case of sufficiency adverb in CHET, and that is *sufficiently*, as shown in the following examples:

(110)   That the hymn or psalm thus distinctly named as the composition of Patrick is the identical one which will now be presented to the reader, will appear **sufficiently** obvious from the ancient preface prefixed to it, in which its origin is accounted for in nearly the same words (hist 1839 Petrie).

(111)   The ſtrength of the walls making the King apprehend that the ſiege would become tedious, he erećted at each ſide of the mouth of the river, a ſtrong fortreſs, and ſinking ſome ſhips filled with ſtones, ſtopped up its communication with the ſea; when believing he had **ſufficiently** revenged the affront he had received, he returned to his own kingdom (hist 1762 Scott).

The use of the adverb in (110) and (111) represents an indication of measure. In (110), *sufficiently* modifies the adjective *obvious* while it modifies the event *revenged* in (111) in order to show that expectations have been met. At the same time, this adjunct seems to highlight the meaning of the modified items in the utterances. From a metadiscourse perspective, *sufficiently* appears to be a booster.

5.4.4. Focusing

Focusing adverbs are well represented in CHET, as shown in Table 5.5, below. Cougil Álvarez (2003: 301) describes focusing adverbs, as follows: "Focusing adverbs are so called due to their association with another element in the clause, their focus, which is usually identified by means of prosodic prominence". In CHET, as we shall see, focusing adverbs of restriction are by far the most frequent.
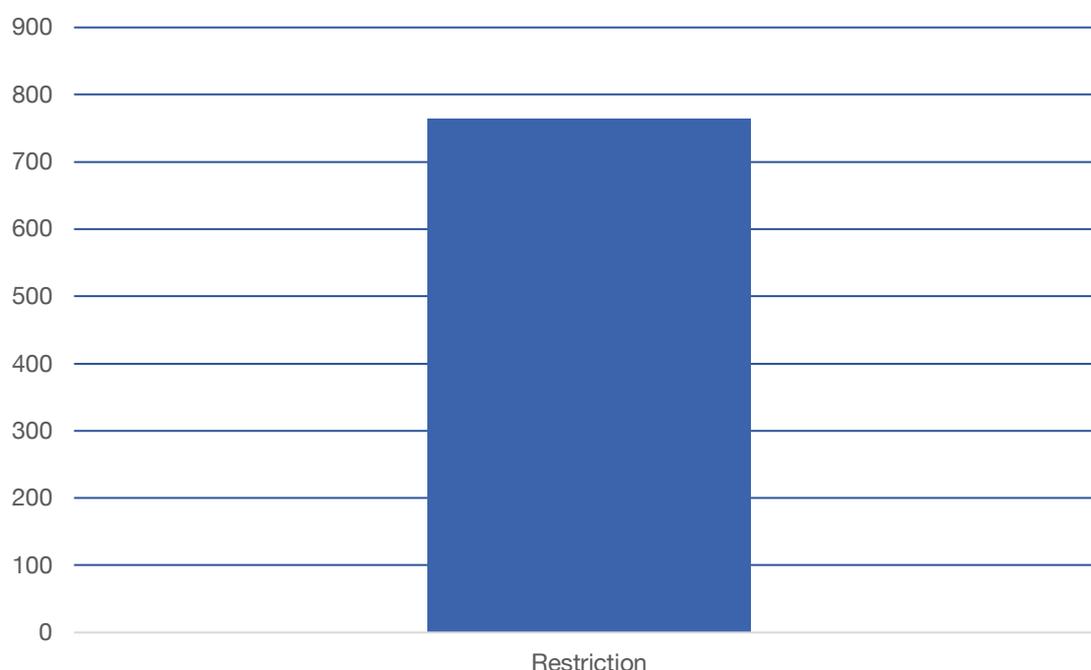

Figure 5.6. Occurrences of -ly focusing adverbs in CHET.

5.4.4.1. Restriction

As already pointed out, restriction adverbs are common in the corpus. Examples of these adverbs in CHET are *barely*, *exclusively*, *gradually*, *hardly*, *merely*, *nearly*, *only*, *partially*, *partly*, *scarcely*, *simply* and *singly*. The following are instances from

the corpus:

(112)   While the chief confederates, thus only collecting their ſtrength, were under conſiderable anxiety and diffidence, about the ſucceſs of their various enterpriſes; it was the opinion of many, that Henry, by **barely** aſſuming the appearance of martial reſolution, might have prevailed in ſupreſſing the whole vigour of the inſurrections (hist 1775 Anderson).

(113)   Deeds, relating to the Homage; But **meerly** to inſpect ſo large a Store, of our Antiquities: Which upon many Occaſions, might prove uſeful (hist 1705 Anderson).

(114)   IN conſequence of ſome obſervations by the lord chancellor, the whole political conduct of the deceaſed earl came under review, and was by ſome ſtrenuouſly cenſured, as the ſource of all the ſubſequent diſaſters of the country; by ſome **partially** defended, as founded on integrity, proſecuted with vigour, but occaſionally deficient in conſiſtency and wiſdom; by others it was extolled in all its parts, as the prodigious effort of a ſuperior genius, who had forced his way at a critical emergency, raiſed the ſpirits of a deſponding nation, given energy to vacillating counſels, and raiſed the country to unrivalled glory (hist 1802 Adolphus).

(115)   ANOTHER dark-dealer the publiſher of the late Plagiarie Treatiſe, entitled, an impartial account of the Affairs of Scotland, &c. to make it more current, has thrown in into the Title page, Some remarkable Inſtances that may give light into the Dependency of Scotland, on the Crown of England; which is mere juggle: For in this Book, there's nothing has the leaſt Tendency to Homage; **Only** there's a paſſing hint of a Rumor

ſpread abroad by the Partiſans of our Queen Mary, of a ſecret Bargain between Queen Elizabeth, and the Earl of Murray for making Scotland a Province of England, and that our [Q]. Mary had promiſed the like her ſelf (hist 1705 Anderson).

The adverbs of restriction in these instances, namely *barely*, *merely*, *partially* and *only*, either precede the verbs, as in (112) and (114), or are in front position affecting the complete proposition. The last example with *only* is very illustrative. The presence of this adverb in theme position might have a twofold purpose. The first one is to reflect the semantic scope of the adverb over the proposition and the second is to force a particular reading of the text and bring the adverb semantic meaning of restriction into focus.

5.4.5. Connective

Connective adverbs ending in *-ly* in CHET are divided into sequence adverbs, conclusion adverbs and restating adverbs. Conclusion adverbs occur more often than the other two categories, as shown in Figure 5.6, below, for the reasons I shall explain in the subsequent sections.
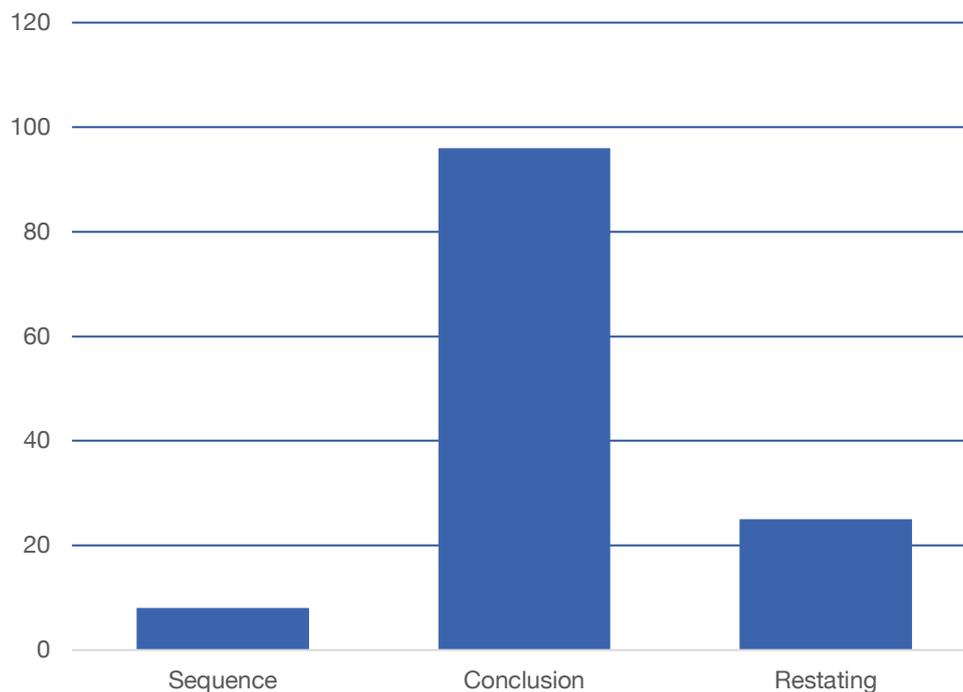
Figure 5.7. Occurrences of -ly connective adverbs in CHET.

5.4.5.1. Sequence

The adverbs of sequence are "commonly used to indicate sequence in time". This is realised in CHET with adverbs, such as lastly and subsequently, for example, as evinced in the excerpts, below:

(116)   The ball passed into the cieling, where the mark of it is still apparent. **Lastly**, it was quite unsuitable to the spirit of these rustic warriors to keep their firelocks idle till they should come in sight of an enemy, when there were so many inferior animals on which they might be tried (hist 1800 Stock).

(117)   The enclosure was immediately commenced, and, in a few days, in its first design, completed. **Subsequently**, Madame de Bullion's endowment took the form of a stone building outside

the pickets, which, as the Hotel Dieu, retained its identity to within the last twenty years (hist 1887 Kingsford).

(118)   Even here he was unsafe; and having met with a friend, in Sir Nicholas Throgmorton, who lent him money, and procured him a ship, he went to Frankfort. After remaining there a few months, he proceeded to Strasburgh at the invitation of Peter Martyr, who at that time presided over a college, and whoappointed Jewel the vice-master. These divines **subsequently** went to, and settled in Zurich, at the solicitation of the senate (hist 1814 Britton).

In these instances, *lastly* and *subsequently* in (116) and (117), respectively, appears as a conjunct given in focus position to signal order relationship. In (118), the adverb is placed in mid position, and it signals chronological arrangement, as also suggested by the use of the time adverbials *after* and *at that time* given earlier in the text and the past tense exhibited in verbs, such as *was, went* and *proceeded*, for instance. From a metadiscourse perspective, sequence adverbs have an interpersonal focus, as they help the organisation of ideas to share with readers (Hyland 2005: 25). Their textual dimension is also patent as a frame marker. This manifest organisation might be also seen as a politeness strategy because explicit indication of reasoning may lead readers to think that imposition of claim is not really intended.

5.4.5.2. Conclusion

Conclusion adverbs in CHET are *incidentally*, *eventually*, *consequently*, *accordingly*, for instance, and they may appear initially and medially in the

sentence. As shown in the following instances from CHET, *eventually* in (119) and *consequently* in (120) and (121) seem to own a procedural function to specify the logical relationship of ideas in the text.

(119)   The subsequent rupture between the two courts suspended a design which might have **eventually** endangered even the throne of Charles, from the just indignation it was formed to excite in the breasts of a protestant people (hist 1833 Aikin).

(120)   The character of Nevers was too well known to permit a doubt respecting the reality of this menace. **Consequently**, the *cortége* defiled without obstacle; and Nevers, bitterly mortified, but only the more confirmed in his allegiance to Henri IV., quitted Rome, and passing through Ferrara and Florence, repaired to Venice (hist 1860 Freer).

(121)   It is remarkable that Ferdinand did not take any part in the expedition, as king of Arragon; and **consequently** the exclusive right to all the benefits that might arise from it was reserved for Isabella's Castilian subjects (hist 1828 Callcott).

The use of this type of adverbs in CHET seems to emerge from the register variable of field of knowledge. It appears adequate that a topic such as history requires in its knowledge elaboration a great deal of concluding remarks needed to show the results of specific events. In example (119), The form *eventually* appears embedded in an evidential construction with *might* and the perfective, and this suggests conclusion following from an inferential process: *might have endangered*. The examples containing *consequently* evince that conclusion after a series of events is intended with this particle that introduces completion the

logical process of reasoning:

was too well known to permit a doubt **<consequently>** *cortége* defiled without obstacles

Ferdinand did not take any part **<consequently>** all the benefits … reserved for Isabella's Castilian subjects

5.4.5.3. Restating

There is only one restating adverb, i.e. adverbs with a clarifying or explicatory function, in CHET: *namely*, as shown in the instance, below. The pragmatic function of this type of adverbs is to seek academic approval by providing colleagues and readers with additional information.

(122)   There is nothing to indicate that its cost of construction will exceed the average cost of construction in America, **namely**, $30,000 or $35,000 per mile, fully equipped —the extra difficulties of the Rocky Mountains and British Columbia being more than countervailed by the greater facilities in the prairie lands (hist 1872 Gray).

5.5. Conclusion

This chapter provides the analysis of the *-ly* adverb forms in CHET. For this, I have followed linguistic corpus methodology using the *Coruña Corpus Tools*, as described in an earlier chapter of this dissertation. The data obtained from my interrogation of the corpus have been studied within the functional model offered in Downing (2015) for the identification and categorisation of adverbs and Hyland's metadiscourse model (2005), among others. The heterogeneity of the

nature of adverbs requires specific syntactic, semantic, pragmatic and discourse treatment in order to confidently disambiguate contextually-specific adverbial meanings. The analysis has revealed that circumstantial adverbs appear most frequently than any other category in CHET. The presence of this type of adjuncts is explained in the descriptive nature of history texts, in which richness of details are necessarily a must to vividly develop historical events, thus facilitating understanding.

Stance and focusing adverbs together almost equal the number of circumstantial adverbs in this corpus. The use of these classes of adverbs pursues perspectivization of knowledge either by signalling specific attitudes and opinions or by guiding the inferential processes by forcing particular readings of the texts through, say, focusing adverbs. Some of these adverbs may be considered as disjuncts, as they do not seem to substantially modify either the meaning or the proposition of the event described. Degree adverbs seem also to indicate certain interpretations of the text. Intensification degree adverbs, for instance, are very appropriately used either to downtone or reinforce particular events or propositions.

Connective adverbs ending in *-ly* are by far the least frequent type attested in CHET, and sequence, conclusion, restating and reason adverbs in this broad category have been identified. The main function of these adverbs is to guide the understanding of the texts by indicating the logical connections in the form of conjuncts between ideas in the argumentative process or in the description of events. As happens with the majority of adverbs in *-ly*, a major intention for

hedging claims seems to lie at the core of the use of these adverbials in order to avoid future academic criticism either through cognitive elaboration of meaning through a more accurate inspection of evidences, or, perhaps, through the availability of new material that may contradict current data.

6. Conclusions

This dissertation intends to contribute to the study of adverbs in early English. For this reason, several objectives were set out in the development of this research. The main goal is to study *-ly* adverbs in the late Modern English period. For this, the *Corpus of History English Texts* (CHET) belonging to the *Coruña Corpus of English Scientific Writing* (CC) containing samples from the eighteenth and the nineteenth century has been used to excerpt cases of adverbs ending in *-ly*. This study has shown the benefits of using the *Coruña Corpus* for the analysis of linguistic phenomena through the use of written records.

In order to provide the adequate context for analysis, I have described CHET in chapter 2 in terms of size, contents, procedure of compilation, genre and register features, and sociological aspects. I have also described part of the corpus method for the interrogation of this database, and this includes the description of the *Coruña Corpus Suite* (CCT). This piece of software has enabled the identification of adverbs ending in *-ly* in their context so that semantic, discourse and pragmatic values have been thoughtfully considered to avoid the obvious confusion between adjectives ending in *-ly* and adverbs ending in *-ly*. One such case is *early*, and this adverb requires disambiguation either as an adjective, e.g. *the early Relations* (hist 1887 Kingsford), or as an adverb, e.g. in *sent him over early* (hist 1800 Stock).

Another important goal of this dissertation has been the definition of the concept *adverb* to learn that it is heterogeneous in form and meaning. So much so that the meaning of an adverb varies according to position within the sentence. This also affects the pragmatic interpretation of the adverbs, as one adverb may acquire a different significance depending on its position and the item it modifies. In order to avoid all the terminological confusion concerning adverbs, I have opted for following the distinctions in Conrad and Biber (2000) for placement in the clause, and Downing (2015) for the semantic scope. From an evolutionary perspective, adverbs ending in *-ly* follows from derivational processes from nouns and adjectives through the addition of the Old English suffix *-lice*. The optionality character of adverbs along with their freedom to occupy almost any position within the sentence lead to stylistic register and genre variation during all periods of the English language.

There is one further objective as far as the methodology of analysis is concerned, and that is related to the concept of metadiscourse. In chapter 4, I describe the different dimensions of metadiscourse, namely interactive and interactional. I also explain the way in which these devices are deployed to implicate different pragmatic meanings, and this may obviously have a scope over the proposition. In many ways, as shown in the present dissertation, many metadiscourse devices fulfil a perspectivizing function showing the stance of the writers towards their texts. In general, metadiscourse devices allow the negotiation of scientific meaning between the writers and their audience.

Related concepts to metadiscourse have been also reviewed in order to show my

own stance of certain linguistic phenomena. That is the case of evidentiality and its relationship with epistemic modality, for instance, which, I concede, are methodological distinct concepts. Another aspect being discussed is evaluation, as this concept has a strong impact on how propositional content is assessed, and the way the author aligns with the audience. All this review of the methodological tenets has also disclosed the lack of terminological uniformity.

This said, the main objective of studying *-ly* adverbs in late Modern English is studied in the framework proposed to reveal that circumstantial adverbs are the commonest ones in history texts followed by stance, focusing and degree adverbs in this order. The least frequent adverbs ending in *-ly* belong to the connective group of adverbs. This massive use of circumstantial adverbs seems to be a register-based feature, as the register of historical description and argumentation requires an important volume of details. In many ways, circumstantial adverb devices help to construct history technical discourse because sequencing and manner adverbs facilitate understanding by providing exact order of events and the way in which they are performed.

Stance and focusing adverbs are also fundamental devices in the elaboration of historical knowledge. These two categories of adverbs seek to show perspectivisation of knowledge. Stance devices, e.g. certainty adverbs, evidential adverbs, judgment adverbs, are certainly indexical of the authors' position towards their texts, and so some of them might not have a scope over the proposition. That is the case of judgement adverbs, for example. They evaluate the proposition, but they do not markedly modify the meaning of the propositional

content. Reinforcement adverbs might be said to own a clear interactional function, as it may guide inferential processes by drawing attention towards particular information within the sentence by means of focusing adverbs.

In the case of degree adverbs, these may indicate either reinforcement or downtoning of the event or the propositional content in which they appear. Connective adverbs are the least frequent of all attested *-ly* adverbs in CHET. The subcategory of conclusion adverbs is the most common of connective adverbs. The register variable of field of knowledge seems to be held responsible for this because the elaboration of knowledge follows the traditional scientific pattern in which logical reasoning requires a concluding statement.

To summarise, this study has highlighted the importance of *-ly* adverbs in the construction of history scientific and technical discourse. The functions of these adverbs are varied, but they mainly fall into two important functions. The first one is their powerful value as organising textual strategies and the second one is their potential to be used as perspectivising strategies. Be as it were, the research described here represents but a mere approach to the study of adverbs, as the study of the complete range of morphological distinct adverbs and other invariable forms in CHET would exactly reveal the way in which they are used, and whether they own a more textual rather than interpersonal scope, if not otherwise.

6.1. Future research

This dissertation is a starting point for further research in the domain of historical pragmatics regarding adverbs in late Modern English. As already mentioned in the

previous section, one first study would include adverbs, others than the ones covered here, so that we can have a complete picture of adverbials in this period of the English language. Another aspect would concern variation regarding register and genre variables. This includes variation as to the gender of the writers, for instance. The results from here could be compared with similar research performed on the rest of the compilations in the *Coruña Corpus*, e.g. astronomy, philosophy, to meet thus the register variable of field of knowledge.

Another interesting aspect that has emerged from the present study is the relationship found to exist between modal verbs and some adverbs. This association might be of importance for studies dealing with grammaticalization processes. It seems clear that modal verbs and adverbs reflect perspective and the cooccurrence of these two devices may signal different stages in the evolutionary progress of modal verbs.

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RESUMEN DE LA TESIS DOCTORAL
Análisis de los adverbios acabados en -mente en el corpus de textos históricos en inglés (1700-1900). Enfoque metadiscursivo.

Por Francisco J. Álvarez Gil

En este estudio se analizan el uso de los adverbios terminados en *-ly* en una selección de textos científicos escritos en lengua inglesa, publicados en los siglos dieciocho y diecinueve, y pertenecientes al *Coruña Corpus of English Scientific Writing*. La muestra consiste en 40 textos históricos que se distribuyen en diferentes tipos de textos: artículos/articles (3%), conferencias/lectures (5%), ensayos/essays (7%), libros de texto/textbooks (5%), tratado/treatises (70%), otros/others (10%). Esta distribución se refleja en el siguiente gráfico:

DISTRIBUCIÓN DE PALABRAS SEGUN GÉNERO EN CHET
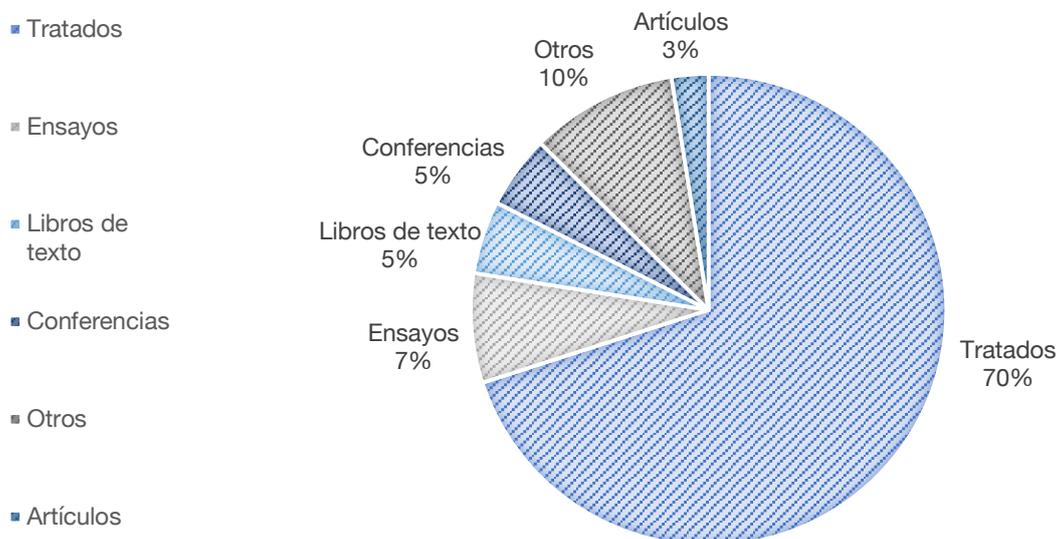
El primer capítulo es de una introducción acerca del tema tratado y se subdivide en cuatro secciones en las que se indican los objetivos, la metodología seguida en este estudio, el contexto sociocultural en el que se encuadran los textos

analizados y por último se describe la manera en la que está estructurado este trabajo. El objetivo primordial de este trabajo es el análisis una compilación textual para evaluar la utilización de adverbios en textos históricos utilizados en lengua inglesa de los siglos XVIII y XIX. Para la consecución de este objetivo, se requiere llevar a cabo otros menores, a saber: (a) describir y documentar aspectos de metodología de lingüística de corpus, que guiará el análisis de los datos, (b) describir y documentar metodología relativa al análisis de las estrategias metadiscursivas, (c) describir categorías de adverbios en el marco de la lingüística funcional que permitirá la clasificación de los resultados obtenidos mediante el análisis del corpus de textos históricos.

Como se ha expresado anteriormente, la metodología empleada consiste en el uso de una herramienta de análisis de corpus, *The Coruña Corpus Tool*, para realizar la búsqueda de ocurrencias de adverbios terminados en -ly. Una vez realizadas las búsquedas de cada uno de los adverbios de forma individualizada, llevamos a cabo un análisis de cada caso y de sus contextos comunicativos para analizar tanto su significado léxico como las diferentes funciones que desarrollan en los textos en los que están insertos desde un punto de vista pragmático.

Para realizar un análisis coherente, relevante y objetivo de los resultados es necesario realizar de forma paralela un estudio del contexto sociocultural para comprender muchas de las referencias culturales y sociales que se realizan en los textos. Ya que todos esos elementos pueden afectar al significado y al uso que se haga de los adverbios seleccionados para nuestro análisis.

En el segundo capítulo de la tesis, se lleva a cabo una descripción del corpus de textos históricos utilizado, *Corpus of History English Texts* (CHET), además se realizada una descripción del *Coruña Corpus* de textos científicos recopilado por el grupo de investigación MuStE de la Universidad de Coruña dentro del cual se encuadra el CHET. Dicho corpus está compuesto actualmente por

cuatro subcorpus: the *Corpus of English Texts on Astronomy* (CETA), the *Corpus of English Philosophy Texts* (*CEPhiT*), the *Corpus of English Life Sciences Texts* (*CELiST*) y finalmente, the *Corpus of English History Texts* (CHET). El número de textos y de palabras recopiladas en cada uno de estos subcorpus asciende a 1.618.458 pabras y el número de textos asciende a 162 como se muestra en la siguiente tabla:

Subcorpus		Número de textos	Número de palabras
CETA (Astronomy texts)	Siglo XVIII	21	208.079
	Siglo XIX	21	201.830
Total CETA		**42**	**409.909**
CEPhiT (Philosophy texts)	Siglo XVIII	20	200.022
	Siglo XIX	20	201.107
Total CEPhiT		**40**	**401.129**
CELiST (Life Sciences texts)	Siglo XVIII	20	200.649
	Siglo XIX	20	202.154
Total CELiST		**40**	**402.803**
CHET (History texts)	Siglo XVIII	20	201,794
	Siglo XIX	20	202,823
Total CHET		**40**	**404,617**
Total corpus		**162**	**1.618.458**

En la segunda sección de este capítulo se citan algunos de los trabajos realizados en los últimos años por los diferentes miembros del citado grupo de investigación especificando además el campo de conocimiento con el que está relacionado cada estudio. En esa misma sección se describen brevemente los otros subcorpus relacionados con la astronomía, filosofía y ciencias naturales. Y para terminar la sección 2.2 de ese capítulo se explican los diferentes géneros

textuales incluidos en el corpus además de incluir gráficos con su distribución y el número de palabras incluidos en cada uno de esos subcorpus.

En el apartado 2.3 se realiza una descripción más exhaustiva del corpus de textos históricos en la que se incluye el listado con los metadatos de cada uno de los textos históricos analizados ordenados cronológicamente. Mientras que, en el siguiente apartado, el último del segundo capítulo de esta tesis, se presenta la herramienta informática utilizada para realizar la búsqueda de los ejemplos describiendo de manera pormenorizada el funcionamiento de la misma.

El tercer capítulo se centra en el análisis de la categoría gramatical de los adverbios desde diferentes perspectivas analizando la semántica y las diferentes posiciones que ocupan los adverbios en las oraciones y la forma en la que la posición puede afectar la función que desarrollan. Además, analizamos la estructura y el uso de los adverbios en diferentes periodos de la historia de la lengua inglesa, desde el periodo denominado *Old English* pasando por la evolución de esa categoría gramatical durante los periodos denominados *Middle English* y *Modern English* hasta la actualidad. Los textos compilados en este corpus pertenecen al periodo denominado como Late Modern English. La elección de textos científicos pertenecientes a ese periodo de la lengua no es fortuita ya que los eventos históricos y sociales que tuvieron lugar entre los siglos XVII, XVIII y XIX llevaron a la denominada revolución científica.

El capítulo cuatro se centra en el concepto de metadiscurso así como en otros conceptos con los que guarda una estrecha relación como son los conceptos de evidencialidad y modalidad epistémica. Además de aportar diferentes definiciones del concepto de metadiscurso, se diferencian las dos dimensiones

Interactive metadiscourse types	Subtypes	Function
Transitional markers	Additive markers Contrastive markers Consecutive markers	Relations of addition Relation of comparison Relation of cause and effect
Frame markers	Sequencers Topicalisers Discourse labels Announcers	The order of units The shift between topics Discourse stages Discourse goals
Endophoric markers	Anaphoric references Cataphoric references	References to previous text References to subsequent text
Evidential markers	Personal evidentials Impersonal evidentials	References to other scholars References to shared knowledge
Code glosses	Exemplification markers Reformulation markers	Meaning with examples Reformulation of discourse

del metadiscurso, *interactive and interactional*, y se especifican los subtipos, así como las funciones de cada uno de esos subtipos como se muestra en la siguiente tabla:

La dimensión calificada como *interactional* del metadiscurso se clasifica en once subtipos según su función: stance, hedges, boosters, attitude markers, self-mentions, engagement markers, reader pronouns, directives, questions, shared knowledge y personal asides.

En el capítulo cinco, se lleva a cabo el análisis del corpus de trabajo. Aquí, se estudian los adverbios terminados en *-ly* en los textos de historia siguiendo metodología de lingüística de corpus, que permite la búsqueda computarizada de casos de estos adverbios. Sin embargo, estas búsquedas no discriminan los datos siguiendo criterios pragmáticos o de análisis de discurso, por lo que se hace necesario un estudio manual de cada caso para descartar aquellos que no

cumplen con los criterios de búsqueda. En este capítulo, se demuestra que los adverbios en CHET tienen una función textual a la vez que indicadora de opinión y perspectiva acerca del contenido proposicional o de los eventos que estos califican o modifican.

Tal y como se indica en el apartado de conclusiones, en esta tesis se han analizado más de 4000 casos de adverbiales terminados en *-ly* encuadrados en el lenguaje científico, concretamente en textos históricos de los siglos dieciocho y diecinueve para comprobar las variaciones semánticas y pragmáticas, según el contexto comunicativo en el que se sitúan y, además para analizar las diferentes funciones pragmáticas que realizan en función de los diferentes contextos en los que se encuentran.

Un estudio futuro tendrá como objetivo ampliar la muestra extendiendo mi análisis a textos de diferentes disciplinas como ya he empezado a hacer en algunos estudios Álvarez-Gil (2018) con resultados bastante interesantes ya que existen diferencias en relación con la disciplina científica de que se trate y también teniendo en cuenta cuestiones relativas al género de los autores.

Otro proyecto que se desprende de esta tesis doctoral es el estudio de la relación que existe entre los verbos modales y algunos adverbios, pues se puede desprender de esta asociación información acerca de los procesos de gramaticalización que han sufrido estos verbos modales que se originan a partir de verbos léxicos en inglés antiguo.