AN ANALYSIS OF THE USE OF ADVERBS AND ADVERBIAL CLAUSES IN THE SENTENCES OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL PUPILS IN THE ASHANTI REGION OF GHANA

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ABSTRACT: The research shifts emphasis from the previously predominant area of analyzing the competence of Ghanaian school children in their use of the English Language by adopting the perspective of descriptive grammarians with much emphasis on process analysis. The study adopted qualitative and quantitative paradigm so as to adequately analyze the extent to which pupils in the Junior High School use adverbs and adverbial clauses in their sentences. In all, 100 pupils were selected using proportionate stratified sampling method. Essay texts and structured interview guide was used in gathering data from the sampled school pupils. After analysing using both qualitative and quantitative methods, the findings indicate that teachers and accessibility to language learning facilities play significant roles in second language acquisition.

KEYWORDS: English, adverbs, teachers, Junior High School, adverbial clauses

INTRODUCTION

Underscoring the position English occupies worldwide, Mydans (2007) posits that “riding the crest of globalization and technology, English dominates the world as no language ever has, and some linguists are now saying it may never be dethroned as the king of languages” (p1). He further stated: “it is the common language in almost every endeavor, from science to air traffic control and to a school girl playing with her friends…almost in any part of the world to be educated means to know English” (p.3). Corroborating Mydan, Rushdie (2007) commented: “The people who were once colonized by the language are now rapidly remaking it, domesticating it, becoming more and more relaxed about the way they use it” (p.3). Warschauer (cited in Myanmar Times, 2007) summarizes the influence of English by stating that it has become the second language of everybody.

This is very true among Ghanaians because English enjoys the status of a ‘language on which the sun never sets’ in the many societies (Blackwood et al., 2016). According to Nelson and Todd (1992:440), Ghanaians came in contact with English-speaking expatriates as early as the 16th century. Due to colonization, English has historically enjoyed pre-eminence in the Ghanaian society. Albakry and Ofori (2011) indicated that this dominance in the linguistic ecology of Ghana is as a result of the desire of the British to give a sense of cohesion to the separate political units they had annexed. Hence, English was imposed as the official language of the Crown Colony.

As a result, Sackey (1997) points out clearly that English has brought all (Ghanaians) together under one umbrella and, more importantly, it has come to stay as the official language of the country and the main medium of instruction in schools, and a means of conducting business in
several strata of the Ghanaian society. As the official language, therefore, English is the language used for full participation in the political and economic life of the nation. It is also the language used for international communication (Kobby, 2011). In effect, English became Ghana’s second language with individual indigenous languages being regarded as first language (for the purpose of this research).

English is acquired or learnt formally with the classroom being the place where such learning is provided. The period of learning English starts from the basic school through to the university or any tertiary level. Syllabuses for the English language for all the levels are graded. At the basic school level, for instance, the syllabus is structured along a movement from basic syntax through simple sentences to complex sentences. This facilitates a thorough understanding of the systems of rules for the language, especially the rule of placement of words within sentence, rules guiding the usage of verbs and other parts of speech. In this regard, Nordquist (2011) described these rules and pattern as a means of fostering precision and exploiting the richness of expressions in the English language. It aids a clearer understanding of how English works and enhances the individual’s ability to gain control over the way he or she shapes words into sentences and sentences into paragraphs. In brief, it facilitiates a speaker’s ability to become a proficient speaker and writer of the English language. It also helps speakers to balance the use of the traditional eight parts of speech. This balance, according to Nordquist, necessitates ample efforts on the part of teachers to adequately teach pupils in the Basic level proficient use of the parts of speech and not putting it aside for other less important items.

Adverbs, according to Pichler (2016), describes (modify) verbs, adjectives and other adverbs. In essence, they can be regarded as describing words. Adverbs are very important part of speech as shown in Figure 1. The diagram (Figure 1) shows that while adjectives describe or modify the subject (noun or pronoun); adverbs describe or modify a verb, an adjective or other adverb (Peters and Westerstahl, 2006). The slanted lines indicate the modifiers.

![Figure 1: Adverb and its function in sentences](Source: www.English-Grammar-Revolution.com)

While most teachers know the importance of part of speech in a sentence, Gelderen (2002), Reinard (2008) and Sher (2011) indicated that adverbs are part of grammatical (or functional) category of parts of speech that are often overlooked and not often examined with the main (lexical) category of parts of speech. In Junior High Schools, English learners are often first presented with the main parts of speech such as verbs and noun. Not much emphasis is put on the
part of speech that modifies or describes verbs or adjectives, which is the adverb’s role. This role, according to Shaw and Shaw (2003), is one that is very important because in both written and spoken English, it is impossible to provide adequate description of what an individual has done or is doing without an adverb. It is sine-qua-non to effective communication in the English language.

It is, therefore, expedient to conduct in-depth analysis on the proper use of adverbs and its relevance in the Basic schools in Ghana. In line with descriptive grammar, the researchers conducted this study not with the intent of highlighting errors or correctness in the use of adverbs by Basic schools pupils, rather as a means of demonstrating and underscoring the useful role adverbs play in ornamenting English as a living and preeminent system of communication.

The primary focus of the present study was to investigate adverb placement of Ghanaian Basic school children. The specific objectives are to establish the occurrence/frequency of proper placement of adverbs among JHS 1 and JHS 2 pupils and its implications, and to analyse the types of sentences employed by pupils in their essays and its grammatical constitution in terms of adverbial clauses. As such, the study was guided by the following questions: how often do JHS 1 and JHS 2 pupils use adverbs in terms of proper placement in their essays and what types of sentences were employed by pupils in their essays and its grammatical constitution in terms of adverbial clauses?

Based on these interests, the study will focus on the Junior High School pupils. The study was confined to JHS 1 and JHS 2 pupils in selected public schools in the Ashanti region of Ghana. Data for the study was limited to the essays written by the Subjects and questionnaire answered by the Subjects since it allows for continuous form for analysis unlike the spoken language which is associated with stops, starts, and repetitions.

**Defining the Problem**

The research deals with the children of the Ghanaian Basic School which begins from Basic Stage one to Basic Stage Nine (with Basic stages seven, eight and nine being the Junior High School 1, 2, 3). A perusal of the teaching syllabus for English Language (Junior High School 1-3) prepared by the Ministry of Education for schools in Ghana revealed that the study of adverbs is only given a cursory treatment in the first and second year and no mention of it in the third year whereas other parts of speech, such as verb forms were treated in all the stages.

With a minimal touch on this important part of speech, several students are unaware of its relevance; hence, they often experience difficulty in relation to its placement (Obeng-Dako, 2005). Though the adverb is invaluable as far as description of verbs are concerned, it has received little attention within the academic community in Ghana and beyond. Studies on analysis of adverb placement by students in the Basic schools from a descriptive perspective in terms of accurate placement and value are scanty. Most studies within the academic community consider analysis of adverbs from prescriptive perspective with error analysis as the focus. The notable research studies include McWhorter (2007) and Hutchings-Olsson (2011) on identifying errors in adverb placement in faulty sentences, Bublitz and Norrick (2011) and Jacquette and Kolak (2007) on comparison of the placement of adverbs in the written productions of native and non-native learners of English.
In Ghana, in-depth analysis regarding adverb placement (from a descriptive perspective) among Junior High School pupils, as far as this study is concerned is scanty. Hence, it is appropriate to conduct an in-depth analysis in relation to adverbs and their placement in the writings of Junior High School pupils, underscoring the frequency of usage, manner of usage and the general perception of adverbs among Ghanaian Basic school children.

The Literature
This review was undertaken with the primary goal of comparing the findings of this study and other studies so as to provide a basis for refuting or confirming earlier findings in connection with adverbs and its placement in sentences. The review has been grouped into the following sub-topics: Skinner’s Behaviourist Theory of language learning and Kachru’s Three Co-centric Model of World Englishes.

Skinner’s Behaviourist Theory of Language Learning
The work of Skinner (1957) marks a turning point in the philosophy of behaviourism as applied to human behavior. While several proponents of behaviourist theory (including Watson, Pavlov and Thorndike) focused on application of stimuli and responses to human behavior to language learning, Skinner extended his study to language learning. He took the position that children acquire language simply through being reinforced when they either imitate what they hear from adults or spontaneously produce utterances which adults find acceptable. The cardinal principle in language acquisition here is imitation and practice. This principle is also explained further by Laird et al (2008). Skinner sums up his views on the process of acquiring the first language by stating that:

“in teaching the young child to talk, the formal specification upon Which reinforcement is contingent are at first greatly relaxed. Any response which vaguely resembles the standard behavior of the community is reinforced. When these begin to appear more frequently, a closer approximation is insisted upon. In this manner, very complex verbal forms may be reached (pp. 29-30).

In short, language learning is viewed simply as a matter of imitation and habit formation. In relation to second language learning, theory of Behaviourism considers all learning, whether verbal or non-verbal as taking place through habit formation. A learner receives linguistic input from speakers in their environment and positive reinforcement for their correct repetition and imitation. As a result, habits are formed. In a behaviourist theory of second language learning, precise and tight control of input from the teacher is regarded as very important. The second language has to be presented in small, highly sequenced doses with plenty of practices and reinforcement. Individual bricks need to be carefully laid in a precise sequence to build second language skills and habits (Gelderen, 2002). Hence, the behaviourists assume that a person learning a second language starts off with habits associated with the first language, underscoring the need for a tutor or teacher to foster formation of new habits via correct repetition and imitation.
Kachru’s Three Co-centric Model of World Englishes

World Englishes has been defined as a phase in the history of the English language. This phase has witnessed the transformation of English from the mother tongue of a handful of nations to a language being used by far more speakers in non-mother tongue settings. The changes that have accompanied this spread – “the multiplicity of varieties - result not from the faulty and imperfect learning of the non-mother tongue speakers, but from the nature of the process of microacquisition, language spread and change.” (Brutt-Griffler, 2002:46). Among these varieties, the term, ‘New Englishes’ is used to describe regional and national varieties of the English language used in places, such as Ghana, where it is not the mother-tongue of the majority of the population.

In the book, *The Indianization of English*, Kachru (1981) coined the term non-native Englishes to refer to the variety of English which is not a native variety. This term has gained some popularity that Lakeoff (1975) and Bayley (2002) designate an English variety with the following characteristics as non-native English:

1. It has developed through the education system (possibly even as a medium of education at a certain level), rather than as a first language at home.
2. It has developed in an area where a native variety of English was not spoken by a majority of the population.
3. It is used for a range of functions (for example, letter-writing, government communications, literature, as a lingua franca within a country and in formal contexts).
4. It has become nativised by developing a subset of rules which mark it as different from American or British English.

In his model as shown in Fig. 2, Kachru uses three-concentric circles to represent the types of spread, the patterns of acquisition and the functional allocation of English in diverse cultural contexts (Biber and Conrad, 2009). Kachru’s concentric model is built on the historical context of English, the status of the language, its geographical distribution and its functions in various countries.

![Fig. 2: Kachru’s three-concentric model of World Englishes](image)

According to Kachru’s model shown in Fig. 2, the varieties of English spoken in outer circle countries have been called “New Englishes”, but the term is controversial. Expressing his
discontent about the expression “New English” (non-native English) Bamgbose (2007), who contended Quirk’s claim that non-native speakers make mistakes that disqualify them as true purveyors of the language, points out that arguments raised against the existence of non-native Englishes are not based on facts but from a prejudiced standpoint, neglecting the realities on the ground.

Pichler (2016), Lee and Seneff (2008), Loebner (1987), MacFarlene (2011) and Smith (1981) also argued that the term “New Englishes” is meaningless, in so far as no linguistic characteristic is common to all and only 'New Englishes' and all varieties are recreated by children from a mixed pool of features; so, all are 'new' in every generation (Malone, 1981; Maros et al, 2007). These points are certainly true, and it is important to avoid suggesting that the new (mainly non-native) varieties are inferior to the old (mainly native) ones. Nevertheless, the Englishes of India, Nigeria, Singapore and Ghana, with many other outer-circle countries do share a number of superficial linguistic characteristics which, taken together, make it convenient to describe them as a group separately from American, British, Australian, New Zealand, etc. varieties.”(Botlery, 2000; Neuman, 2002).

Non-native Englishes have several peculiar features. The variety used in West Africa remains a distinct variety known as West African Variety of English (WAVE). Various reasons have been given for the alterations found in the non-native society. Notable among them are languages learning strategies, influence of the mother tongue, exposure to the written language, and influence of native speakers as models (Zuniga and Diaz-Fernandez, 2014). Alterations that occur in the language can be seen at the level of pronunciation (Vowels: Bokamba, 1982 and Adjaye, 2005; Consonants: Bokamba, 1976; Spelling Pronunciation: Vort, 2004; Sey, 1973); Grammar (Syntax: Bokamba, 1982).

A number of studies have shown the lexicon to be the most interesting area of WAVE in that it reflects at its best the creativity and dynamism of this variety (Sey, 1973; Barth-Weingarten, Dehe and Wichman, 2009; Bamgbose, 2007; Bokamba, 1982). WAVE exhibits considerable morphological variations resulting from what appears to be lexical formation rules. These include ignoring the count and non-count dichotomy established in British and American English. Crystal (2003): p. 50) reports of sporadic pluralisation in his survey of the English used in newspapers in 1976-1977. The coinage exploits the processes of affixation, reduplication, compounding in the production of lexical items of different categories of verbs, nouns, adverbs, quantifiers and adjectives. Notwithstanding their sources, such words as enumerated above, which are found in institutionalized varieties in West Africa introduced variations into the English language.

METHODOLOGY

Population
The target population for this study was the Junior High School comprising JHS 1 and JHS 2. In line with Malhortra and Birks (2007) that population refers to the complete set of individuals (Subjects) having common observable characteristics in which the researcher is interested, all Junior High Schools in the country use the same syllabus for English prescribed by the Ghana Education Service (G.E.S), hence, the study had a population from which adequate selections
could be made within the Kumasi Metropolis. Specifically, the accessible population consisted of the of JHS 1 and JHS 2 pupils of the schools, due to their academic context. Unlike the JHS 3 pupils, JHS 1 and JHS 2 are less apprehensive academically since they are not preparing for the Basic Education Certificate Examination (BECE). Schools within the Kumasi metropolis were selected purposively for the study. The first schools were ‘A’ schools (labeled E.J.S.1) with better performance in several ramifications especially in terms of physical development and educational facilities. The reverse was the case for the second group of schools (E. J. S. 2) because they comprise pupils with minimal performance in terms of physical development and educational facilities. The total accessible population of pupils in these schools was 1004.

Sample and Sampling Procedure

The study employed the proportional stratified sampling technique in selecting 100 pupils for the study. This sampling technique was used because the selected pupils have the desirable characteristics as well as the information needed for the study. Sarantakos (2005) supports this idea by stating that the sample chosen should possess the needed characteristics for a research to be conducted. The sampling technique also facilitated the removal of any bias arising from interference from teachers.

The lottery method was used to select the Subjects. The selection of 100 pupils was done based on Neuman’s criteria for determining the sample size for a given population of 1000 or more, where 10% of the total population is used. Also, when the population is less than 1000, 30% of the population is used (Neuman, 2002). Therefore, the sample size of 100 pupils was the actual group of respondents from which data were collected to answer the research questions. A sampling frame was developed which consisted of an alphabetical list of names of students in each class. The names listed in the sampling frame were substituted with numbered paper so that each paper corresponded to a name of student. The papers were put in a container and mixed thoroughly and were randomly removed one by one without replacement. The number of any selected paper was registered to correspond to a student’s name. This process continued until the required number of students in each class was reached. The distribution of sample by schools is presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Sample distribution by schools

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Junior High Sch.</th>
<th>Population</th>
<th>Sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>E. J. S. 1</td>
<td>453</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E. J. S. 2</td>
<td>551</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Grand Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>1004</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N=100

Research Instruments

The research instruments were an essay test and structured interview guide. The test consisted of two pictures based upon which Subjects were to write a story. The pictures were such that the story could generate all the sentence types; so, a fair number of each sentence type was expected. The story written was the essay that was to be analyzed. The structured interview was also for the Subjects since it provides brief information regarding their background both educationally and
socially. It comprised 5 items. The use of these devices helped to overcome the limitations associated with the use of a single data collection instrument.

Data Collection Procedure
Pupils were given instructions on how to complete the structured interview guide. They were also enjoined to describe what they see in the two pictures. Guidelines were provided to each pupil on how to go about the exercise. Class teachers had also wanted to teach the children what they should write as they thought the children’s inability to write grammatical sentences were an indictment on them (the teacher). This could have interfered with the result of the study; hence, teachers were kept ignorant about which of the pupils in a class constituted the Subjects.

Analysis of Data, Results and Discussions
This study was rooted in both qualitative and quantitative methods of analysis. In analyzing the data, the quantitative method looked at the frequency of adverb usage in terms of correct usage. Qualitative method of analysis, on the other hand, dwelt briefly on educational background of pupils and the grammatical implication of selected essays in relation to adverb placement. Analysis was done via mixed method and was based on the two research questions for the study.

Research Question 1: How often do JHS 1 and 2 properly make adverb placement in their essays?
Essentially, this question was geared towards ascertaining the frequency/occurrence of adverbs in terms of proper placement in pupil’s essays so as to ascertain pupil’s level of familiarity with this lexical item. As depicted in Table 2, several adverbs posited by Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech and Svartvik (1985) have been used by E. J. S. 1 and E. J. S. 2 pupils but the frequency of usage appears significantly different from each other as some of the adverbs of focus (once, also, on, unfortunately) which comprises adverb of frequency and adverb of comment are used far more than adverb of place (there), time (then) or manner (happily).

Table 2: Class Distribution of the frequency of quantifier usage for JHS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class</th>
<th>Once</th>
<th>Also</th>
<th>There</th>
<th>On</th>
<th>Behind</th>
<th>When</th>
<th>Then</th>
<th>Out</th>
<th>Not</th>
<th>Very</th>
<th>Happily</th>
<th>Bitterly</th>
<th>Unfortunately</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>E. J. S. 1</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>489</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E. J. S. 2</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>527</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grand Total</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>1016</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N=100
Usage of the various adverbs is depicted in figure 2. In underscoring one major reason for higher use of adverbs of focusing, Karkkainen (2003) and Beare (2013) point out that unlike other traditional parts of speech, adverbs of focus are cross-categorical operators and are not bound to operate on a particular morpho-syntactic category. This type of adverbs can modify noun phrases (NPs), prepositional phrases (PPs), verb phrases (VPs), adjective phrases (APs) and adverbial phrases (AdvPs). More importantly, according to Crystal (2003), they are mobile. By mobility, Crystal indicated that these classes of adverbs can be placed in different positions of the same sentence and operate on different constituents of that sentence without changing the meaning.

Illustrating the higher frequency of adverbs of focusing, out of the 1016 adverbs of frequency/occurrences elicited in the data for the study, adverbs of focus constitute 407 (40.1%) of the total number of adverbs, while other forms of adverbs such as place, time and manner was 609 (59.9%). This means on the average, all the Subjects used adverbs of focus in their essays. The scores of various lexical items are represented in Figure 3. Examples of such usage are given below:

**Once upon a time, there were two boys going to school**
*(E. J. S. 1:1)*

**Unfortunately, the old man awoke and he took his gun**
*(E. J. S. 2:9)*

**Figure 3: Chart showing frequency/occurrence of Adverbs in the sentences of Subjects**

Research Question 2: What types of sentences were employed by pupils in their essays and its grammatical constitution in terms of adverbial clauses?
A closer look at the Subjects’ sentences also reveals different types of sentences ranging from simple to complex sentences. These are underscored below:

**The Simple Sentence:**

1. **Accidentally, the owner of the mango tree came out of his room with his gun and a bid dog…**
   *(E. J. S. 2:7).*

2. **Once upon a time, there lived two boys, Kofi and Yaw.**
   *(E. J. S. 1:13).*
The Compound Sentence:

i.  *Once upon a time there are two friends going to school and they saw some mango tree behind some house* …………..   (E. J. S. 1:23)

ii. *The boys termed to run away but they couldn’t*   (E. J. S. 2:12)

The Complex sentences

i.  *...when they criem the man who keep the mango came with his dog and gan and told Ofori and Kofi that they shold come*...   (E. J. S. 1:4)

ii. *They thought that there was no body in the house so they climbed the tree and the owner of the house came out of the house*...   (E. J. S. 2:2)

Findings from the data collected based on the background of pupils revealed that while all the pupils from varied backgrounds constructed different types of sentences in the essays, most of the pupils (32%) from E. J. S. 2 schools (schools with limited infrastructure, facilities and from low socio-economic background) wrote simple sentences in their essays in comparison to (16%) of the pupils from E. J. S. 1 schools (schools with adequate infrastructure, facilities and from higher socio-economic background). On the other hand, the study also revealed that there are more (68%) of the pupils from E. J. S. 1 schools with complex sentences in their essays in comparison to the (47%) of the pupils from E. J. S. 2 schools. These findings lend support to the Behaviourist theory by Skinner (1957) that precise and tight control of input from the teacher is regarded as very important because pupils from E. J. S. 1 were accessible to highly qualified teachers and necessary infrastructure and facilities to facilitate language learning as compared to E. J. S. 2 with little or no access to such caliber of teachers.

The Adverbial Clause in Complex Sentences constructed by the Subjects

The adverbial clauses used in the essays constituted the most numerous of all the subordinating clauses. Examples included the following:

i.  *When they are going they saw a mango tree in front of someone house*   (E. J. S. 2:17)   (Time)

ii. *They thought that there was nobody in the house so they stop to pluck some*…   (E. J. S. 2:19)   (Result)

iii. *As they were going, they saw a mango tree near a house, so they stop to pluck some*…   (E. J. S. 1:22)   (Time)   (Result)

iv.  *As soon as he climbed it, the owner of the mango tree came holding a gun and his dog with him.*...   (E. J. S. 2:25)   (Time)   (Result)

v.  *...and they showed where their school is*...   (E. J. S. 1:28)   (Place)

vi.  *The boys got down and ran as fast as their legs could carry them.*...   (E. J. S. 1:29)   (Manner)

vii.  They…went to check *if there was no one in the house*…   (E. J. S. 1:22)   (Condition)

The examples provided above as elicited from the Subjects are representative of the various adverbial clauses. The adverbial clauses of concession or contrast, manner and place were virtually absent. There was only one recorded instance of the use of adverb of manner, two clauses of place (with the rest being phrases) and no instance of the adverbial clause of concession or contrast. The
adverbial of time, subordinated by *when* was the most numerous and present at all the class levels and for both sexes. Even when the sentence was ungrammatical, Subjects were able to write the adverbial clause of time (and the other adverbial clauses too) correctly:

1. *When they crime*, the man who keep the mango came with his dog and gun
2. *When they look down*, they saw man wet a gun and a dog (E. J. S. 1:4) (Time)

In both examples there are grammatical mistakes but the syntactic ordering of the clauses are correct. The presence of the adverbial clauses of time and manner using the correlative conjunctions *as soon as* and *as fast as*, respectively (though each was used once) indicates that Subjects are aware of such conjunctions. It is worth noting that almost all the adverbial clauses took initial position in the sentences even though they could have taken the final position as well. This was especially true of the adverbial clauses of time involving *when*. This trend, however, seems to be supported by Quirk and Greenbaum (1973) that temporal clauses are common in initial position.

**CONCLUSION**

The following conclusions were drawn from the findings based on the specific objectives:

1. Findings from objective one revealed that on the average almost all the Subjects use adverbs and several others correctly placed the adverbs in their sentences.
2. The study also revealed that most of the pupils from E. J. S. 2 used simple sentences more than the E. J. S. 1 while the pupils from E. J. S. 1 employed more complex sentence thereby achieving syntactic complexity more than the E. J. S. 2 pupils.
3. Finally, results of the study revealed that adverbial clauses used in the essays of the pupils constituted the most numerous of all the subordinating clauses, and in cases where they made grammatical mistakes, the syntactic orderings of the clauses were correct.

**RECOMMENDATIONS**

The study recommends the following to help improve children’s use of adverbs in their speaking and writing skills:

1. In defining the problem, the study highlighted that a cursory look at the syllabi of the English Language for the Junior High Schools in Ghana shows that there is limited treatment of the subject of Adverbs in the Junior High Schools One and Two, with no treatment at all in the final year of the Basic School, J.H.S. 3. Even though it was established that most pupils use adverbs properly, this study recommends that the syllabi of the J.H.S. English textbooks 1 and 2 should adequately cover Adverbs into details, and year 3 should build on the content of the first two years, so that pupils can use them better than they currently do.
2. It was established that pupils from less endowed schools labeled EJHS 2 where adequate infrastructure and facilities are lacking used rather simple sentences as compared to their counterparts in EJHS 2 where adequate infrastructure and facilities exist. The latter was found to be more inclined to use more complex sentences resulting
in syntactic complexity. The study recommends that stakeholders in education must try to provide adequate infrastructure and facilities to all Basic Schools within the country and teachers must encourage pupils to stick to using simple sentences to avoid complexities in their syntax construction.

REFERENCES


