

General English



Adjective



7 Types of English Adjectives

1. **Descriptive**
2. **Quantitative**
3. **Demonstrative**
4. **Possessive**
5. **Interrogative**
6. **Distributive**
7. **Articles**

A **descriptive adjective** is probably what you think of when you hear the word “adjective.” Descriptive adjectives are used to describe nouns and pronouns.

Words like *beautiful*, *silly*, *tall*, *annoying*, *loud* and *nice* are all descriptive adjectives. These adjectives add information and qualities

to the words they're modifying. You can find a list of the 25 most commonly used adjectives at [the English Club](#).

Examples:

“The flowers have a smell” is just stating a fact, and it has no adjectives to describe what the flowers or their smell are like.

“The *beautiful* flowers have a *nice* smell” gives us a lot more information, with two descriptive adjectives.

You can say “The cat is *hungry*,” or “The *hungry* cat.” In both cases, the word *hungry* is an adjective describing the cat.

2. Quantitative

Quantitative adjectives describe the quantity of something.

In other words, they answer the question “how much?” or “how many?” Numbers like *one* and *thirty* are this type of adjective. So are more general words like *many*, *half* and *a lot*.

Examples:

“How many children do you have?” “I only have *one* daughter.”

“Do you plan on having more kids?” “Oh yes, I want *many* children!”

“I can't believe I ate that *whole* cake!”

3. Demonstrative

A **demonstrative adjective** describes “which” noun or pronoun you're referring to. These adjectives include the words:

- **This** — Used to refer to a singular noun close to you.
- **That** — Used to refer to a singular noun far from you.
- **These** — Used to refer to a plural noun close to you.
- **Those** — Used to refer to a plural noun far from you.

Demonstrative adjectives always come before the word they're modifying.

Sometimes, like when you're responding to a question, you can leave off the noun being described and only use the adjective. For example, if someone asks you how many cakes you want to buy you can

respond: “I want to buy *two* cakes,” or you can just say: “I want to buy *two*.”

Examples:

“Which bicycle is yours?” “*This* bicycle is mine, and *that* one used to be mine until I sold it.”

4. Possessive

Possessive adjectives show *possession*. They describe to whom a thing belongs. Some of the most common possessive adjectives include:

- **My** — Belonging to me
- **His** — Belonging to him
- **Her** — Belonging to her
- **Their** — Belonging to them
- **Your** — Belonging to you
- **Our** — Belonging to us

All these adjectives, except the word *his*, can only be used before a noun. You can’t just say “That’s my,” you have to say “That’s *my* pen.” When you want to leave off the noun or pronoun being modified, use these possessive adjectives instead:

- Mine
- His
- Hers
- Theirs
- Yours
- Ours

For example, even though saying “That’s *my*” is incorrect, saying “That’s *mine*” is perfectly fine.

Examples:

“Whose dog is that?” “He’s *mine*. That’s *my* dog.”

5. Interrogative

Interrogative adjectives *interrogate*, meaning that they ask a question. These adjectives are always followed by a noun or a pronoun, and are used to form questions. The interrogative adjectives are:

- **Which** — Asks to make a choice between options.
- **What** — Asks to make a choice (in general).

- **Whose** — Asks who something belongs to.

Other question words, like “who” or “how,” aren’t adjectives since they don’t modify nouns. For example, you can say “whose coat is this?” but you can’t say “who coat?”

Which, *what* and *whose* are only considered adjectives if they’re immediately followed by a noun. The word *which* is an adjective in this sentence: “*Which* color is your favorite?” But not in this one: “*Which* is your favorite color?”

Examples:

“*Which* song will you play on your wedding day?”

“*What* pet do you want to get?”

“*Whose* child is this?”

6. Distributive

Distributive adjectives describe specific members out of a group. These adjectives are used to single out one or more individual items or people. Some of the most common distributive adjectives include:

- **Each** — Every single one of a group (used to speak about group members individually).
- **Every** — Every single one of a group (used to make generalizations).
- **Either** — One between a choice of two.
- **Neither** — Not one or the other between a choice of two.
- **Any** — One or some things out of any number of choices. This is also used when the choice is irrelevant, like: “it doesn’t matter, I’ll take *any* of them.”

These adjectives are always followed by the noun or pronoun they’re modifying.

Examples:

“*Every* rose has its thorn.”

“Which of these two songs do you like?” “I don’t like *either* song.”

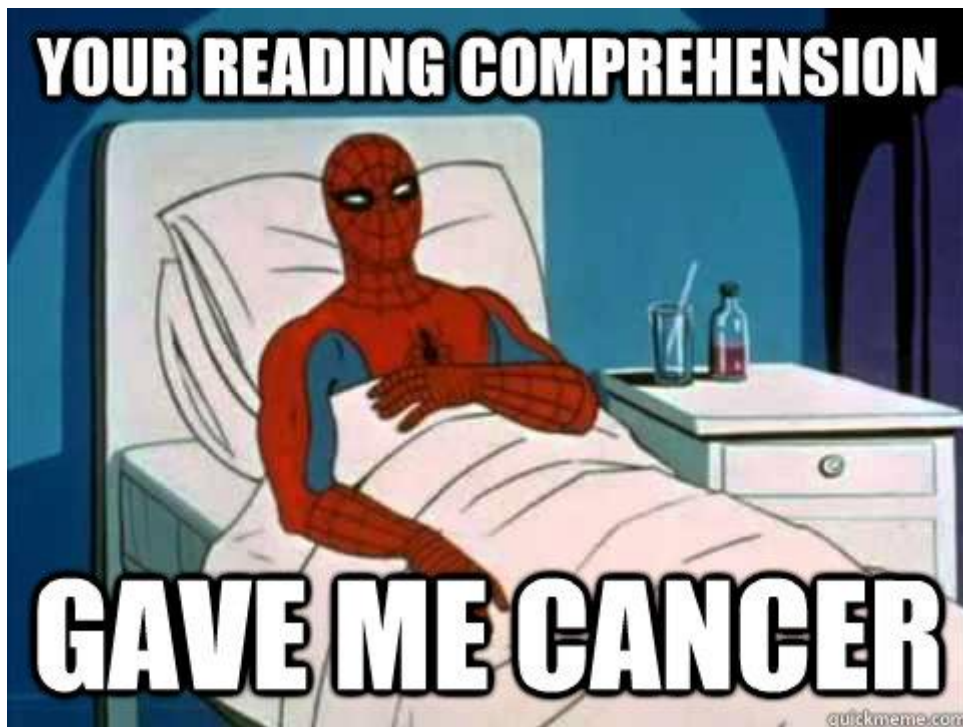
7. Articles

There are only three **articles** in the English language: *a*, *an* and *the*. Articles can be difficult for English learners to use correctly because many languages don’t have them (or don’t use them in the same way).

Although articles are their own part of speech, they're technically also adjectives! Articles are used to describe which noun you're referring to. Maybe thinking of them as adjectives will help you learn which one to use:

- **A** — A singular, general item.
- **An** — A singular, general item. Use this before words that start with a vowel.
- **The** — A singular or plural, specific item.

Reading comprehension



One day Nasreddin went to town to buy new clothes. First he tried on a pair of trousers. He didn't like the trousers, so he gave them back to the shopkeeper. Then he tried a robe which had the same price as the trousers. Nasreddin was pleased with the robe, and he left the shop. Before he climbed on his donkey to ride home, the shopkeeper and the shop-assistant ran out.

"You didn't pay for the robe!" said the shopkeeper.

"But I gave you the trousers in exchange for the robe, didn't I?"
replied Nasreddin.

"Yes, but you didn't pay for the trousers, either!" said the shopkeeper.

"But I didn't buy the trousers," replied Nasreddin. "I am not so stupid as to pay for something which I never bought."

1. How did Nasreddin get to the shop?
2. What did Nasreddin do first in the shop?
3. What did Nasreddin try on next?
4. Which item did Nasreddin like best?
5. How many people were working in the shop?
6. Why was the shopkeeper angry when Nasreddin left?

The poor man

One day, a poor man, who had only one piece of bread to eat, was walking past a restaurant. There was a large pot of soup on the table. The poor man held his bread over the soup, so the steam from the soup went into the bread, and gave it a good smell. Then he ate the bread.

The restaurant owner was very angry at this, and he asked the man for money, in exchange for the steam from the soup. The poor man had no money, so the restaurant owner took him to Nasreddin, who was a judge at that time. Nasreddin thought about the case for a little while.

Then he took some money from his pocket. He held the coins next to the restaurant owner's ear, and shook them, so that they made a jingling noise.

"What was that?" asked the restaurant owner.

"That was payment for you," answered Nasreddin.

"What do you mean? That was just the sound of coins!" protested the

restaurant owner.

"The sound of the coins is payment for the smell of the soup," answered Nasreddin. "Now go back to your restaurant."

1. What food did the poor man have?
2. What kind of food did he see in the restaurant?
3. Why did he hold the bread over the soup?
4. Why did the restaurant owner take the poor man to Nasreddin?
5. What did Nasreddin do with the coins?
6. What was the payment for the smell of the soup?

ADVERBS

The 5 Basic Types of Adverbs:

1. **Adverbs of Time**
2. **Adverbs of Place**
3. **Adverbs of Manner**
4. **Adverbs of Degree**
5. **Adverbs of Frequency**

Adverbs provide a deeper description of a verb within any sentence. There are five basic types of adverbs in the English language, namely that of Manner, Time, Place, Frequency, and Degree. Here is a brief explanation of the meaning each has, along with example sentences using each type of adverb.

Adverbs of Time

An adverb of time provides more information about when a verb takes place. Adverbs of time are usually placed at the beginning or end of a sentence. When it is of particular importance to express the moment something happened we'll put it at the start of a sentence.

Examples of adverbs of time: **lately, just, recently, during, yet, soon, so far**

- *So far, we have found twelve grammar mistakes.*
- *I haven't been going to the gym lately.*

- *We **recently** bought a new car.*

Adverbs of Place

Adverbs of place illustrate where the verb is happening. It's usually placed after the main verb or object, or at the end of the sentence.

Examples of adverbs of place: **here, there, nowhere, everywhere, out, in, above, below, inside, outside, into**

- *We went into the cave, and there were bats **everywhere!***
- *One day when my dad wasn't paying attention to where he was going, he walked **into** a wall.*
- *There aren't any Pokémon **here**, let's look somewhere else.*

Adverbs of Manner

Adverbs of manner provide more information about how a verb is done. Adverbs of manner are probably the most common of all adverbs. They're easy to spot too. Most of them will end in -ly.

Examples of adverbs of manner: **neatly, slowly, quickly, sadly, calmly, politely, loudly, kindly, lazily**

- *The young soldier folded his clothes **neatly** in a pile at the end of his bunk.*
- *I **politely** opened the door for my grandmother as she stepped out of the car.*
- *A fat orange and white cat rested **lazily** on the sofa.*

Adverbs of Degree

Adverbs of degree explain the level or intensity of a verb, adjective, or even another adverb.

Example of adverbs of degree: **almost, quite, nearly, too, enough, just, hardly, simply, so**

- *Can I come to the movies **too**?*
- *Aren't you hungry? You've **hardly** touched your dinner.*

- *I'm so excited to see the new James Bond movie!*

Adverbs of Frequency

Adverbs of frequency explain how often the verb occurs. They're often placed directly before the main verb of a sentence.

Examples of adverbs of frequency: **never, always, rarely, sometimes, normally, seldom, usually, again**

- *I rarely eat fast food these days.*
- *Tom usually takes his dog for a walk before breakfast.*
- *They always go to the same restaurant every Friday.*

punctuation

Full stop (.)

A full stop is normally used to finish a sentence.

Example:

1. Jane has a green car.
2. I like reading crime books.

Question mark (?)

A question mark is used at the end of a question sentence.

Example:

How old are you?
Can I borrow this book?

Exclamation mark (!)

An exclamation mark is used to show strong feelings or to emphasize a comment or an order.

Example:

Watch out! This car is just about to turn.
Stop that!
Full stop

What is a full stop?

A full stop is a punctuation mark (.)

Full Stops:

1. Indicate the end of a sentence.
2. Indicate the end of a fragment.
3. Are used in some abbreviations.
4. Are used in website addresses.

End Of A Sentence

A sentence always contains a subject and a finite verb. In order to check if you have a subject, ask who or what before the verb. A pronoun may replace this subject. A sentence always starts with a capital letter and ends with a full stop. **Example:** She asked him to slow down.

End Of A Fragment

If there is no subject or verb, it is a fragment, not a sentence. It also begins with a capital letter and ends with a full stop. The full stop marks the end of a group of words that are used for emphasis. **Examples:** The children slept. *No sound.* *A time of peace and contentment.*

Tip: In formal writing, avoid using fragments. In fiction, use them often for specific effect.

Suggested reading: [What Is A Sentence Fragment?](#)

Abbreviations

An abbreviation is a shortened version of a word. It usually ends with a full stop. However, in British English we only add a full stop if it does not end with the last letter of the word. **Examples:** Use the full stop for Jan. and Prof., but not for Mr and Mrs

Suggested reading: [Abbreviations, Acronyms, and Initialisms](#) and [Commonly Confused Abbreviations](#)

Website Addresses

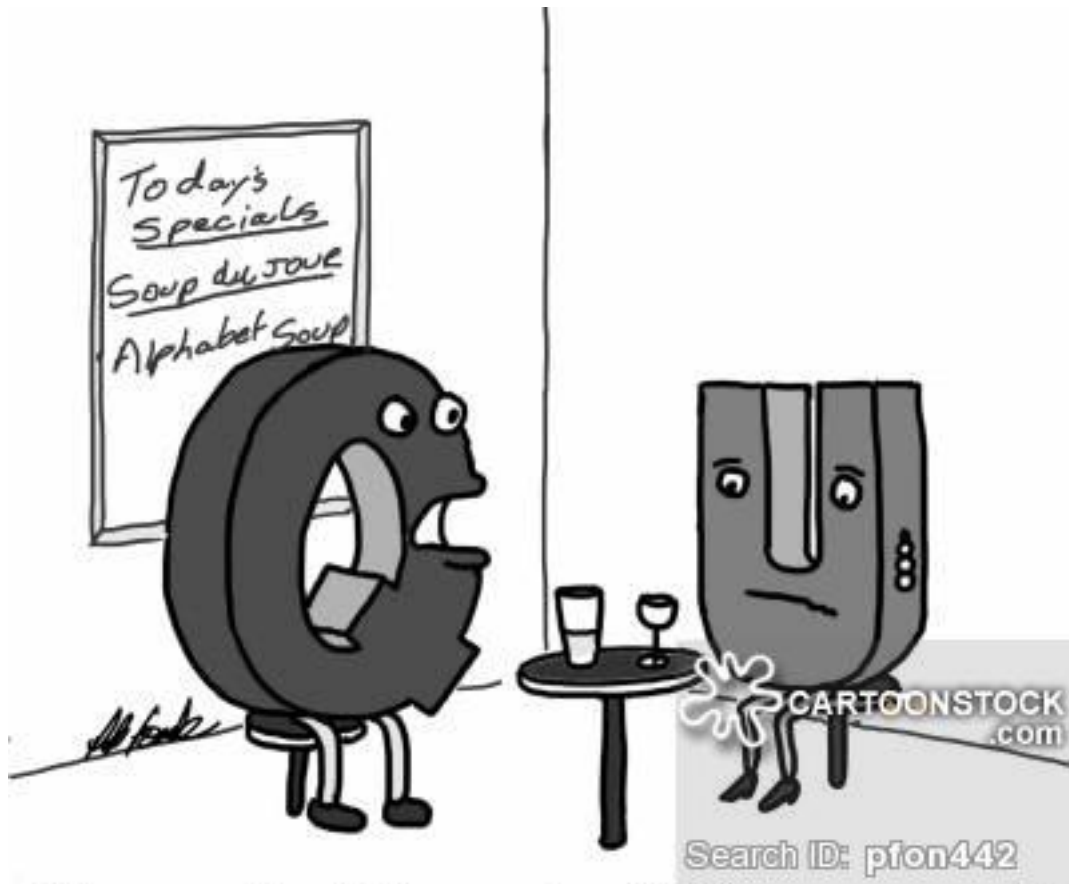
Example: www.writerswrite.co.za

Next week, I will write about **The Comma**.

If you want to improve your writing skills, join us for [The Plain Language Programme](#)

by [Amanda Patterson](#)

If you enjoyed this post, read:



"Even my friends have noticed it! They see *you* out with other letters! But they never see me, unless you're there too! I just need a little space."

English consonants

/p/	pay	purple	lip	/s/	so		
/b/	bay	rubber	rib	/ŋ/	sing		
/m/	may	small	slim	/v/	vow		
/t/	tool	little	light	/f/	fool		
/d/	door	Riddle	seed	/z/	zoo		
/n/	night	snow	run	/ð/	they		
/k/	cake	record	seek	/ʃ/	shine		
/g/	go	linger	frog	/ʒ/	genre		
/tʃ/	chair	richer	switch	/dʒ/	George		
/l/	lie	fly	swell	/r/	river		
/j/	yes	Beyond	toy	/w/	wool		
/h/	hide			/θ/	think		

Vocabulary

Vocabulary	equivalent	vocabulary	equivalent
Have	take	Help	Assist
Kind	Type	Big	Large
Hold	Catch	Quick	Fast
Smell	Fragrane	Beautiful	Pretty
Equivalent	Synonym	funny	Humorous
Carry out	Excute	Happy	Mirthful
Find out	discover	Hardworking:	Diligent
Intelligent	Smart	Strong	Solid
Shy	Bashful	Unhappy	sad
Rich	Wealthy	Positive	Optimistic

Derivation

<i>Adjective</i>	<i>adverb</i>	<i>adjective</i>	<i>adverb</i>
Cheap	cheaply	Probable	Probably
Quick	quickly	gentle	gently
Slow	slowly	hard	Hard
Easy	easily	Terrible	Terribly
Angry	angrily	Nice	Nicely
Happy	Happily	good	Well
Lucky	Luckily	Fast	Fast

Types of sentences

Sentences: Simple, Compound, and Complex

A common weakness in writing is the lack of varied sentences. Becoming aware of three general types of sentences--simple, compound, and complex--can help you vary the sentences in your writing.

The most effective writing uses a variety of the sentence types explained below.

1. Simple Sentences

A **simple sentence** has the most basic elements that make it a sentence: a subject, a verb, and a completed thought.

Examples of **simple sentences** include the following:

1. Joe waited for the train.
"Joe" = subject, "waited" = verb
2. The train was late.
"The train" = subject, "was" = verb
3. Mary and Samantha took the bus.
"Mary and Samantha" = compound subject, "took" = verb
4. I looked for Mary and Samantha at the bus station.
"I" = subject, "looked" = verb
5. Mary and Samantha arrived at the bus station early but waited until noon for the bus.
"Mary and Samantha" = compound subject, "arrived" and "waited" = compound verb

Tip: If you use many simple sentences in an essay, you should consider revising some of the sentences into compound or complex sentences (explained below).

The use of compound subjects, compound verbs, prepositional phrases (such as "at the bus station"), and other elements help lengthen simple sentences, but simple sentences often are short. The use of too many simple sentences can make writing "choppy" and can prevent the writing from flowing smoothly.

A simple sentence can also be referred to as an **independent clause**. It is referred to as "independent" because, while it might be part of a compound or complex sentence, it can also stand by itself as a complete sentence.

2. Compound Sentences

A **compound sentence** refers to a sentence made up of two independent clauses (or complete sentences) connected to one another with a **coordinating conjunction**. Coordinating conjunctions are easy to remember if you think of the words "FAN BOYS":

- **F**or
- **A**nd
- **N**or
- **B**ut
- **O**r
- **Y**et
- **S**o

Examples of **compound sentences** include the following:

1. Joe waited for the train, **but** the train was late.
2. I looked for Mary and Samantha at the bus station, **but** they arrived at the station before noon and left on the bus before I arrived.

3. Mary and Samantha arrived at the bus station before noon, **and** they left on the bus before I arrived.
4. Mary and Samantha left on the bus before I arrived, **so** I did not see them at the bus station.

Tip: If you rely heavily on compound sentences in an essay, you should consider revising some of them into complex sentences (explained below).

Coordinating conjunctions are useful for connecting sentences, but compound sentences often are overused. While coordinating conjunctions can indicate some type of relationship between the two independent clauses in the sentence, they sometimes do not indicate much of a relationship. The word "and," for example, only adds one independent clause to another, without indicating how the two parts of a sentence are logically related. Too many compound sentences that use "and" can weaken writing.

Clearer and more specific relationships can be established through the use of complex sentences.

3. Complex Sentences

A **complex sentence** is made up of an independent clause and one or more **dependent clauses** connected to it. A dependent clause is similar to an independent clause, or complete sentence, but it lacks one of the elements that would make it a complete sentence.

Examples of **dependent clauses** include the following:

- because Mary and Samantha arrived at the bus station before noon
- while he waited at the train station
- after they left on the bus

Dependent clauses such as those above **cannot** stand alone as a sentence, but they can be added to an independent clause to form a complex sentence.

Dependent clauses begin with **subordinating conjunctions**. Below are some of the most common subordinating conjunctions:

- after
- although
- as
- because
- before
- even though
- if
- since
- though
- unless
- until
- when
- whenever
- whereas
- wherever
- while

Types of sentences

1. Simple sentence : a simple sentence consists of one independent clause : **he is a player.**
2. Compound sentence : a compound sentence consists of two independent clauses: **I like swimming and he like football.**
3. Complex sentence : a complex sentence consists of an independent clause and one dependent clause: **they won because they worked hard.**

