

APRIL 2020 SECOND SEMESTER ENGLISH GRADE NINE SHORT NOTES AND EXERCISES

SET BY:

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Dear students, this is grade nine English language worksheet which comprises short notes and exercises following each short note. The contents discussed are from unit seven to twelve. Moreover, the topics are predominantly taken from grade nine English text book. It is prepared under the sponsorship of Oromia regional state education office. So, you are expected to read thoroughly and attempt all exercises under each short note. Thank you in advance.

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UNIT SEVEN

Cities of The Future

Language Focus: Passive sentences

Active Voice and Passive Voice Voice

- doesn't mean the sound you make when you speak.
- is a form of a verb that shows whether the subject is performing or receiving the action.
- it means whether the subject of a sentence is doing the action, or having the action done to it.

In English there are two voices. These are active and passive voices. If the subject performs the action, the voice is **active voice** and if the subject receives the action of the verb we use the **passive voice**.

1. Active Voice

- It tells us who does the action (what the subject does.)
- Most of English sentences are active voices.

Example

The student collects the data. (AV)

2. Passive voice

- tells us what happens to (what is done to) the subject of the sentence.
- we use passive voice, when, who or what to causes the action is not known or not important.

The student collects the data. (AV)

The data are collected by the student. (PV)

- **not known i.e. when we don't know who did the action.**

Somebody killed the police man while patrolling on the street. (AV)

The police man was killed while patrolling on the street. (PV)

- **When what was done is more important than who did it.**

For example:

They mentioned the names. (AV)

The names were mentioned. (PV)

Passivization

- is the transformation of sentences from active voice to passive voice.

Intransitive verbs and Passive voice

Intransitive verbs

- Are verbs which do not take objects.
- The object of the active verb becomes the subject of the passive verb.
- Therefore, sentences which do not have or do not take objects cannot be changed into the passive.

For instance:

- He was **running** too fast.
- He **laughed** aloud.

Passive voice with ditransitive verbs

- Ditransitive verb are verbs which take two objects.
- According to certain linguistics considerations, these objects may be called **direct** and **indirect** objects. Examples of ditransitive verbs: send, offer, sell, save, write, refuse etc.

When there are two objects in an active sentence, there are two possible passive sentences.

For Example:

The professor gave the students the books.

The students were given the books (by the professor). Or The books were given to the students (by the professor).

Fundamental Rules to Change Active voice to Passive Voice for All Tenses

- A. The places of subject and object in sentence are inter-changed in passive voice.
- B. 3rd form of verb (past participle) is used only (as main verb) in passive voice.
- C. One or more of the verb to be for each tense is/are used.

Tenses

We cannot make passive voice without tenses of be + V3

1. Simple present tense is, am or are + V3

Chaltu writes a letter.

A letter is written by Chaltu.

2. Present Continuous Tense ...is, am, are + being +V3

Sifan is eating the bread.

The bread is being eaten by Sifan.

3. Simple future tense... will, shall, may, can...+be + V3

She will buy a car.

A car will be bought by her.

4. Past Simple Tense... was/were +V3

I killed a snake.

A snake was killed by me.

5. Present Perfect Tense ...has/have +been +V3

She has finished her work.

Her work has been finished by her.

6. Past Continuous Tense was/were +being + V3

He was driving a car.

A car was being driven by him.

7. Past Perfect Tense ... had + been + V3

We had taken the money.

The money had been taken by us.

Exercise

Rewrite the following sentences in passive voice

1. The farmer sells the farm. -
2. The farmer sold the farm. -
3. The farmer will sell the farm. -
4. Who wrote this book? -----
5. John can't do it. -
6. We have done our homework. -
7. We do not clean our rooms. -
8. Farmer Jote is milking the cows.
9. The police officer showed us the way.
10. The student has not brought us the books.
11. They did not offer her a seat.
12. They were not eating dinner. -
13. Jenny would congratulate you.
14. We arrived home late at night.
15. I did sleep well.
16. Marara has two brothers.

Language focus: Using the comparative and superlative

Comparative adjectives

A comparative adjective compares someone or something with someone or something else.

Kulani is shorter than Lalise.

Physics is more interesting than Maths.

Formulation

To form a comparative adjective:

Add ‘-er’ to it if it is one- syllable word.

Short shorter

Nice nicer

Add ‘more’ before it if it is a multi-syllable word, and with all participle adjectives.

Difficult more difficult

Interesting more interesting

Superlative Adjectives

Compares someone or something to every other person or object in group.

Walif is the shortest of all his siblings.

English is the most interesting subject.

Formulation

Add ‘-est’ to it and ‘the’ before it if it is a one-syllable word.

Short the shortest

Nice the nicest

Add ‘most’ before it if it is a multi-syllable word and with all participle adjectives:

Difficult the most difficult

Interesting the most interesting

What about adverbs?

The same rule applies to adverbs.

One-syllable adverbs (fast, late, early etc.) take ‘-er’ and ‘-est.’

He speaks faster than me.

He speaks the fastest among all my friends.

Multi-syllable adverbs (all ‘ly’ adverbs) take more and most.

She draws more beautifully than me.

She draws the most beautifully among all my friends.

Exception I

There are a few irregular adjectives and adverbs:

Good better /best

Well (in good health) better /best

Well (adverb of good) better /best

Bad worse/worst

Much/many more and most

Exceptions II

A few two-syllable adjectives can take either 'er' and 'est' or 'more' and 'most.'

Some common ones are:

Quiet, polite, simple, friendly, lovely, lively

My area is quieter /more quiet than yours.

Exercise

Choose the correct form of the word in the brackets to complete each sentence.

Make sure you add the words 'the', 'more', 'most' 'er','est' and 'than' when necessary.

1. Could you speak _____please? (slow)
2. Yesterday, I finished work _____ usual. (late)
3. Roses smell _____ tulips. (good)
4. This is _____ story I've ever heard. (amazing)
5. She earns _____ me. (little)
6. I sleep _____ you. (much)
7. The movie _____ the book. (bad)
8. Pluto is _____ planet from the sun. (far)
9. Sena works _____ among all my colleges. (hard)
10. He drives _____ his wife. (careful)s

UNIT EIGHT

Money and finance

Language focus: *If* sentences

CONDITIONAL SENTENCES

Conditional tenses are used to speculate about what could happen, what might have happened, and what we wish would happen. In English, most sentences using the conditional contain the word *if*. There are about four main ways of constructing conditional sentences in English. In all cases, these sentences are made up of an *if* clause and a *main* clause. These two parts are closely connected. In many negative conditional sentences, there is an equivalent sentence construction using "*unless*" instead of "*if... not*". The action in the main part can only happen if a certain condition is taking place. This condition has to be expressed in the *if* clause.

Conditional sentence type	Usage	If clause verb tense	Main clause verb tense
Zero	General truths	Simple present	Simple present
Type 1	A possible condition and its probable result	Simple present	Simple future
Type 2	A hypothetical condition and its probable result	Simple past	Present conditional/Present continuous conditional
Type 3	An unreal past condition and its probable result in the past	Past perfect	Perfect conditional

1. The Zero Conditional

The zero conditional is used with *general truth*, situations in which one thing *always* causes another, actions that are *certainly* happening and *facts*. In zero conditional sentences, the word "*if*" can usually be replaced by the word "*when*" without changing the meaning.

If you don't brush your teeth, you get cavities.

When water reaches 100 degrees, it boils.

A common **mistake** is to use the **simple future** tense in zero conditional.

When people smoke cigarettes, their health **will** suffer. (wrong)

If you touch a fire, you **may** get burned. (wrong)

Type 1 Conditional

First conditional sentences are used to express situations in which the outcome is likely (but not guaranteed) to happen in the future. Look at the examples below:

Yadate is an intelligent boy. It is April 15th. The exam is on April 23rd. He has enough time to study for the exam - he can pass it.

If he studies, he will pass the exam on April 23rd.

Explanation: Use the zero conditional (i.e., simple present + simple present) only when a certain result is guaranteed. If the result is likely, use the first conditional (i.e., simple present + simple future).

Type 2 Conditional

We use the Conditional II to talk about the future situations that are unreal or nearly impossible to happen. It's possible but not very probable. We use the past tense in the if-clause and conditional present in the main clause.

Yadate didn't study. He played football. It's April 22nd. Tomorrow is the exam. It is possible but not very probable that he will pass the exam.

If he studied, he would pass the exam.

Type 3 Conditional

The type 3 conditional is used to refer to an unreal past condition and its probable past result. It didn't happen and it is impossible now . . . We use the Conditional III to talk about past situations that didn't happen. Third conditional sentences are used to explain that present circumstances would have been different if something different had happened in the past.

It's April 23rd. Yadate didn't pass the exam.

If Yadate had learned, he would have passed the exam.

If you had told me you needed a ride, I would have left earlier.

These sentences express a condition that was likely enough, but did not actually happen in the past. The subject i.e Yodate, in the first sentence was capable of passing the exam, but did not. Along these same lines, the speaker in the second sentence was capable of leaving early, but did not.

Punctuating Conditional Sentences

Despite the complex nature of conditional sentences, punctuating them properly is really simple.

Here's the point: Use a comma after the if-clause when the if-clause precedes the main clause.

If I'd had time, I would have cleaned the house.

If the main clause precedes the if-clause, no punctuation is necessary.

I would have cleaned the house if I'd had time.

Exercise

Complete the Conditional Sentences by putting suitable verbs into the correct form.

1. If you (sent/sending/send) this letter now, she will receive it tomorrow.
2. Simon (will go/would go) to London next week if he gets a cheap flight.
3. If her boyfriend does not phone today, she (will leave/would leave) him.
4. I would buy a lonely island if I (had found/ found) a nice one.
5. If I (owned/own) a lonely island, I will build a huge house by the beach.
6. If I (lived/had lived/live) on a lonely island, I would run around naked all day.
7. If we had a yacht, we (would have sailed /will sail/would sail) the seven seas.
8. If he had more time, he (would have learned/would learn/will learn) karate.
9. If they told their father, he (would have been/would be/will be) very angry.
10. She (would spend/would have spent) a year in the USA if it were easier to get a green card.
11. We would help you if we (would have known/know/knew) how.
12. If Bontu (had jumped/jumped/jumps) up, she could have caught the ball.
13. If you had studied for the test, you (might have passed/will pass/) it.
14. If you (had asked/asked/asks) me, I would have helped you.
15. If we (had gone/go/went) to the cinema, we would have seen my friend Jambo.

Writing: Making A Summary

What is a Summary?

Summary is an overview of content (is a condensed version of an original text) that provides a reader with the overarching theme, but does not expand on specific details. A summary describes

a larger work (such as an entire book, speech, or research project), and should include noticeably less content than the original work. Summaries can save a reader time because it prevents the reader from having to actually go through and filter the important information from the unimportant.

How to Write a Summary

- ✓ Read thoroughly the text to be summarized and be sure you understand it.
- ✓ Write down what you think the main point of the piece is.
- ✓ Reread the piece, taking notes on the major points of it.
- ✓ Don't focus on the evidence that the author uses to support those points.
- ✓ Start with the source's information.
- ✓ Always use paraphrase when writing a summary. If you do copy a phrase from the original be sure it is a very important phrase that is necessary and cannot be paraphrased. In this case put "quotation marks" around the phrase.
- ✓ Check with your outline and your original to make sure you have covered the important points.
- ✓ Write using "summarizing language." Periodically remind your reader that this is a summary by using phrases such as *the article claims*, *the author suggests*, *etc.*
- ✓ Write a complete bibliographic citation at the beginning of your summary. A complete bibliographic citation includes as a minimum, the author, the year, the title of the work and printed place. For instance: Gile A. (2019) Features of The Gada System. Alaltu Miawa.

Exercise

Write a summary of your educational background using not more than eight sentences

Language focus: Using the quantifiers *many*, *much*, *few*, *a little*

Quantifier is a word added before a noun to give an indication of the quantity of that noun.

Many, Few and a Few

These are used before countable nouns.

Be careful that not all countable nouns take the plural 's' when you count more than one of them. Irregular plurals are also countable nouns.

Example: The plural of child is children.

Many means a large number of something

Few has a negative meaning, and means 'almost no'.

The opposite of many is few. So, if many means a large number of something we can count, then few means small number of something.

A few is between the two (many and few); not many and not few and has a positive meaning.

Example:

Do you know many people here?

No, I don't know many people. I know (very) few people here.

I knew a few people in the town where I lived before.

Much, Little and a Little

Much, Little and a Little are used before uncountable nouns.

Much used before uncountable noun and means large quantity.

The opposite of much is little.

Little has a negative meaning, and means 'almost no.'

Therefore, if much means a large quantity of something uncountable, little is the small quantity of it.

A little is between the two; it means not much and not little.

A little means not much (a certain quantity) of something and has a positive meaning.

Example:

Do you eat much rice?

No, I don't eat much rice. I eat little rice.

I ate a little rice last night.

Exercise

For each of the following sentence, choose the expression that is more appropriate

1: Do you drink much/many coffee?

2: The say a little/little coffee is good for metabolism.

3: I don't think much/many people would believe that.

4: Where did you hear that?

5: I read it somewhere a little/a few weeks ago.

6: I think very few/very little readers would buy that.

7: Is there much/many evidence for this claim?

8: Well, in any case, a few/ a little coffee now and then can't do too many/much harm.

9: That is true. I should just have less/fewer coffee and less/fewer lump of sugar in each cup.

Writing: Spelling rules / doubling consonants

Doubling up rule

When a word has one syllable plus one vowel next to one consonant we double up the final consonant with a vowel suffix:

sit - sitter, big - biggest, tap - tapping, put - putting, shop - shopper/shopping...

This happens in longer words when the stress is on the final syllable:

begin - beginner, beginning

refer - referring, referred

occur - occurring, occurred, occurrence, swim – swimming...

Increase your word power: Homonyms

The word "homonym" Latin- "homo-," = same, and "-nym," =name. Therefore, homonyms -are words which sound alike but spelled differently (homophone),and are sound and spelled alike (homograph) but have different meanings or origin. Homonyms are two words that are spelled the same or differently and sound the same but have different meanings.

HOMONYMS



Homophones:

are words that have the different spelling and meaning but same pronunciation.

Below is a listing of some of the most common homophones in alphabetical order

buy – purchase	by - near, through	bye - goodbye
cite – quote	site – location	sight - view
dew - morning mist	do – operate	due - payable
holey - full of holes	holy – divine	wholly - entirely
their - belonging to them	there - at that place	they're - they are
to – toward	too – also	two - the number 2

Homographs:

are words that have the same spelling and pronunciation but differ in origin and meaning.

Examples of homographs

Address - to speak to	Address - location
Bright - very smart or intelligent	Bright - filled with light
Die - to cease living	Die - a cube marked with numbers one through six
Kind – type	Kind - caring
Mean - average	Mean - not nice
Right – correct	Right - direction opposite of left
Spring - a season	Spring - coiled metal

EXERCISE

Practice Using Homophones, and Homographs

Complete each of the following sentences by filling in the blank with the correct word.

1. He was going to the market to _____ [*buy, by, or bye*] parasol for the coming summer.
2. Nancy held the cup to her mouth and _____ [*blew or blue*] into the cup.
3. Francis wondered what _____ [*advice or advise*] a psychiatrist would have for him."

UNIT NINE

People and Traditional Culture

Speaking: Adverbs of manner

1. ADVERBS

An adverb is a word which modifies a verb or an adjectives or another adverb.

ADVERBS OF MANNER

Adverbs of manner tell us the manner or the way in which something happens. They answer the question ‘How?’

He speaks slowly. (How does he speak?)

They helped us cheerfully. (How did they help us?)

They decorated beautifully. (How did they decorate the apartment?)

Use the correct form of the adverb in the bracket

I think you will _____ (easy and quick) finished the homework.

James Bond drives his cars _____ (fast).

I can _____ (hard) hear you.

Language focus: Using *ago*

AGO

Means back in time from the present. You use ago when you are referring to past time. For example, if something happened one year ago, it is one year since it happened. Ago is followed by an expression of time.

The train went out **ten minutes ago**

Tenses with ago

Ago is normally used with a past tense because it refers to a finished time.

She phoned ten minutes ago.

Ago and Since

The use of ago with since (it's ten years ago since he wrote the novel) is redundant and should be avoided: it is ten years since he wrote the novel.

Ago and for

Ago says how long before the present moment something happened.

When used with a past tense, **for** says how long something lasted.

He died **three years ago**. (NOT He died for three years.)

He was ill **for three years before** he died. (= His illness lasted three years.)

Ago and Before

The difference between ago and before

Ago is normally used with a **simple past** to count back from a present moment. Before is used with a past perfect to count back from a past moment.

- I **saw** him two years **ago**. (Two years from now.)
- I **had seen** him two years **before** I went to England.

Before can be used without a time expression to mean 'any time before now/then'

When we got talking, I found out that we had worked in the same office **ten years before**

Before can also mean 'at any time before now/then'. In this case it is used with a present or present perfect.

Exercise

Underline the appropriate answer

1. I met her in Milan **three years ago/since/for**.
2. I have seen her before/ago.

Writing: Writing a paragraph

A paragraph is a series of sentences that are organized and coherent, and are all related to a single topic. Almost every piece of writing you do that is longer than a few sentences should be organized into paragraphs. This is because paragraphs show a reader where the subdivisions of an essay begin and end, and thus help the reader see the organization of the essay and grasp its main points.

Regardless of the kind of information they contain, all paragraphs share certain characteristics. One of the most important of these is a **topic** sentence.

Topic Sentences

A well-organized paragraph supports or develops a single controlling idea, which is expressed in a sentence called the **topic sentence**. A topic sentence has several important functions: it substantiates or supports an essay's thesis statement; it unifies the content of a paragraph and directs the order of the sentences; and it advises the reader of the subject to be discussed and how the paragraph will discuss it.

Paragraph Structure

Most paragraphs in an essay have a three-part structure—introduction, body, and conclusion. You can see this structure in paragraphs whether they are narrating, describing, comparing, contrasting, or analyzing information. Each part of the paragraph plays an important role in communicating your meaning to your reader.

Exercise

Write a paragraph by creating your topic sentences for the following paragraph topics.

1. Learning to drive
2. Cause of environmental pollution
3. Deforestation
4. How to make coffee
5. The day I never forget in my life
6. Advantages of being students at Oromia Development Special Boarding School

UNIT TEN

Newspapers and magazines

Reading: Fact or opinion?

Fact or opinion

Fact latin factum a real occurrence, something demonstrated to exist or known to have existed

A **fact** is a statement that can be verified objectively, or proven.

Fact:

1. Dogs have fur.
2. The last day of school is August 22nd.

An **opinion**, however, is a statement that holds an element of belief; it tells how someone feels and cannot be proven. Opinions are what someone personally thinks or how he/she feels about an issue. Opinions, by definition, are subjective and relative.

Opinion

1. Dog fur is pretty.
2. The Beatles sang great songs.
3. May 22nd is the best day of the year.

Exercise

Categorize the following sentences under fact and opinion.

1. I feel learning grammar is very difficult.
2. My sheep has four legs.
3. I think the statue of liberty is beautiful.
4. We celebrate valentine day in February.
5. A quarter is worth 25 cents.
6. I think these girls are beautiful.
7. Trump is the president of the USA.
8. Wild animals should not be kept in zoos.
9. Teacher should be allowed to smack students if they misbehave.
10. In the WWII, the Axis powers consisted of Germany, Italy and Japan.

UNIT ELEVEN

Endangered Animals

Language focus: Using *a*, *an* and *the*

Articles

Articles are words which come at the beginning of the **noun phrase** and tell us whether the noun is specific or general.

English has two types of articles: definite and indefinite.

The definite article is the word *the*. It limits the meaning of a noun to one particular thing.

For example, your friend might ask, “Are you going to **the** party this weekend?” The definite article tells you that your friend is referring to a specific party that both of you know about. The definite article can be used with singular, plural or uncountable nouns

The signals that the noun is definite refers to a particular member of a group.

For example:

"I was happy to see the policeman who saved my cat!" Here, we're talking about a *particular* policeman. Even if we don't know the policeman's name, it's still a particular policeman because it is the one who saved the cat.

"I saw the elephant at the zoo." Here, we're talking about a *specific* noun. Probably there is only one elephant at the zoo.

Usage

Nouns in English are preceded by the definite article ‘the’ when the speaker believes that the listener/reader already knows what he is referring to.

Indefinite Articles/ a or an/

When we are talking about things in general and the listener/reader does **not** know exactly what we are referring to, we can use an or a. The indefinite article takes two forms. It's the word *a* when it precedes a word that begins with a consonant sound. It's the word *an* when it precedes a word that begins with a vowel sound. The indefinite article indicates that a noun refers to a general idea rather than a particular thing. For example, you might ask your friend, “Should I bring *a* gift to the party?” Your friend will understand that you are not asking about a specific type of gift or a specific item. The indefinite article only appears with singular nouns. Consider the following examples of indefinite articles used in context:

Please hand me **a book**; any book will do.

Please hand me **an autobiography**; any autobiography will do.

A woman was lifted to safety by **a helicopter**.

A man climbing nearby saw the accident.

Exceptions: Choosing A or An

There are a few exceptions to the general rule of using *a* before words that start with consonants and *an* before words that begin with vowels. The first letter of the word *honor*, for example, is a consonant, but it's unpronounced. In spite of its spelling, the word *honor* begins with a vowel sound. Therefore, we use *an*.

Exercise

Complete the following sentences using a/an/the/0 (no article) in the blank spaces where appropriate. Change small letters to capital letters at the beginning of a sentence if necessary.

Ms Biftu, (1) ___ most famous lady detective of (2) ___ twenty-first century, was born in (3) ___ United Kingdom in (4) ___ 1980s. Since then, she has been to many countries, including (5) ___ Portugal, Singapore and Australia, and has lived in (6) ___ Northern hemisphere and (7) ___ Southern hemisphere, as well as on (8) ___ equator. She has never been to (9) ___ Philippines or (10) ___ United States, but she speaks (11) ___ English, French and Portuguese. Like Adugna Tuji, (12) ___ famous detective, she plays (13) ___ violin, and sometimes practices up to five times (14) ___ day. She is also (15) ___ only person in (16) ___ world to have performed Tokuma's overture [a long piece of music] in one breath on (17) ___ recorder. She has been (18) ___ detective for thirty years and claims that although many people think that being (19) ___ detective is (20) ___ piece of cake, detectives generally work very hard and it's not all fun and games. (21) ___ detective is someone who solves mysteries, and (22) ___ people who contact Ms Biftu have some very unusual problems. Little information is available about some of (23) ___ cases she has solved, but quite (24) ___ few of her most famous cases have attracted worldwide attention and she has been offered up to (25) ___ thousand dollars (26) ___ hour to help solve mysteries such as (27) ___ case of (28) ___ Australian owl in (29) ___ uniform. (30) ___ bird laid (31) ___ egg in (32) ___ European nest in less than (33) ___ hour after its arrival. What (34) ___ strange problem! With great (35) ___ modesty, she has either declined such (36) ___ fee or donated (37) ___ money to (38) ___ poor, or to (39) ___ Grammar Survival Fund, believing that (40) ___ detective should use their skills for (41) ___ common good.

Language focus: Relative clauses

Relative Clauses

A relative clause modifies a noun or pronoun and is introduced by a relative pronoun which substitutes for a noun, a noun phrase, or a pronoun when sentences are combined (who, whom, whose, which, or that) or occasionally a relative adverb (when, where, or why). The relative

pronoun is used to connect the relative clause to an independent clause by referring to the noun or pronoun being modified.

The Structure of Relative Clauses

Relative clauses function as subordinate or dependent clauses and therefore cannot stand alone as complete sentences. A relative pronoun generally follows and points back to the noun or pronoun it modifies, and like all clauses, both dependent and independent, relative clauses have a subject and a verb.

Types of Relative Clauses

There are two types of relative clauses: defining and non-defining relative clauses. Each type has a different function within a sentence and requires different punctuation.

1. Defining Relative Clause:

- defines or limits the meaning of the word it modifies, which makes it essential to the meaning of the sentence.
- is not set off from the rest of the sentence by commas or parentheses.

Example:

Women who work are happier than women who don't work.

Relative Pronouns used in Defining Relative Clauses

For people	Subject	who , that
	Object	whom, who, that
	Possessive	whose
For things	Subject	which, that
	Object	which, that
	Possessive	Whose, of which

2. Non Defining Relative Clause:

- describes a noun or pronoun whose meaning is already defined or limited.
- are not essential in the sentences and can be omitted without causing confusion.
- Commas are always used at the beginning and end of this type of relative clause.

Example:

Elephants, which are the largest land mammals, live in herds of 10 or more adults.

Non Defining Relative Pronouns

	subject	Object	Possessive
For people	who	whom, who	whose

For things	which	Which	of which, whose
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Relative Pronouns Exercises

The following exercises will help you gain greater understanding about how relative pronouns work. Choose the best answer to complete each sentence.

1. The festival, _____ lasted all day, ended with a banquet.
A. That B. who C. which D. What
2. I am looking for someone _____ can watch my dog while I go on vacation.
A. Which B. who C. whom D. whoever
3. The police needed details _____ could help identify the robber.
A. who B. whatever C. that D. what
4. I'd like to take you to a café _____ serves excellent coffee.
A. What B. Whatever C. which D. Whichever
5. The clubhouse, in _____ the dance was held, housed about 200 people.
A. which B. where C. That D. whom
6. You can choose one person, _____ you like, to share the cruise with you.
A. whomever B. that C. which D. whom
7. I saw the shoes _____ you bought last week on sale for less this week.
A. when B. that C. who D. whom
8. The winners, _____ known, will receive money and other prizes.
A. whoever B. who C. when D. that
9. This is the place _____ we met.
A. When B. where c. who D. that
10. The baby, _____ nap had been interrupted, wailed loudly.
A. whose B. whomever C. whom D. who

Writing: Linking words or discourse markers

Discourse markers (Linking words)

Discourse markers are words and phrases used in speaking and writing to 'signpost' discourse. Discourse markers do this by showing turns, joining ideas together, showing attitude, connect, organize and manage what we say or write or to express attitude and generally controlling communication.

Their overall function is to show the listener how to interpret what the speaker is saying (so they don't affect the literal meaning of what is being said). The discourse markers in the extracts illustrate some of their most typical functions:

1. Some discourse markers are used to start and to end conversations. Some are used to start new topics or to change topics.

1.1.Starting and Ending a conversation

Right, ok, now, Actually, Like, Look, Mind, Okay, Well, So, any way

Right, let's get started. We need to get the suitcases into the car.

Okay. I'll do that. Katie, will you help me?

Now, we have with us in the studio today someone you will all know on television. Jilo Abaso, welcome to the show.

[mother (A) and daughter (B) on the telephone]

A: **So** we'll see you Sunday, Liz.

B: **Right**, okay Mum.

A: **Okay**, see you then, love.

B: Bye, Mum. Thanks for calling.

A: Bye, Liz.

A: **Anyway**, is that it? Has anyone got any questions?

B: No. I think we're done.

A: **Right**, fine, thanks everyone for coming. We'll circulate the documents tomorrow and make some follow-up calls about the project.

2. Changing or managing a topic

A: We went to town to buy wallpaper to match the carpet.

B: Did you try Keanes? They have a sale.

A: We looked there, **but** Jim said he thought it was too expensive and he didn't like any of their designs.

B: What does he like?

A: He likes geometric shapes. He hates flowers. **Anyway**, we eventually found some that we both liked and when we went to pay for it, we realized that neither of us had brought any money.

3. Ordering what we say

We also use discourse markers to order or sequence what we say. Some of the common words and phrases which we use for this are: **and, what is more, in general, second, to sum up, and then, in the end, firstly, secondly, what's more, first (of all), last of all, so, well, next, lastly, for a start, on top of that...**

A: I think Talile might be having some financial problems at the moment.

B: I don't think so, Caroline. **For a start**, she has all the money that her aunt gave her. **What's more**, she has a good job and she seems to have a good lifestyle.

Firstly, we are going to look at how to write an essay. **Secondly**, we are going to look at what makes a good essay and what makes a bad one. **Lastly**, we're going to do some writing activities.

4. Discourse markers that monitor what we say (Saying something in another way)

As we talk, we monitor what we are saying and how our listener is responding to what they hear. We often rephrase or change what we say depending on how our listener is responding. We use words and phrases such as **well, I mean, in other words, the thing is, you know, you know what you see, what I mean is...** These discourse markers help to make what we say clearer for the listener.

I just had to leave early. **What I mean** is I hated the show. It just wasn't funny.

You exercise regularly, you have a good diet and you don't have too much stress. **In other words**, I think you have nothing to worry about. Your health seems very good.

I think I've found a house I'd like to buy. **Well**, it's an apartment actually. It's ideal for me.

You know, hiring a car was a great idea. (The speaker and the listener know about hiring the car.)

A: Why don't you come and stay with me when you're in Awajo?

B: It'd be difficult. I have to be back Nakamte by Friday. **You see**, my sister is getting married on Saturday so I won't have time to visit.

Discourse markers focusing attention on what follows in the sentence

With regard to / regarding / as regards / as far as ... is concerned / as for...

This is done by announcing the subject in advance. These expressions are often used to indicate a change of subject during conversations.

His grades in science subjects are excellent. **As regards** humanities ...

With regard to the latest market figures we can see that ...

Regarding our efforts to improve the local economy, we have made ...

As far as I am concerned, we should continue to develop our resources.

As for John's thoughts, let's take a look at this report he sent me.

5. Discourse markers giving expression to two ideas which contrast but do not contradict each other.

On the other hand, while, whereas

'While' and 'whereas' can be used as subordinating conjunctions to introduce contrasting information. 'On the other hand' should be used as an introductory phrase of a new sentence connecting information.

Football is popular in England, **while** in Australia they prefer cricket.

We've been steadily improving our customer service center. **On the other hand**, our shipping department needs to be redesigned.

Jack thinks we're ready to begin **whereas** Tom thinks we still need to wait.

6. Discourse markers used to begin a new sentence which contrasts two ideas

However, nonetheless, nevertheless

These words are often used to show that something is true despite not being a good idea.

Smoking is proved to be dangerous to the health. **Nonetheless**, 40% of the population smokes.

Our teacher promised to take us on a field trip. **However**, he changed his mind last week.

Peter was warned not to invest all of his savings in the stock market. **Nevertheless**, he invested and lost everything.

7. Discourse markers used to add information to what has been said.

Moreover, furthermore, in addition

The usage of these words is much more elegant than just making a list or using the conjunction 'and'.

His problems with his parents are extremely frustrating. **Moreover**, there seems to be no easy solution to them.

Our energy bills have been increasing steadily. **In addition** to these costs, our telephone costs have doubled over the past six months.

8. Discourse markers showing the second statement follows logically from the first statement.

Therefore, as a result, consequently

He reduced the amount of time studying for his final exams. **As a result**, his marks were rather low.

The government has drastically reduced its spending. **Therefore**, a number of programs have been canceled.

Exercise

Choose an appropriate discourse marker in the gap

1. He pretended to like her new haircut in case in order not to/well hurt her feelings.
2. The factory closed due to/ nevertheless/ consequently many workers lost their jobs.
3. Because of /Since /Because her inability to arrive at work on time, she was sacked.
4. Though/Despite/Even though knowing the risks, he decided to climb the mountain alone.
5. Although/ Despite it wasn't always easy, I managed to have a successful career.
6. Television turns people into lazy couch potatoes On the other hand/secondly, there are some educational programmes on.
7. Firstly/however, I would like to welcome you all to the conference today.
8. Moreover/Although the film was a little boring, we still had a nice evening out.
9. I got up at 9 o'clock yesterday and had a cold shower. On the other hand/Then, I had breakfast and left for work.
10. You should go to university as it gives you a chance to meet so many new people. Whereas/Moreover, it gives you the chance to get important qualifications and get a better job.
11. I don't want to go to the football game. Football bores me and I don't want to pay \$40 for a ticket. But /Besides, look at the weather! All that rain!
12. Broadly speaking/except for nurses are overworked and underpaid.
13. I don't believe in ghosts. Thirdly/At least I haven't seen one yet.

Answers to exercises (unit7-12)

Unit seven

Answer

1. The farm is sold by the farmer.
2. The farm was sold by the farmer.
3. The farm will be sold by the farmer.
4. By whom was this book written?
5. It can be done by John.
6. Our homework has been done by us.
7. Our rooms are not cleaned by us.
8. The cows are being milked by farmer Jote.
9. The way was shown us by the police officer.
10. The books have not been brought to us by the student.
11. She was not offered a seat by them.

12. The dinner was not being eaten by them.

13. You would be congratulated by Jenny.

14. No passive form.

15. No passive form.

16. No passive form

comparative and superlative

Answers

1	more slowly	6	more than
2	later than	7	worse than
3	better than	8	the furthest/the farthest
4	the most amazing	9	the hardest
5	less than	10	more carefully

Unit 8

Answer

Conditional sentences

1	send	6	lived	11	knew
2	will	7	would have sailed	12	had jumped
3	will	8	would have learned	13	would have passed
4	found	9	would be	14	had asked
5	own	10	would spend	15	had gone

Quantifiers

1	much	4	-	7	much
2	A little	5	A few	8	a little ... much
3	many	6	very few	9	less....fewer

Homonyms

1	buy	2	blew	3	advice
---	-----	---	------	---	--------

unit 9

Adverbs

1	Easily and quickly	2	fast	3	hardly
---	--------------------	---	------	---	--------

Ago

	ago	2	before
--	-----	---	--------

unit 10

Fact or opinion

1	opinion	3	opinion	5	Fact	7	Fact	9	opinion
2	Fact	4	Fact	6	opinion	8	opinion	10	Fact

Unit 11

Articles

1	the	7	The	13	the	19	a	25	a	31	an	37	the
2	the	8	The	14	a	20	a	26	an	32	a	38	the
3	The	9	The	15	-	21	A	27	the	33	an	39	the
4	the	10	the	16	the	22	the	28	an	34	a	40	the
5	-	11	-	17	the	23	the	29	a	35	-	41	the
6	the	12	the	18	a	24	a	30	the	36	a		

Relative clauses

Answers

1	C	3	C	5	A	7	B	9	B
2	B	4	C	6	A	8	C	10	A

Unit 12

Discourse Markers

1	in order not to	4	Despite	7	Firstly	10	Moreover	13	At least
2	consequently	5	Although	8	Although	11	Besides		
3	Because of	6	On the other hand	9	Then	12	Broadly speaking		