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Lectures in Grammar: Lessons Designed for First-Year LMD Students

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Introduction

This document contains grammar lectures for First-Year LMD students. It is designed according to the syllabus of grammar set up in the first year of English at the University of Chahid Hama Lakhdar- El Oued. These lectures are divided into five axes which include fourteen lessons, each of which is introduced by its learning objectives. Also, each lesson is concluded with one or two assignments (exercises) to transform the learner's theoretical knowledge into practice.

The first axis of lessons is devoted to indefinite, definite, and zero articles. They are given to consolidate grammatical knowledge, and to make learners familiar with the articles uses.

The second axis is concerned with nouns, and their different kinds, particularly of those relating to countable and uncountable nouns. These lessons attempt to raise students awareness of the different kinds of nouns, and to promote their knowledge in how to change nouns from masculine to feminine form, as well as from singular to plural in both regular and irregular cases.

The third axis of lessons deals with pronouns and their kinds. The empty subject is also dealt with. These lessons are designed to develop student's understanding of types, uses, and forms of pronouns.

The fourth axis focuses on adjectives, where highlighting the syntactic functions, kinds, positions, regular and irregular comparison of adjectives. These lessons are significant as to make learners know the function, positions, comparative and superlative forms of adjectives.

The last axis discusses adverbs (definition, kinds, and position). It is designed to have an overview of adverbs. Also, it is prepared to consolidate the competence and knowledge of learners to use adverbs in their correct positions.

Axis: I

1. The indefinite article: a/an

Objectives: At the end of this lesson, learners will be able to use indefinite articles correctly.

1.1 Definition:

Hornby (1998) lays down the meaning of the articles as follows: " either of the words 'a/an (the indefinite article) or 'the' (the definite article)." (p.57). Yule (2006) usually linked between the articles and nouns, for the article is always used with a noun. He made a distinction between three cases: " with nouns, we can use an indefinite article(a poet, an old woman), a definite article (the weather, the women), or no article (We' re studying - poetry written by - women)" (p.68).

1.2 Uses: (The indefinite article: a/an)

➡ We use the article (a) before noun phrases that begin with a consonant sound. Also, when the noun or noun phrase begins with a vowel but starts with a consonant sound, the article (a) is used. Here is an example that clarifies the above-mentioned rule:

- A university/ a European/ a one-part family.

➡ The indefinite article (an) can be used before words with a vowel sound. To illustrate this, the examples below are given: An orange/ an Italian/ an umbrella. In addition, this usage includes also words that begin with the silent letter "h" as seen in the following examples: An hour/ an honest child/ an honor/ an honorary degree. The indefinite article (an) is also used with abbreviations said as individual letters. For example, an IMF headquarters/ a FIFA official, but an OPEC meeting (Hewings, 2005, p.88).

➡ In his book "Advanced Grammar in Use", Hewings (2005) clarified the use of the indefinite article (a/ an) when referring to a specific but unnamed person, thing or event. According to him, the article (a/ an) not (one) is used, like saying: I really need a cup of

coffee(p.88). When we want to emphasize that a person is unknown, the indefinite article is used, such as: A Mr. Jones called while you were out(Vince & Sunderland, 2005, p. 106).

➡ In number and quantity expressions, the indefinite article (a/ an) can be also used. For example, five times **a** month / a few/ **a** huge number of.

➡ The indefinite article (a/ an) is used with possessives as in the examples that will be given, (a) is used rather than (one) in the pattern (a..... of): He is **a** college **of** yours./ That's **a** colleague **of** Peter's.

We can interchangeably use (one) or (a/an) that both refer to one thing, before a singular countable noun. E.g. We will be in Australia for **one** year.

➡ To emphasize the weight, the length of time, quantity and amount, (one) is used rather than (a). E.g. She weighs **one** hundred and thirty kilos would you believe it! (using **one** instead of **a** to emphasize the weight).

➡ In the pattern one.....other/ another, (one) is used, not a/an.

E.g. Close **one** box, and then the **other**./ Buses take passengers from **one** place to **another**.

➡ (one) can also be used in phrases like, **one** month/ **one** morning, **one** spring, etc. E.g. Hope to see you again **one** day./ **one** evening, while he was working late at the office (Hewings, 2005, 88).

➡ The indefinite article (a/an) is used to express what a person's job is, was, or will be i.e. when we introduce someone by mentioning his/ her job. For example, Tony is a builder./ He was **a** prime minister when he died (Vince & Sunderland, 2005, p. 106; Hewings, 2005, p. 92).

Practice: Put (a) or (an) in the appropriate gap?

1-..... ice cream.

2- He met honest man.

3-FAF headquarters.

4- university center.

5-..... euro currency.

6- He was..... ambassador when he tired.

7- Three times day.

8-OPEC official.

9-.....UN draft.

2. The definite article: (The).

Objectives: The purpose of this lesson is to help students recognize the definite articles uses.

2.1. Uses:

➡ When referencing to classes, the definite article (**The**) is used. For example, **the** Asian elephant is on the brink of extinction.

➡ National groups (groups as a whole): When referring to national groups, (**The**) is used. E.g. The British drink tea more than **the** German. The indefinite article (**a/an**) is used instead, when discussing single examples that are not constructed in the same way.

➡ Other groups: (**The**) is used with these groups, if they are plural. E.g. **The** Social Democrats, **the** Rolling Stones. However, if they are singular, zero article (no article) is used. E.g. Pink Floyd, Queen (Vince & Sunderland, 2005, p. 104).

➡ Unique objects: It means that we only have one of something i.e. there is only one of them, such as: **The** moon/ **the** sun/ the sea (Hewings, 2005, 90).

➡ Titles: They tend to be one-of-a-kind. For example, **the** director of studies. However, if these titles are followed by a description after them, the use of (**The**) is more likely, but it is not necessary. E.g. He became ambassador in 2001. He became (**the**) ambassador in 2001.

➡ Other titles: It is possible that the definite article (**The**) is included in the title. It should be capitalized. For instance, Newspapers: **The** Independent, **The** Sunday Times.

➡ Musical instruments: With musical instruments, (**The**) should be used. The following examples explain the use noted above:

- She beautifully plays **the** piano.
- The guitar is the most famous instrument (Vince & Sunderland, 2005, p. 104).

➡ Emphatic use: It means that we stress and emphasize nouns, like the example given below: This university is **the** place to study.

➡ Geographical names: When we refer to general geographical areas, (The) is also used, like: The beach/the countryside/ the seaside/ the forest (Hewings, 2005, 90). More detailed examples are given below by Vince and Sunderland (2005)

- ‘ Rivers: The Thames.
- Mountain ranges: The Alps.
- Oceans: The Mediterranean.
- Unique features: The Channel.
- Compass points(areas): The East, the Middle East
- Countries (collective or plural): The United Kingdom, the Netherlands.’”(p.105)

Exception: Mountain peaks (like Everest but the Matterhorn), continents (as Asia), and countries (France) are not included.

N.B. We sometimes use the definite article before Lebanon, and Gambia: The Lebanon/ The Gambia.

➡ Place names: Post-modification, particularly with ... of ... is important in place names. E.g. Harvard University and the Tower of London.

The zero article rules apply, when the first part of a place name is another name. The following example clarifies the case: Brown's Restaurant. The Garden House Hotel.

The same holds true for geographical names, such as the Isle of Man, Canvey Island. (Vince & Sunderland, 2005, p. 105).

➡ Importance of context: According to Vince and Sunderland (2005), the definite article is sometimes used to refer to items that have already been mentioned. The following example demonstrates show to use it in various contexts: His friend had a daughter and a sister. The daughter studies at university and the sister works in the factory (p.105).

Practice: Write (the) or (a/an) in the appropriate space?

1. French had been defeated by..... German.

2. Mrs. Ruth was singing when you were out.
3. He wonderfully plays..... flute.
4. Against his father's wishes, he likes to be lawyer.
5. John visited his grandmother two times..... week.
6. tiger is threatened with extinction.
7. Mississippi is one of the longest rivers in the world.
8. head of the department.

3. Zero article:

Objectives: This lesson will show learners how to use zero articles with nouns in specific situations.

3.1. Definition: Zero article means no article is used.

3.2. Uses: We sometimes use no article with names, some unique organizations, and streets.

➡ Names: In the following examples, a comparison is made between two sentences. Each one comprises the name: Mathew Smith. In the first sentence, the name is intended to be a person, but in the 2nd, the same name is intended to be a painting.

The 1st sentence: Mathew Smith is one of my favorite artists, (a person).

The 2nd sentence: A Mathew Smith hangs in their bedroom, (a painting).

Therefore, the name in the first sentence takes zero article, but in the second one takes an indefinite article.

➡ Some unique organizations do not use (the): With some unique organizations like parliament do not take the definite article (the) except some of them, such as The (House of) Commons. (Vince & Sunderland, 2005, p. 106)

➡ Streets: Most streets take no article, like Green Road, and Godwin Street. But there are some exceptions, such as The High Street, and the Strand.

Street names without preceding adjectives take zero article. For instance, Holly Drive, The Dive (Vince & Sunderland, 2005, p. 106).

Practice: Put in blanks the appropriate article: the zero article, definite article (the), or indefinite article (a)?

a-Boston Post Road.

b- House of Commons.

c-Green Road

d-Beale Street

e-Magnificent Mile.

f-Houari Boumedién is one of my favorite presidents, (a person).

g-Houari Boumedién hangs in her kitchen, (a painting).

Axis: II

4. Nouns: Definition and Kinds (Proper, Common, Abstract, Collective, and Compound nouns):

Objectives: This lesson aims at showing learners the definition of noun as well as the various types of nouns.

4.1. Definition:

Barbara Dykes (2007) stated that:

The word 'noun' comes from Latin nomen meaning 'name'. A noun is the name of thing. Everything that exists has a name whether you can see it or not. A blind person cannot see something, but that does not mean that it's not there! It may only exist in our minds, like hope, beauty or calories. (p.22)

Kittredge and Farley (1913) defined the noun as " the name of person, place or thing" (p.27).

4.2. kinds of Nouns:

4.2.1. Proper and Common nouns:

Nouns are classified into two categories: proper nouns and common nouns. A proper noun is a name of a specific person, place or thing, like Lincoln, Ruth, America, Christmas, etc. A common noun, on the other hand, is a name that can refer to a group of people, places, or things, such as general, emperor, street, town, dictionary, railroad, and so on. A proper noun is frequently composed of several words, some of which could be used as other parts of speech. Some examples are given: Eiffel Tower, White House, Sherman Act, Atlantic Railroad...

A proper noun becomes a common noun, when it is employed as a name that can be applied to any of a group of items. The following examples are clearly showing what explained above: Lend me your Webster. My fountain pen is a Black.

Some proper nouns can be transformed into common nouns when they are used in a specific context, and started with a small letter, like macadam(crushed stone for roads), napoleon(a coin), and guinea(twenty-one shillings) (Kittredge & Farley,1913, pp.27-28).

4.2.2. Abstract nouns:

Kittredge and Farley (1913) considered the abstract noun as the name of a quality or broad concept, such as blackness, freshness, elegance, grace, peace... According to the researchers, many nouns are derived from adjectives, such as depth from the adjective (deep), and freedom from the adjective (free) (p.29).

4.2.3. Collective nouns:

Kittredge and Farley (1913) defined the collective noun as " the name of group, class, or multitude, and not of a single person, place, or thing." (p.29).E.g. crowd, group, legislature. We sometimes use the same noun with two meanings: abstract in one and collective in the other. The following examples demonstrate this case: They believe in the fraternity. (abstract)/ - The student joined a fraternity.(collective).

Abstract noun is commonly used, but becomes proper when the quality or idea is personified; collective noun, on the other hand, can be either proper or common.

4.2.4. Compound noun:

The compound noun is made up of two words or more, as in sidewalk, steamboat, innkeeper, and window curtain. It can be written, as the example shown above, with or without a hyphen or separately written (Kittredge & Farley,1913, p. 30).

Practice: Use each kind of nouns above-mentioned in a meaningful sentence, then underline the kind of noun and write its kind?

5. Countable and uncountable nouns:

Objectives: This lesson attempts to present definitions for both countable and uncountable nouns. In addition, students will be able to distinguish between the use of countable and uncountable nouns.

5.1. Countable nouns:

Countable nouns can be singular or plural, whereas uncountable nouns are neither singular nor plural. Eastwood (2002) provided examples of countable nouns in singular and in plural, here are some of them: House(s), problem(s) (p.175). Countable noun is used to refer to persons, animals, and objects, as in lawyer, bird, car, cow, table, woman, hen, sky, and house. It can also refer to actions or events that can be thought of as separate individual things, like: departure, crash, goal, lecture, error, punch, riot, and so on (Yule,2006, p.75).

5.2. Uncountable nouns:

Uncountable nouns cannot be counted. They do not refer to individual things, but are used with singular verbs. We do not normally use uncountable nouns with the indefinite article (a/an). We use uncountable nouns when we are talking about substances and materials, like alcohol, wool, milk, meat, cement, oil, rice, salt, shampoo, etc. Uncountable nouns are also used to express abstract ideas, qualities, and states. For example, dignity, bravery, education, evidence, equality, justice, ignorance, hate, poverty, safety. In addition, uncountable nouns are used to talk about activities, as in examples below: Skiing, training, work, research, shopping, jogging, etc (Yule, 2006, p.74).

According to Yule (2006), some nouns, like, "advice" and "information" may have countable counterparts in other languages. Here are some examples of uncountable nouns that demonstrate what is stated above: "Applause, assistance, cash, equipment, evidence, furniture, health, homework, laughter, leisure, luck, machinery, money, permission, pollution, progress, rubbish, traffic, violence, etc" (p.74).

5.3 Countable and uncountable uses:

Yule (2006) explained the mixed-use between countable and uncountable nouns, stating that some nouns are used countably or uncountably depending on whether we are referring to a single thing, substance, or general concept. In the following example, a comparison is made between the same nouns:

They own a business	→	Business is booming.
He bought a chicken	→	Do you eat chicken?
There is a hair in my tea	→	He has long hair.
Did you hear a noise	→	There is too much noise (p.74).

Nouns, like "piece" or "drop" can be used in countable phrases, for example, "there was not a piece of furniture left in the house," and "I could see drops of blood on the floor."

The two nouns (furniture and blood) are considered as uncountable when we are talking about them as a separate units or parts of nouns, as in the example below:

- Nobody likes having to move **furniture**.

- They have **blood** on their sleeves (not they have a blood on their sleeves). In this context,

Yule (2006) gave other examples saying that: " Others like this include: an act of bravery, a bit of cheese, a bottle of water, a carton of milk, a chunk of concrete, items of information, sheets of paper, two slices of bread(not two breads)."(p.74)

Practice: Read the following sentences, and say whether the underlined nouns are countable or uncountable?

- a- There is a hair in my soup.
- b- She had long hair.
- c- They have blood on their sleeves.
- d- They had to use some glue to fix the bottle.
- e- I'd like some milk please!

- f- The exercises of this book are useful.
- g- They need some advice.
- h- The police had to know some information before entering the house.

6. Nouns: generic, pair, group, plural, and singular (+s):

Objectives: The main aim of this lesson is to make students know how to transform nouns from masculine to feminine, and how to make the regular and irregular plurals of singular nouns.

Inflection of nouns: Gender, number, person, and case have to be considered to study the inflection of nouns and pronouns.

Gender: It is related to distinction according to sex (male, female, or neuter).

Number: We mean a number of person or things. It shows whether the person or thing we are talking about is one person or thing or more than one.

Person: The speaker, the person spoken to, and the person or thing spoken of are meant.

Substantives: They have case inflections to show their grammatical relationships with verbs, prepositions, or other substantives.

6.1.1. Gender:

As previously stated, gender is related to sex distinction (male, female, or neuter). Male refers to masculine nouns and pronouns, such as boy, Joseph, buck, footman, butler, uncle, he etc. However, female refers to nouns and pronouns of feminine gender, as in girl, Ruth, cow, aunt etc. The neuter is used to denote nouns and pronouns that do not have animal life, such as door, table, oil, wall, copybook, key, cushion, it, etc.

➡ When a noun or pronoun is considered masculine and feminine at the same time, this is known as a common gender. For example, bird, speaker, artist, animal, cat, musician, and so on.

➡ With some nouns, we add an ending to change them from masculine to feminine. Many examples are showing how this transformation is made. See the table below:

Masculine	Feminine	Masculine	Feminine
Heir	Heiress	Executor	Executrix
Baron	Baroness	Administrator	Administratrix
Lion	Lioness	Hero	Heroine
Prince	Princess	Joseph	Josephine
Emperor	Empress	Sultan	Sultana
Tiger	Tigress	Philip	Philippa

Table 01: Gender: The Addition of an Ending. (Kittredge & Farley, 1913, p. 33).

Note: The ending (ess) is frequently used to indicate the feminine gender. The corresponding masculine form frequently is followed by (or) or (er), for example, actor/ actress, governor/ governess, waiter/ waitress. The ending (ess) was previously more prevalent. When there is no special reason to emphasize the sex difference, usage favors proprietor, author, editor, and so on.

➡ A few feminine nouns are changed to masculine by adding of an ending. For example, widow becomes widower; bride becomes bridegroom.

➡ Some nouns make their feminine or masculine by adding the following words at the end of nouns concerned: man, woman, maid, boy, or girl. For instance, salesman, saleswoman, , laundryman, milkman, cash boy, cash girl etc.

➡ We sometimes prefix nouns or pronouns to indicate their gender, as in Manservant, /maidservant, cock sparrow/ hen sparrow, boyfriend/ girlfriend, he-wolf/ she-wolf.

➡ An accompanying part of speech can indicate the gender of a noun. A pronoun is usually used for this. The following examples demonstrate the above-mentioned rule:

-The driver is washing **her** face (Kittredge & Farley, 1913, p.33).

6.1.2. Number:

Kittredge and Farley (1913) made a distinction between gender and number, and defined number as follows:

Number is that property of substantives which shows whether they indicate one person, place, or thing or more than one. There are two numbers, the singular and the plural.

The singular number denotes but one person, place, or thing. The plural number denotes more than one person, place, or thing. (p.34)

Azar (2003) explained in her book the transformation from singular to plural stating that most nouns in English make their plural by adding (s). It is considered as the regular case. The authoress gave many examples, and here are some of them: one bird/ two birds, one street/ two streets (p.158).

6.1.2.1. Special plural or Irregular plural:

➡ The plural of all nouns ending in (s), (x), (ch), or (sh) is formed by adding (es), for example, boss/bosses, fox/foxes, buzz/buzzes, match/matches, clash/clashes.

➡ When a noun ends in (o) and is preceded by a consonant, the plural is formed by adding (es), like volcano/volcanoes, cargo/cargoes, tomato/tomatoes, negro/negroes, buffalo/buffaloes, except nouns borrowed from other languages make their plural by adding (s), as in piano/pianos, zero/zeros, photo/photos (Traffls, 2017, para. 05).

➡ When a noun ends in (y) and is preceded by a consonant, its plural is formed by changing (y) to (i), and adding (es). For example, lady/ ladies, daisy/daisies sky/skies, fly/flies. However, nouns that end in (y) and preceded by a vowel form their plural by adding (s), such as valley/valleys, day/days, boy/boys, monkey/monkeys.

➡ Most proper names that ending in (y), but their plurals are formed by adding (s). It makes no difference whether their final (y) is preceded by a consonant or a vowel, like

Mary/Marys, Murphy/Murphys, Daly/Dalys, Rowley/Rowleys, May/Mays (Betts, n.d. para. 16; Kittredge & Farley, 1913, p.35).

➡ The plural of nouns that end in (f) or (fe), is formed by transforming the (f) to (v) and adding (es) or (s). The following examples are showing the above-mentioned case: Wolf/wolves, wharf/wharves, shelf/shelves, loaf/loaves, sheaf/sheaves, elf/elves, beef/beeves, half/halves, calf/calves, self/selves, life/lives, wife/wives, knife/knives.

➡ A few nouns, such as ox/oxen, brother/brothren (or brothers), child/children. make their plural by adding (en).

Note: This class includes the following ancient or poetical plurals: Eyee (for eyen, from eye), kine (cows), shoom (shoes), horsen (horse).

➡ The plural of a few nouns can be made by simply changing the vowel, as in man/men, woman/women, merman/mermen, foot/feet, tooth/teeth, goose/geese, mouse/mice, louse/lice (Kittredge & Farley, 1913, p.35).

➡ Nouns that are suffixed by (man), or (woman) follow the same rule. For example, fireman/firemen, saleswoman/saleswomen, Dutchman/Dutchmen. But nouns that are not suffixed by (man) form their plural regularly by adding (s), as in Germans, Mussulmans, Normans.

➡ It is worth noting that some nouns keep the same form in singular and plural, for instance, deer/ deer, sheep/ sheep, heathen/ heathen.

6.1.2.2. The plural of compound nouns:

The last part of compound noun is generally written in plural form; the first part sometimes does so; rarely the both parts. For example, "spoonful/spoonfuls, bathhouse/bathhouses, forget-me-not/forget-me-nots, editor-in-chief/editors-in-chief, gentleman usher/gentlemen ushers, Knight Templar/Knights Templars, Lord Justice/Lords Justices, manservant/menservants" (Kittredge & Farley, 1913, p.36)

The plural of letters of the alphabet, figures, signs used and words make their plural by adding ('s), as in the following examples:

- "Embarrassed" is written with two r's and two s's
- Your S's look like 8's
- Do not interrupt me with your but's! (Kittredge & Farley, 1913, p.36).

Practice 01: Rewrite the following sentences with the opposite number of the nouns that are written in bold?

- a. Forget-me-not is a beautiful flower rich of symbolism.
- b. Editor-in-chief
- c. **Deer** are hoofed mammal animals.
- d. My wife works as a teacher at university.
- e. The ox is a male bovine animal.
- f. The **saleswomen** are women whose jobs involve selling products.
- g. **Cameos** are pieces of jewelry used for the ornaments.

Practice 02: Find out the opposite gender of the following nouns?

- a. Heir 
- b. Hero 
- c. Maidservant 
- d. Emperor 
- e. Administrator 
- f. Authoress 
- g. Widower 

Axis: III

7. Definition and kinds of pronouns:

Objectives: This lesson seeks to present the definition of pronouns, and to clarify the uses and forms of personal pronouns.

7.1. Definition of pronoun:

Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (1998) defines the pronoun as " a word used in place of a noun or noun phrase, e.g. he, it, hers, me, them, etc." (p.928). Yule (2006) lays down the meaning of pronoun as "pronouns are forms, such as it, some, these, they, them, theirs, themselves, and each other that we use instead of nouns and noun phrases." (p.96)

7.2. Kinds of pronouns:

7.2.1. Personal pronouns:

According to Eastwood (2002), the personal pronoun is used for both the speaker (I) and the person being addressed (You). (He), (She), (It), and (They) are used to refer to other people and things when the context clearly indicates what we mean. For example, **Peter** is not coming with them. **He** is not very ill.

➡ (You), (one), (We), and (They), have special uses, they can be used to refer to people in general. The following examples clarify what is abovementioned:

- You cannot buy much or a pound.
- They are putting up the prices (p. 233).

Eastwood (2002) exposed a table, in which he clarified the different forms of personal pronouns as follows:

	Singular		Plural	
	Subject	Object	Subject	Object
1 st person	I	Me	We	Us
2 nd person	You	You	You	You

3 rd person	He	Him	They	Them
	She	Her		
	It	It		

Table: 02: The different forms of personal pronouns. (Eastwood, 2002, p. 234)

The personal pronoun (I) is usually written with a capital letter. As the following examples demonstrate, the personal pronoun (You) is the unique second-person form:

- **You** are quite right, James. – **You** are late, all of you.

When the pronoun is the subject, the subject form is used, e.g. **I** could not inform you. It is also used when the pronoun is not the subject, like you tell **me** about **him**. However, the object form is used when the pronoun stands alone. The comparison is made between the two examples as follows:

- Who broke the glass? ~~~ **I** did.
- Who broke the glass? ~~~ **Me**.

The subject pronoun is sometimes used as complement, like:

- The young woman looked rather like Ruth, but it was not her/ **she**.
- What's that? ~~~ It's him/ It is **He**.
- Peter knows all about it. It was him/he who told me.

The subject pronoun in that position is archaic and often formal, whereas the object pronoun is common, especially in informal speech. In the following examples, Eastwood (2002) explained the ability to use (and) or (or) with a pronoun, especially with (I) and (You).

- " **Matthew** and **I** are good friends.
- Would **you** and **your** sisters like to come with me?
- Sarah did not know whether to ring **you** or **me**. " (p.235)

Regarding the position I/me, Eastwood stated that we normally put them (I/me) last, not "I and Matthew are good friends."

We sometimes use the object pronoun in the position of the subject when we have a phrase with (and) or (or), as in this example:

- Peter and **me** are good colleagues.
- **They** or **us** can have a turn now.

The above-mentioned use occurs only in informal English, and is widely considered as incorrect by many people. Eastwood stated that some people use incorrectly the pronoun (I) even when the phrase is not the subject. E.g. It's a gift from **Peter and I**.

The pronoun is not normally used together with the noun, but it can come after the noun in this pattern with (as for), for example, as for **Peter**, he's quite small. In informal speech, (as for) can be left out, like in these examples:

- **Peter**, he's quite small. – Those new students, I met them last year.

The following examples are showing how this pattern is used in informal speech:

- He's quite small. **Peter**.
- It was late, the fire o'clock train.
- I met them yesterday, those new students.

A phrase can be sometimes used after a pronoun to modify it, as in the following examples:

- She alone must leave.
- Look at them over there.

A noun phrase is sometimes used after a pronoun to clarify who or what the pronoun refer to. E.g. **Peter** was waiting for James. He, **Peter**, felt worried. He (**Peter**) felt worried (Eastwood, 2002, p. 235).

Practice: Say whether the personal underlined pronouns in the sentences below are in subjective or objective forms, then classify the sentences into two groups: Formal, and informal?

- Peter and I are working together in the same company.
- James and me are working together in the same company.
- John did not know whether to help you or me.
- I saw them yesterday, those new workers.
- Would you and your parents like to come with me?
- She's quite small. Ruth.

8. Kinds of pronouns(Possessive, Demonstrative, Indefinite)

Objectives: The main aim of this lesson is to familiarize students with the types of pronouns (possessive, demonstrative, and indefinite), as well as their uses and forms.

8.1. Possessive pronouns:

Yule (2006) enumerated and explained the use of the possessive pronouns saying that: "The possessive pronouns are: mine, yours, his, hers, ours, and theirs. We use them in place of possessive noun phrases(Mary's room) and in answer to question with Whose?"(p.97). The author provided respectively examples about the use of possessive pronouns instead of possessive noun phrases and in answer to questions "with whose?"The examples are as follows:

- I couldn't work in Mary's room.
- **Hers** is even smaller than yours or **mine**.
- Whose car is this? ~~ I thought it was yours.
- It isn't mine.(not It isn't the mine)

According to Yule (2006) possessive pronouns are used in of-phrases (of mine) after noun phrases that begin with determiners or quantifiers, like a, some, etc. The following are examples that prove what above- mentioned:

- Is Peter a neighbor of **yours**?
- I went skiing with some neighbors of **mine** (p. 97).

8.2. Demonstrative pronouns:

The demonstrative pronoun is also termed **demonstratives**. Yule (2006) enumerated different uses of pronouns. He stated them as follows: This, that, these, and those. In addition, the researcher differentiated between (this, these), and (that, those). (This), and (these) are used for near things that are closely related to the speaker; however, (that), and (those) are used for things that are further away. Here are some examples:

- **This** is quite heavy. } picking up a box and some letters At the post office.
- **These** look like bills. }
- **That** must have books in it. } pointing to the box and letters across a room.
- **Those** are just bills. }

➔ (This), and (these) are used to introduce people, but (that) and (those) when we want to identify people. Here are some examples:

-**This** is James and these are his two brothers, John and Peter. (introducing people).

-**That's** Mrs. Ruth and those are her two daughters. (identifying people in the distance).

➔ The demonstrative pronouns are also used as determiners before nouns. E.g. **That** man, and those kids.

➔ The demonstrative pronoun is used to contrast what is close in time (this, these), like shown in the following examples:

- The next question is this: who will pay for it?
- **These** are the best days of your life, so enjoy them.

➔ (**That**) and (**those**) are used when we make a contrast between what is further away in time. Such as:

- James and Ruth got married? When did **that** happen?
- **Those** were the happiest days of my life as a child (Yule.2006, p. 98).

8.3. Indefinite pronouns:

Indefinite pronouns may express persons, objects, places, or manners. We combine (any), (some), (every), and (no) with nouns or adverbs to form pronouns. The following table is showing the above-mentioned use:

Person	Object	Place	Manner
Someone/ body	Something	Somewhere	Somehow
Anyone/ body	Anything	Anywhere	Anyhow

Everyone/ body	Everything	Everywhere	-
No one/ body	Nothing	Nowhere	-

Table 03: Indefinite pronouns. (Foley, & Hall, 2003)

Foley and Hall (2003) explained the use of the indefinite pronoun (anyhow) as an informal pronoun when it expresses manners, then they clarified how to write (no one) saying that: " Anyhow is informal and is similar to anyway: Anyhow, as I was saying... We usually write no one as two words, we write nobody as one word." (p.267)

Indefinite pronouns are used to talk about people and things. Here are some example:

- **Someone** must have taken my book.
- The fire destroyed **everything**.
- We could not find **anything** afterwards.

When the indefinite pronoun functions as a subject in the sentence, the verb is used in singular form, and the pronoun is in plural, as in the following example:

- **Someone** has knocked the door saying **they** have to talk to you about their job.
- If **anyone** comes, just take **them** to my house and say I will come back as soon as possible.

According to Yule (2006), (someone), and (something) are used in positive sentences or questions that are expected to yield positive responses, as in the following examples:

- I' am looking for someone who spoke English.
- Are you saying something about the work?

Anyone and anything (someone, and something) when we mean "It doesn't matter who or what."Such as,

- It is very easy, **anyone** can do it.
- Bill is extremely helpful, he will do **anything** you ask him to.

They are also used (anyone and anything) in sentences with negative elements or in open questions, as in the following examples:

- Can you ask **anyone** here?
- I don't say **anything**. (Not I don't say something.)

According to the classification provided by Foley and Hall (2003), indefinite pronouns(somewhere), (anywhere), (everywhere), and (nowhere) are indefinite adverbs.

Yule (2006, p. 98) also considered them as indefinite adverbs which can be used to refer places in a general sense. For more clarifications, the following examples are provided:

-Let's go **somewhere** new for dinner. ~But there is nowhere within walking distance.

-I have gone **everywhere** to look for job.

"Adjectives" and "else" can be used after indefinite pronouns and adverbs, as in the examples

below: " -Do you have **anything** smaller?

-I think he is **someone** important.

-There is **nothing** new here.

- Do you want **anything** else?

-It was not me, It was **someone** else.

- There is **nowhere** else nearby" (Yule,

2006, p. 98).

Practice: Fill in the gap with the correct pronoun?

These/ mine/ anything/ nothing/ hers/ everything/ this/ yours/ somewhere

- a- There is different there.
- b- I went shopping with friends of
- c- Is Donald a classmate of?
- d- is quite light.
- e- The volcano destroyed
- f- Let's go different for breakfast.
- g- is Tony and these are his two sons, Henry and Bill.
- h- Do you want else?

i- are the best days of your life, so enjoy them.

j- is even taller than yours or

9. Other Kinds and Empty subject:

Objectives: This lesson tends to clear up the confusion of using reflexive and intensive pronouns (their uses and forms in singular and plural). Also, it clarifies the different uses of the empty pronoun (it).

9.1. Reflexive pronouns:

We generally use reflexive pronouns in three cases: First, when the subject and the object are the same, such as I hurt myself. Second, when the pronoun is used as the object of a preposition, and refers to the subject, like Jack ought a book for **himself**. Third, when we want to emphasize the subject, such as I will do it **myself**.(no one else will help me). They ate all the food **themselves** (no one else had any) (Zoubir, 2003, p.16).

In the table below, the reflexive and intensive pronouns in the singular and in plural are compared:

Reflexive		Intensive
When a personal pronoun in a sentence refers back to the subject, it is called a reflexive pronoun.		When a personal pronoun comes after a noun or another pronoun, it is called an intensive pronoun.
	Singular	Plural
1 st person	Myself	Ourselves
2 nd person	Yourself	Yourselves
3 rd person	Herself/ Himself/ Itself	Themselves
Reflexive examples		Intensive examples
I cut myself .		Ahmed, himself , apologized.
They work by themselves .		Khadidja, herself , was not sure.

Table 04: Reflexive and intensive pronouns. (Zoubir. 2003, p.17)

As explained above, reflexive and intensive pronouns are structurally the same, but they are syntactically different. While reflexive pronouns refer back to the subject, intensive ones are related to the object of the sentence.

Marileni and Mitchell (2012) stated that reflexive pronouns are also used to form idioms, as in

- " Enjoy yourself= have a good time.
- Behave yourself = be good.
- Help yourself to (sth) = you are welcome to have an amount of sth" (p.73).

9.2. Empty subject (it):

According to Meacham (2015), "empty subjects are subjects that don't mean anything. We speak with them all the time, and the two most common ones are (it) and (there)" (para. 03). Yule (2006) stated that the empty subject (it) is used with the auxiliary (to be) in expressions of time, distance, and weather. He provided some examples as follows:

- **It's** eleven o'clock(time).
- **It's** two miles to town(distance).
- **Is** it raining? (Not is raining?) (weather).

(It) is used as a personal pronoun when it refers to a thing or animal, as in the following examples:

- Where is the breadknife? ~~ **It's** in the drawer.
- We saw their new puppy. **It** was really cute.

➡ The empty subject (it) can be used with the auxiliary (to be) before an adjective or noun+ a gerund or infinitive. Here are some examples

- **It** was nice talking to you.
- **It's** an advantage having a rich father.-
- **It's** not wise to hike in the mountains by yourself.

➡ The auxiliary (to be) is not the only verb used with (it). Other verbs like: Surprise, frighten, seem, and appear may be also used. The following examples show the use of the verbs: Surprise and frighten + an object to describe reactions:

- It surprised everyone that Marion won.
- It really frightened me to see the horse and rider fall.

➡ The verbs: Seem and appear are used after (it) to express a conclusion, as in the examples below:

- It seems that he was unhappy in London.
- It appears that he has been neglecting his studies.

➡ The empty subject (it) can be also used after liking verbs (or not liking verbs) before a noun clause. Here are two examples:

- I hate it when the alarm suddenly goes off.
- My parents love it that we live closer now.

➡ The empty subject can be used after verbs, like : Find, make, and think, but before an adjective + a clause or infinitive, as written in the examples below:

- I find it surprising that you waited so long.
- The loud music made it difficult to talk.

➡ We sometimes use the empty subject (it) after some verbs that express an opinion, such as regard, see, view, provided that we put (as) after (it), as in the following example:

- They regard it as encouraging that both sides are willing to continue negotiations (Yule. 2006, p. 102).

Practice: Add the pronouns **we**, **you**, and **it** plus the appropriate reflexive pronouns in the following text?

They say that if you want something done right,have to do it and we all know that if something is broken, certainly won't fixAs a result, there are many more DIY('Do It Yourself ') shops in Britain these days. It seems that..... have all suddenly decided to do our home repairs..... . So are all the real builders and plumbers out of work now? (Adapted from: Yule, 2006, p. 101).

Axis: IV

10. Definition, Syntactic functions, and Kinds of Adjectives

Objectives: This lesson seeks to provide definitions of adjectives and their syntactic functions.

It also presents to learners the different types of adjectives that are illustrated by examples.

10.1. Definition:

According to Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary, the adjective is:

a word that indicates a quality of the person or thing referred to by a noun, e.g. big, rotten, foreign, in a big house, rotten apples, foreign names: 'predictable' is an adjective that could never be applied to any of my family. (Hornby, 1998, p. 15)

Another definition is given by Dykes (2007), which is concerned with the word's etymology and definition. The researcher explains the origin of the word (adjective), then gives grammatically its definition saying: "The word 'adj' is from Latin ad jacere meaning 'throw to' or 'ad'. In the grammatical sense, this means to add the characteristic of something, i.e. to qualify it" (p.53). Rayesvka (1976) defined the adjective as:

A word which expresses the attributes of substances (good, young, easy, soft, hard, wooden, flaxen) . as a class of lexical words adjectives are identified by their ability to fill the position between noun-determiner and noun and the position after a copula-verb and a qualifier. (p.89)

10.2. Syntactic functions of adjectives:

According to Quirk, Greenbaw, Leech, and Svaticrk (1973, pp. 114-115), adjectives have two major syntactic functions: Attributive, and predicative. The researchers provided examples to clarify them. Regarding the attributive function, the examples are as follows: "The **beautiful** painting", and "his **main** argument." Those adjectives function as attributive when they premodify nouns. The examples that are concerned with the predicative function are: Your daughter is **pretty**. They may be also used as an object complement, such as he

made his wife **happy**. In addition, predicative adjectives may function as a complement to a subject that can be a finite clause. The following example shows clearly this case: Whether he will resign is **uncertain**. But the subject sometimes becomes a non-finite clause, as in: Driving a bus is not **easy**. Furthermore, those predicative adjectives can similarly function as an object complement to a clause, as in the following example:

what he did	{	foolish.	}
I consider			
playing so hard			

10.3. Kinds of adjectives:

Based on their meaning, Adjectives are divided into two large categories: qualitative adjectives and relative adjectives. Rayesvka (1976) defined qualitative adjectives as those that indicate qualities of size, shape, color, and so on. They have degrees of comparison, but relative adjectives express characteristics of an object based on its relationship to another object, such as woolen coats  Coats made of wool (p. 89).

Thomson and Martinet (1986, p.22) stated in their book the kinds of adjectives. According to them, the most common types of adjectives are:

- Demonstrative adjectives, like this, that, and those.
- Distributive adjectives, such as each, every, either, and neither.
- Quantitative adjectives, as some, any, no, little, few, many, much, one, and twenty.
- Interrogative adjectives, for example, which, what.
- Possessive adjectives, for instance, my, your, his, her, its, our, your, and their.
- Adjectives of quality, such as clever, dry, fat, golden, good, heavy, square... etc.

10.4. Participles used as adjectives:

As adjectives, the present participle (ing) and past participle (ed) can be used. Thomson and Martinet (1986) gave examples about the two kinds of participle, emphasizing the importance of distinguishing between them.

Present participle adjectives, such as interesting, boring. They are always used in active form and meant "having this effect", but past participle adjectives are always used in passive form and meant "affected in this way." E.g. amused, bored, tired, etc.

In order to explain the difference between present participle adjectives and past participle adjectives, Thomson and Martinet (1986) provided the following examples:

- "The play was boring. (The audience was bored).
- The work was tiring. (The workers were soon tired).
- The scene was horrifying. (The spectators were horrified).
- An infuriating woman. (something made her furious) " (p.22).

10.5. Agreement:

Adjectives do not change, they use the same form for both singular and plural masculine and feminine nouns.

Practice: Underline the adjectives in the following sentences, then say to which kind they belong?

- a. Each student is given his/her paper of exam.
- b. The loud music made it difficult to talk.
- c. Which watch wrist do you prefer?
- d. Many protestors destroyed cars and buses not far from the White House..
- e. Those teachers participated in the strike.
- f. The scene was horrifying.

11. Position, Regular and Irregular comparison:

Objectives: By the end of the lesson, students will be able to identify the exact position of adjectives in sentences. In addition, regular and irregular comparisons are highlighted to help students recognize the use of comparative and superlative forms of adjectives as well as the irregular comparison.

11.1. Position of adjectives:

Except for predicative adjectives, all the above-mentioned adjectives come before their nouns. They are termed attributive adjectives, such as this book, which boy, and my dog. However, adjectives of quality can be used either before their nouns, like a smart boy, or after verbs, as in: be, become, seem, appear, feel, get grow (become), keep, look (appear), make, smell, sound, taste, and turn. E.g. Peter became rich, Tom felt cold. Those adjectives are known as predicative adjectives, and verbs that go with them are termed: **link verbs** or **copulas** (Thomson & Martinet, 1986, pp.22-23).

Note: The following verbs: be, become, and seem may be not used as link verbs. In this case, they are modified by adverbs. The examples below are explaining the above-mentioned note:

- He looked calm (adj)= He had a calm expression.
- He looked calmly (adv) at the angry crowd, (looked he is a deliberate action).

According to Thomson and Martinet (1986), some adjectives are used only as attributives or only as predicatives. Some of them are changed in their meaning when their positions are displaced, as in the following examples:

- "A small farmer (a man who has a small farm).
- The farmer is small (he is a small man physically)" (p. 23).

11.2. Comparison:

11.2.1. Regular Comparison:

Thomson and Martinet (1986) mentioned three degrees providing examples about them, but one example is taken:

Positive		Comparative		Superlative
Dark	→	Darker	→	Darkest.

Those comparative and superlative forms are appropriate for one-syllable adjectives by adding (er) and (est) to the positive form. On the other hand, (more) and (most) are added to adjectives of three or more syllables to form their comparative and superlative.

E.g. interested → more interested → most interested.

But two-syllable adjectives follow one or other of the preceding rules. In this context, the researchers provided examples as follows:

"- Doubtful	→	more doubtful	→	most doubtful.
- Obscure	→	more obscure	→	most obscure.
- Clever	→	cleverer	→	cleverest.
- pretty	→	prettier	→	prettiest" (p. 24).

We observe through examples that adjectives ending in (ful) or (re) usually take (more) and (most) whereas those adjectives ending in (er), (y), or (ly) form their comparative and superlative by adding (more), and (most)

11.2.2. Irregular Comparison:

Thomson and Martinet (1986, p.25) gave many examples about irregular comparison.

They are as follows:

- "Bad	→	worse	→	worst
- Far	→	farther	→	farthest (of distance only)
		Further	→	furthest (used more widely)

- Good \longrightarrow better \longrightarrow best
- Little \longrightarrow less \longrightarrow least
- Many/much \longrightarrow more \longrightarrow most
- Old \longrightarrow older \longrightarrow oldest (of people only)
- Older \longrightarrow oldest \longrightarrow eldest (of people and things) "

Practice: In the table below some of adjectives are included. Form their comparative and superlative forms?

Adjectives	Comparative	Superlative
Shy		
Long		
Crazy		
Frozen		
Difficult		
Healthy		
Ugly		
Crowded		
Lazy		

Axis: V

12. Adverbs: Definition, kinds, and position(Adverbs of manner)

Objectives: This lesson attempts to define the adverb. It aims at making the students aware of the different kinds of adverbs. It also helps learners to be familiar with the adverbs of manner and their positions.

12.1. Definition:

The word "adverb" has two parts: ad+ verb. Here we understand that something is added to the verb or to the action to be changed. Swan and Walter (n.d.) defined adverbs as " words like easily, slowly, yesterday, there. Adverbs tell you, for example, how, where, when or why something happens"(p.199). The Oxford Dictionary also defined the word (adverb) as " a word that adds more information about place, time, circumstances, manner, cause, degree, etc to a verb, an adjective, a phrase or another adverb." (Hornby, 1998, p.18). From the definition above-mentioned, the kinds of adverbs can be extracted. Thus, the kinds are: Adverbs of place, time, circumstances, manner, cause, and degree.

12.2. Kinds of adverbs:

Adverbs have many kinds, they are as follows:

- Adverbs of manner ➡ badly, quickly, softly, fast, happily, hard...
- Adverbs of place ➡ indoors, somewhere, by, down, here, near...
- Adverbs of time ➡ then, afterwards, now, soon, still, today...
- Adverbs of frequency ➡ ever, always, never, occasionally...
- Adverbs of degree ➡ almost, fairly, hardly, quite, rather...
- Interrogative adverbs ➡ How? When? Where? Why?...
- Relative adverbs ➡ How, When, Where, Why...
- Sentence adverbs ➡ Certainly, definitely, luckily, surely
- Emphasizing adverbs ➡ Pretty, almost, quite, terribly, extremely...

➡ "Badly" and "well" are adverbs of manner or degree. They follow an active verb, and an object, or come before the past participle in a passive verb when it expresses the manner. E.g.

- He acted badly.
- She wrote well.
- They paid him badly.
- They speaks English well.
- He was badly paid.
- The lesson was well prepared.

➡ When "badly" expresses the degree, it is usually used after the object or before the verb or past participle. See the examples below:

- The car needs fuel badly.
- The car badly needs fuel.
- She was badly treated by the police.

➡ But "well" have the same position rules when it expresses the manner or degree. The examples below show clearly this position:

- I would like the lesson well prepared.
- He knew the lesson well.
- The worker were well trained.

➡ The meaning of "well" may differ accordingly to its position, such as:

- You know well that I can't read (there can be no doubt in your ... mind about this).
- You know that I can't read well.(I'm not a good reader).

➡ "Somehow"/ "Anyhow": We can place "somehow" in the front position or after a verb without object or after the object.

E.g. -Somehow they managed./ -They raised the money somehow./ -They managed somehow.

➡ Anyhow is used to mean in any case/ anyway (Thomson & Martinet, 1986, p. 36).

Practice: Rewrite the following sentences, and put the adverbs of manner in the right position? (Adverbs are written between parentheses).

- a. They did his work well (well).
- b. He looked at me(suspiciously).
- c. She picked up all the bits of broken glasses (slowly).
- d. They worked (Somehow).
- e. He behaved(badly).

13. Position of adverbs: (Adverbs of place, time, frequency)

Objectives: The main goal of this lesson is to introduce students to other types of adverbs (Adverbs of place, time, and frequency). It also tends to highlight and explain how and where they are used.

13.1. Adverbs of place:

Adverbs of place and direction are normally placed at the end of sentences, although they might be placed in the front to highlight locations. It could be also used to emphasize what happens at the end. This order is most common in formal descriptive writings and reports. The following two examples clearly indicate the two positions:

- He hid the bicycle in the hawthorn hedge. (=end.)
- His brother searched the house. in the hawthorn hedge, he found the bicycle. (=front.)

➡ When the adverb of place is used in the front position, the subject should be placed after the verb be. E.g. next to the bookshelf was a fireplace (Hewings, 2005, p. 152).

It should be noted that when the subject is a pronoun, this doesn't apply. We cannot say, for example, (Next to the bookshelf was it).

Intransitive verbs, like lie, live, sit, stand, come, fly, go, march, roll, run, swim, and walk, being in a position or movement to a position, can have the subject placed after the verb. Take a look at the examples below:

13.2. Adverbs of time:

Herring (2016) stated that adverbs of time are frequently used at the end of a sentence. Consider the examples below:

- I'm going to the movies tomorrow.
- She left yesterday.

Adverbs of time, on the other hand, can be used at the beginning of a sentence to emphasize the time or duration being discussed. If they come at the beginning of the sentence, they are normally separated by a comma. Though this is not always essential. Take a look at the following example:

-Next year, I'm going to run for president (Emphasizes a point in time.) (p.600).

Exceptions:

According to Herring (2016), there are a few exceptions to the rule above-mentioned, particularly with the following adverbs: later, yet, and till.

Later: The adverb later can be used immediately after the main verb, in addition to its normal placement at the end or beginning of a sentence. This gives the sentence a formal tone to, similar to that seen in official reports or in newspaper articles. Examine these sentences:

- “She spoke to an adviser later.” (A simple sentence with no particular emphasis.)
- “Later, she spoke to an adviser.” (Extra emphasis on when she spoke to the advisor.)
- “She spoke later to an adviser.” (Slightly formal tone, as might be used by someone reporting the sequence of events to someone else) (p.601).

Yet: The word "yet" as an adverb of time is mostly employed in negative sentences or in questions. In negative sentences, "yet" may be used at the end of the sentence, or after the word not before the main verb. It is not mentioned at the start (unless it is used as a conjunction instead of an adverb). Take a look at the examples below:

- “He hasn’t gone to the doctor yet.”
- “We have not yet sold our house.”
- “Have you finished your homework yet?”

But when we talk about a future possibility in positive sentences , the adverb "yet" is used after the auxiliary verbs and before the main verb, as in the examples below:

- “I have yet to decide whether I’m leaving.”

- “They may yet file for bankruptcy.”
- “Things could yet improve in the region.”
- “We might yet be able to strike a deal with them.”

Still: The adverb "still" is used to express anything that is happening all the time. If "still" is written after the auxiliary verb in positive sentences related to the future, or before "not" in negative sentences, it still comes before the primary verb of the sentence concerned. The examples below are clearly indicating the case explained above:

- “Are you still working on that project?”
- “He’s still not sure about how to proceed.”
- “I am still thinking about moving to Europe.”

The modal auxiliary verbs: may, might, can, and could can be used with adverb of time "still" to denote something that was possibly in the past and could happen again in the future. In this context, it has the same meaning as "yet", and the two are almost interchangeable. Here are the same sentences seen before, but this time with "still" instead of "yet":

- “They may still file for bankruptcy.”
- “Things could still improve in the region.” (Herring, 2016, pp.601-602).

13.3. Adverbs of frequency:

Downing (2015, p.451) and Hewings (2005, p.180) explained the different positions of adverbs stating that the adverbs of indefinite frequency are usually placed in the mid-position, and they are usually put between the subject and Predicator, or between the operator and the main verb rather than in the first position like always, never, usually, never, ever... The authors provided the following examples:

- She always sings when she's having a breakfast.
- We have never been to Africa.
- Doctors often like to be proud of themselves.

Negative adverbs, such as never, seldom, rarely, hardly, and ever are sometimes fronted and followed by subject operator inversion for emphasis, even though this structure is formal or emphatic in nature. Take a look at the examples below:

- Rarely does one find such generosity nowadays.
- Never in my entire life have I heard such ridiculous ideas!

Practice: Put the adverbs in their appropriate positions?

- a. The post office was a school. (next to)
- b. I am thinking about writing a new novel (still).
- c. Lawyers love to tell you about how good they are (often).
- d. We have been to Africa (never).
- e. He hasn't done his duties (yet).
- f. I'm going to the movies (tomorrow).
- g. I'm going to study at university (Next year).
- h. I have to decide whether I'm travelling (yet).

14. Position of adverbs: (Adverbs of degree, Interrogative Adverbs, Relative adverbs, Sentence adverbs, Emphasizing adverbs):

Objectives: The primary aim of this lesson is to help learners recognize the use and position of the following adverbs: Adverbs of degree, interrogative adverbs, relative adverbs, sentence adverbs, and emphasizing adverbs.

14.1. Adverbs of degree:

Dooly and Evans (1999, p. 151) mentioned in their book that adverbs of degree, like absolutely, totally, completely, extremely, very, quite, and rather.. are placed before an adjective, or an adverb, or a main verb, but after an auxiliary verb..

- She is extremely thankful.
- She quite enjoyed the party.
- They didn't quite understand what the child said.

14.2. Interrogative Adverbs:

Interrogative adverbs like "How?" "When?" "Where?" "Why?" come usually at the beginning of a question. A sentence or a prepositional phrase is used to answer those questions. You must flip the subject and verb after the interrogative adverb in a question so that the verb comes first. The examples below are clearly explaining the above-mentioned position:

- Why are you so late?
- Where is her handkerchief? In the wallet.
- How are you? I'm fine.
- When does the bus arrive? At 08:15 (Resources for Learning English, 2021, para.1).

14.3. Relative adverbs:

The relative adverb "Where" usually introduces a clause that modifies a noun place. For instance, "My family now lives in the town where my grandfather used to be sheriff." In the above-mentioned example, we note that while the verb "used to be" is modified by the relative pronoun "Where", the noun "town" is modified by the entire clause.

The second relative adverb is "When". It usually introduces a clause that modifying nouns of time. Let's take a look, in the example below, how the noun of time is modified, and how the relative adverb begins a clause: "My favorite day of the week is Friday, when the weekend is about to begin."

The third relative adverb is "Why". It usually introduces a clause that modifying the noun reason, as in: "Do you know the reason why school is out today?"

The relative adverb is sometimes omitted from these clauses, and the writer uses "that" instead.

The relative adverb is sometimes omitted from these clauses and replaced by "that" instead like in the following example: "Do you know the reason that school is out today?" (Stroman, 2004, as cited in Nordquist, 2019, para. 21- 23).

14.4. Sentence adverbs:

They are also termed "Adverbs of certainty". They include adverbs like certainly, definitely, surely, probably, maybe, perhaps. They are placed in the front-position as with "maybe" and "perhaps", or they come in the mid-position, such as certainly, definitely, probably, and clearly. The following examples show clearly the front-position and mid-position of adverbs above-mentioned (The same sentences are almost used):

- Perhaps I should explain further.
- Maybe we will go out to eat tonight.
- We will probably go out at tonight.
- I should definitely explain further.
- That's certainly not the case.

14.5. Emphasizing adverbs:

Emphasizing adverbs like: **very**, **pretty**, **almost**, **quite**, **terribly**, and **extremely** are usually used before the words they modify, we can say that they go in the mid-position as in the examples blow:

- He is very tired.
- This lesson is pretty easy to understand.
- We almost got lost in the city.
- It's quite generous of you to let me stay at your house.
- The employees are terribly underpaid.
- He plays the piano extremely badly. (Espressoenglish, 2021, para.18-19).

Practice: Fill in the blank with the appropriate adverb, then identify the kind of each one?

Quite/ probably/ where/ extremely/ pretty/ when/ perhaps.

- He follows his studies at university.....his father works.
- does the shop close?
- She is helpful.
- I should go back to my house.
- I didn't understand what she suggested.
- This job is..... easy to be done.
- We willget married this summer.

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