OROMIA EDUCATION BUREAU

ENGLISH FOR ETHIOPIA A HANDOUT PREPARED FOR GRADE 10

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By: Meetii Taayyee

e-mail: kooluu2007@gmail.com

ABOUT THIS MATERIAL

This handout is prepared aiming at providing grade 10 students with selective notes, examples and tasks based on second semester syllabus of the original learning material. The units covered are from 7 - 12. Selected topics on **language focus**, **speaking / vocabulary**, and **reading** are given due attention as these skills are possible for the learner to practice even in the absence of the actual classroom instruction. Most of the lessons prepared are followed by examples and exercises so as to help students feel confident in the topic under discussion. Students are encouraged to use this material together with their textbooks as much as possible.

The order of the topics discussed follow the numbering given in the student's textbook (hereafter called T.B). For example, A7.4 means Part A of unit 7, lesson 4. Similarly B11.2 means Part B of unit 11, lesson 2.

Dear student, do not be tempted to skip any activity given in this material as practice helps you to master points even you think you are very good at.

UNIT 7: NATURAL DISASTER

PART A

A7.1 INTRODUCTION

1. What do you know about the following natural disasters? Look up their meanings in your dictionary.

tsunami wave flood volcanic eruption drought earthquake tornado cyclone avalanche mud slide blizzard

A7.4 Language Focus: Adjectives with so... and such

Adjectives are words that describes a noun or pronoun by limiting its meaning. They can either come after or before a word they modify.

An adjective tells: What Kind, Which One, How Many, and How Much

e.g. **famous** song, **one** dollar, **some** music, **that** way, **three** km, **more** room, **green** light,**these** words **several** years,**less** energy, etc.

Also adjectives are used after linking verbs

e.g. The game is **interesting**.

They are used after Verbs

e.g. The room smelt horrible.

It tasted bitter.

You look good/great/tired.

The verbs seem, sound, look, feel, smell, taste are usually followed by an adjective, not an adverb.

Exercise 1. Decide if these statements about adjectives are True or False.

- a. An adjective give us more information about a noun.
- b. Adjectives are words like red and big which tells us what things look like.
- c. We can put an adjective before and after a noun.
- d. We can put an adjective after a verb.

Using so and such with adjectives

Exercise 2: Read these sentences:

- a. This exercise is so long.
- b. It is *so* hot!
- c. Poems can be so long that they take up a whole book.
- 1. In which of these sentences does so make the adjective stronger?
- 2. In which of these does so explain why something is happening?

So...

- ➤ We can use *so* before an adjective or adverb to make the meaning of the adjective or adverbstronger and reflects emphatic usage.
- e.g. Why are you so late? We've been waiting for long time.
 - > So can also be used after state verbs like: be, seem, look, appear, smells, feel, etc.
 - e.g. The food tastes so delicious.

The teacher *looks* so happy.

The children have so many toys.

- ➤ So is used in this pattern: **BE** +so + adjective/adverb
- e.g. The weather was so hot I stayed inside.

He is so handsome.

Such...

- ➤ We can also use *Such* in this way and with the same meaning, but it behaves differently:
- e.g. She is such a good student.

He's such a teenager!

- \triangleright Such is used in this pattern: BE + such + a/an +adjective/adverb + noun
- e.g. Dureti is such a good writer.
- We don't use a/an before plural uncountable noun.
- e.g. such delicious food

such beautiful flowers

- > Such can be used after all verbs
- e.g. He makes such a delicious doro wat.

She writes such a good poem.

So/such...that can be used to introduce clause of result to explain why something is happening.

e.g. The snow fell so fast that our footsteps were soon covered up.

He spoke for such a long time that people began to fall asleep.

NB:*such* is never used before much and many;*so* is used even when much and many are followed by noun.E.g. So much dust

Exercise 3. Complete these sentences with so or such.

1.	It's a hot day! It must be nearly 40 degree.
2.	I feel hot! I must sit in the shade.
3.	Our teacher was pleased with us that she didn't give us any homework
	Dame has a heavy bag that she can't carry it.
5.	How nice to see you! It's a long time since we were together.
6.	I don't like towns. They are noisy.
7.	There is a lot of rubbish outside! We must clean it up.
8.	You've eaten much porridge that you'll fell asleep.
9.	She swims quickly!
10.	It was late we missed the last train.
11.	They have a big house that I got lost!
12.	She's a bookworm!
13.	I had a lot of work I couldn't go out.
14.	The shops had few vegetables at that time that we grew our own.

A7.6 Language Focus: Prepositions of time

We talk about **when** things happen using prepositions. They are **not content** words rather used as **functional words**. For example: at, in, and on - indicate time

4 The preposition **in** for months, years, centuries, and long periods

Examples:

The museum will be opened in August.

I began my education in 1995

WWII took place in 20th centuries.

Ethiopia gets high rain fall in summer season.

Our friends have arrived in the evening/in the ten years.

♣ The preposition at for a precise time

Examples:

A precise time at 10 a.m

The weekend at the weekend

Night at night

Festive periods at Christmas/at Ed

♣ The preposition on for days and dates. It is used for special days, days of the week, dates, day+ part of day, etc.

Examples: I like to meet you on my birth day. (Special day)

Our football schedule is on Tuesday and Saturday. (days of the week)

On Monday morning, on Sunday midday, etc. (day + part of the day)

Adwa is celebrated on 23rd of March.

Exceptions: for imprecise time, we can also use like in the past, at present and in the future Also, in and on are not used before some time indicator words like today, yesterday, tomorrow, the day after tomorrow, last or next day, each, every, this week, etc.

We are going shopping tomorrow. Not on tomorrow

e.g. It rained heavily last week.

He is leaving next day.

Exercises: On student's text book page 123-124 there are exercises number 1 and 2, read the instructions and do the exercises accordingly.

A7.7 Writing: Making notes

To make notes, we have to read and understand a text, then write down the main points only. It is a good idea to write notes in points, rather than sentences. Here are some tips:

- Use heading and sub-headings
- **4** Use abbreviations
- ₩ Write only the important words. Complete sentences are not necessary.
- ♣ Your notes should be clear so that you can understand them easily when you come back to them.

Example: Study the following format

Heading/ Title

1. Sub heading 1

1.a point 1

1.b sub-sub heading

1.b.1 sub point 1

1.c point 1

2. sub heading 2

2.a point 1

2.b sub-sub heading

Key

e.g. abbr. – abbreviation pnt. -- point

Exercise: 1. Read the short text on T.B page 124 about camels. Decide on:

- 1. A title
- 2. Two sub-headings

A7.10 Word power: Collocations and word partners

A familiar grouping of words which appears or always used together because of their habitual use and thus creating the same meaning is called *collocation*. E.g. we say *heavy rain* instead of *big or strong rain, commit crime* instead of *do crime*. Each word in collocation keeps its own meaning. Collocations can consists of an adjective and a noun, a verb and a noun, a verb and an adverb, a noun and a verb or even a noun and a noun.

Study the following examples

Many collocations can be formed when you add verb + noun

- save time
- e.g. You will save a lot of your time if you concentrate on your studies rather than browsing through the internet.
 - come prepared

e.g. You have a presentation tomorrow, so make sure that you come prepared.

Many collocations can be formed when you add adjectives with noun and adverbs.

- Deep: Deep feeling, deep pockets, deep sleep, deep trouble.
- Heavy: Heavy rain, heavy sleeper, a heavy drinker, heavy snow, heavy traffic.
- Strong: Strong smell, strong sense, strong denial.

In this type of collocations, you can use a verb + noun as well as a noun + verb to form the group of words.

• Service industry, tea leaf, dogs bark, water flows, paper flutters, blurred vision, critical analysis, etc.

Practice Questions: 1
Complete the following collocations

a.	home.
b.	trouble.
c.	I really hate when she criticizes everybody. It really rattles
d.	Every day I used to go to Temple under false I never wanted to, but my parents
	made me go every day.

Exercises: There are exercises 1, 2, 3 and 4 on student T.B page 127-128, read the instructions carefully and do the exercises.

A7.11 Speaking: Social expressions showing uncertainty

We are uncertain about something means we are not sure about it. Study the following expressions which are used to show uncertainty.

I'm afraid that I don't know.
I'm sorry I don't know.
I'h aven't a clue.
I'll have to think about it.
I've forgotten.

Study the following dialogues

Dialogue -1

A: I was thinking about applying for the new position.

B: Do you think that is a good idea?

A: It seems like a good idea but *I am not really sure*.

Dialogue -2

A: I am considering going for the new job that was posted yesterday.

B: Are you certain that is what you want to do.

A: It may not be the best choice for me, but I am considering it.

Dialogue -3

Chaltu: Are you sure all the garbage is easy to destroy?

Marry: No, *I doubt about it*. The garbage like plastics is difficult to destroy.

PART B

B7.3 Language Focus: Indefinite pronouns

Can you remember the rules for using some, any and no?

Some, any and no- are quantifiers/determiners used before both countable and uncountable noun.

- **Some** is used in positive sentences. Whereas, **any** is used in question and negative sentences.
 - e.g. I would like some sandwiches with egg, but we don't have any bread left.

I need *some* milk. - Have you got *any*?

Don't you know any good restaurants around here?

♣ No is used with affirmative verbs to express a negative e.g. I have *no* mango.

Exercise 1. Complete these sentences with one of these words. Some, any, no

1.	ln	countries, many women	i don't have	children.
2.	I have	_ brothers. I don't have	sisters eithe	er.
3.	Do you have _	brothers?		
4.	Would you like	e soup?		

Study the following examples:

Something is always going on.

Everyone panicked after the earthquake.

Does anyone have change for a dollar so I can buy a bag?

I was disappointed because *no one*that I invited came to the party.

Rachel was so popular that *everyone* wanted to sit next to her.

♣ A pronoun is a word that is used to take the place of a noun. They make sentences shorter and easier to say.

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- ♣ An indefinite pronoun is a word that takes the place of names of persons. Here is a list of indefinite pronouns: Everyone, Everybody, Someone, Somebody, Anyone, Anybody, No one, Nobody
- ♣ We generally use a singular verb after these compounds

Read the conversation below to get an idea about how indefinite pronouns are used.

Amen: Roba! Wake up! I think someone is in the kitchen!

Roba: Nobody is in the kitchen, Amen! Go back to sleep!

Amen: I hear somebody moving around! Can't you hear someone?

Roba: No, I can't hear anybody!

Someone/Somebody: The indefinite pronouns "someone" and "somebody" refer to an unknown person or persons. "Someone" and "somebody" have exactly the same meaning. "Someone" and "somebody" can be used in affirmative sentences and questions. "Someone" and "somebody" are singular.

Example: **Someone** lost a glove in the parking lot.

Can **somebody** help me?

Everyone/Everybody: The indefinite pronouns "everyone" and "everybody" refer to all the people or all the people you are talking about. "Everyone" and "everybody" have exactly the same meaning. "Everyone" and "everybody" can be used in affirmative sentences and questions. "Everyone" and "everybody" are singular.

Example: Everybody likes chocolate!

I told **everyone** that the party starts at 8:00.

No one/Nobody: The indefinite pronouns "no one" and "nobody" mean no person or no people or none of the people you are talking about. "No one" and "nobody" have exactly the same meaning. "No one" and "nobody" can be used in affirmative sentences. "No one" and "nobody" are singular.

Example: **No one** told me to bring my swimsuit.

Nobody wants to make a mistake.

Anyone/Anybody: The indefinite pronouns "anyone" and "anybody" mean an unknown person or unknown people. "Anyone" and "Anybody" have exactly the same meaning. "Anyone" and "anybody" can be used in negative sentences and questions. "Anyone" and "anybody" are singular.

Example: I didn't see **anyone** I knew at the party last night.

Does **anybody** have a pencil I can borrow?

Exercises: On STB page 131-132 there are exercises 2 and 3, read the instruction carefully and complete the table and sentences.

B7.6 Writing: A guided essay

When you are writing an essay, you will find it useful to use the following *seven stages or steps* to help you organize your work.

- 1. Analyze decide on the subject and the information you wish to include.
- 2. Planning _ plan the order of presenting the information.
- 3. Research _ find out all you can about the topic.
- 4. Writing the main body of the essay __ use information from steps 1-3 to write your text in a logical order.
- 5. Conclusion _ bring your arguments to a final ending or conclusion in the last paragraph.
- 6. Introduction __ write the first introductory paragraph to 'set the scene'.
- 7. Editing your essay _ read your essay to check for any mistakes in grammar, spelling, etc.

B7.7 Writing: A formal letter

Formal or business letter is written for various purposes like: job application, requesting, invitation, complaining, refusing, etc.

- Formal letter is formal and official in its tone.
- It is direct and to the point.
- **↓** It is different from informal letter in its style, formal and lay out.
- **↓** It should be neat, legible, correctly spelt and punctuated.

There are various ways in which formal letters can be set out. The block style, which is now the fashion, makes the letter writing easier and quicker for typists. Notice the following points:

- **The sender's address** (but not his or her name) is set out in the top right hand corner. The address is aligned vertically so that each line starts immediately below the first line.
- **❖ The date** goes below the address. The number indicating the day does not have to be followed by st, nd, rd, as 1st, 2nd, 3rd, etc.
- ❖ The addressee's/receiver's name and address are arranged at the top left, but lower than the sender's address.
- ❖ Greeting/Salutation (Dear...) begins just below the addressee's address.
- **❖ The subject/topic** of the letter goes under the salutation, and is underlined if the letter is <u>handwritten</u>.
- ❖ The text of the letter begins after a line space.
- **! Introductory/opening paragraph-**to begin a paragraph at least introducing why you write.
- ❖ Main body/ message- is where the writer raises all informative points to be delivered clearly to the reader and it may have more paragraphs.
- **Closing paragraph**/conclusion- a closing paragraph need to be written separately.

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- ❖ The farewell/ Valediction —usually 'Yours faithfully, Yours sincerely, With regards, etc.' are written after the text of the letter, and separated from it by a line space. They begin with *capital letter* and followed by *comma always*.
- **Signature** of the writer- written below the farewell.
- ❖ Name of the sender/writer- goes under the signature

Exercise 1: Match the following formal phrases with the informal letter phrases.

- 1. Yours sincerely a. I thought you would like to know that ...
- 2. Dear Madam b. Thanks for all you have done
- 3. I am writing to inform you ... c. I'm sorry to tell you ...
- 4. Thank you very much for your kind attention. D. Dear Berihun,
- 5. I regret to tell you ... e. Do you think you could ...?
- 6. I would be grateful if you could ... f. With much love,

UNIT 8: EDUCATION

PART A

A8.1	Introduc	tion:	Discus	ssion or	i Educa	tion
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1. Which subjects you study at school are the most enjoyable, the most useful? Why?

I.	Too, too much	, too many, enough	(T.B page	142 and 151)
	_ 00, 000	,	(/

	2.	Do you think boys and girls should study the same of different things?	
.•		Too, too much, too many, enough (T.B page 142 and 151)	
		Their pattern:	
		too + adjectivetoo hot, too cold, too big, too expensive	
		enough + nounenough money, enough time, enough amount	
too much + uncountable nountoo much sugar, too much alcohol			
		too many + countable nountoo many people, too many stars, too many books	
		adjective+ enoughtall enough, rich enough, kind enough, big enough	
	E	xercise A8.5II	
	Fil	l in the blank spaces with too, too much, too many, or enough.	
	1.	There are toys on the floor.	
	2.	It's very crowded on this beach. There are people.	
	3.	This suitcase isn't big I can't fit all my clothes in it.	
	4.	I'm really tired. I got up early this morning.	
	5.	Yuck! This tea is too sweet. There's sugar in it.	
	6.	I can't come to the meeting today. Sorry, I'm busy.	
	7.	This class is not big to accommodate fifty people.	
	8.	I can't reach the orange tree branch over there because I'm not tall	
	A	8.6 Reading: A History of Modern Education in Ethiopia	
	E	xercise A8.6	
	R	ead the text on page $142 - 3$, T.B and find the contextual meanings of the following	
	W	ords.	
	1.	Secular (line 3) 5. Pace (line 32)	
	2.	Regime (line 7) 6. Looting (line 37)	
	3.	Adopted (line 19) 7. Lobbying (line 41)	
	4.	Disparity (line 25) 8. Startling (line 46)	

A8.10 Language Focus: Making Wishes

We use 'wish' to show we want a situation to be different or to talk about something that we would like to be different in the present or the future. It's used for things which are impossible or very unlikely. The verb after wish is one tense back.

For example:

- I wish that I had a big house (I don't have a big house, but it's a nice idea!).
- ➤ I wish that John wasn't busy tomorrow (he is busy, unfortunately).

(*In formal writing, you will see 'were' instead of 'was' after wish. This is correct, but it's also fine to use 'was', in the same way as with the second conditional.

➤ 'I wish I were rich' or 'I wish I was rich'.)

We also use 'wish' with '**could**' to talk about things in the present or future that we would like to be different. In this situation, 'could' is the past simple of 'can'.

- I wish that I could speak Spanish (but, unfortunately, I can't speak Spanish).
- ➤ I wish that I could drive (I can't drive).

We don't usually use 'wish' in this way for things that are really possible in the future. Instead, we use 'hope'.

- ✓ I hope that you pass your exam
- ✓ I hope that it's sunny tomorrow.

On the other hand, we use 'would' with 'wish' in a little bit of a special way. It's generally used about other people who are doing (or not doing) something that we don't like and we want that person to change. It's not usually used about ourselves, or about something which nobody can change though, exceptionally, we do use it about the weather.

- ✓ I wish that John wouldn't eat all the chocolate. (John does usually eat all the chocolate and I don't like it. I want him to change his behavior!)
- ✓ I wish that the neighbors would be quiet! (They are not quiet and I don't like the noise.)
- ✓ I wish that you wouldn't smoke so much! (You do smoke a lot and I don't like it. I want you to change this.)
- ✓ I wish that you wouldn't work late so often.
- ✓ I wish that it would stop raining!

We don't usually use 'would' when there's no feeling that we want somebody to change their behavior.

Wishes about the past

Wish + (that) + past perfect:

We can use 'wish' with the past perfect to talk about regrets from the past. These are things that have already happened but we wish they had happened in a different way. This use of 'wish' is very similar to the third conditional.

I wish that I had studied harder at school. (I didn't study hard at school, and now I'm sorry about it.)

I wish that I hadn't eaten so much yesterday! (But I did eat a lot yesterday. Now I think it wasn't a good idea.)

I wish that the train had been on time. (But unfortunately the train was late, and so I missed my interview.)

Other uses of 'wish'

Wish + to + infinitive:

We can use 'wish' with the infinitive to mean 'would like'. This is very formal. We don't usually use a continuous tense with 'wish' in this case.

- I wish to speak to the headmaster. (This means the same as 'I would like to speak to the headmaster'.)
- I wish to go now.

Wish + object + to + infinitive:

In the same way, we can use 'wish' with an object and an infinitive.

- *I do not wish you to publish this article.*
- *I wish these people to leave.*

Wish + somebody + something:

This is used mostly in set phrases.

- I wished him a happy birthday.
- They wished us Merry Christmas.
- o In summary:

"Wish + subject + past simple" is used to express our wishes or regrets for the present.

Examples:

- I wish I were rich as a princess.
- She wishes she had a bigger house.
- Thomas wishes he weren't a policeman.
- They wish they could go to Paris.
- 'Wish + subject + past perfect' is used to express our regrets about the past situations.
- e.g. I wish I hadn't treated John like that.

- Fanny wishes she had studied Physics at university.
- He wishes he had bought a bigger car.

- e.g. I wish my son would go to a good high school.
 - My mother wishes I would become an engineer when I grow up.
 - He wishes his girlfriend would accept his marriage proposal.

B8.3 Language Focus:

I. Verb + Preposition

In English, many nouns, verbs, and adjectives are commonly followed by prepositions. Phrasal verbs, also known as two-word verbs, are verbs that require specific prepositions. Because preposition following the verb affects the verb's meaning, writers must use the proper verb-preposition combination in order to communicate clearly.

"Jane believed John" means something entirely different from "Jane believed in John."
Using the wrong preposition leads to confusing or awkward prose.

Below are some of the most common verbs that take prepositions.

VERB	PREPOSITION	VERB	PREPOSITION
absorb	in	belong	to
account	for	boast	about
add	to	borrow	from
adjust	to	blame s.b	for sth.
admit	to	blame sth.	on s.b
agree	with	emerge	from
apply	for	care	for / about
appeal	to	cater	for
argue	with	choose	between
argue	about	comment	on
arrive	in/at	collide	with

[&]quot;Wish" + subject + would is used to express our wishes for the future.

[&]quot;Jane believed to John," for example, does not make sense.

apologize	for	communicate	with
approve	of	compare	with / to
ask	for	compete	with
accuse sb	of sth	complain	about
arrest sb	for sth	concentrate	on
believe	in	confess	to
base	on	confuse	with
beg	for	congratulate	on
begin	with	consist	of
react	against / to	contribute	to
recon	on	cope	with
recover	from	correspond	with
refer	to	count	on
rely	on	cover	with
reply	to	crash	into
search	for	talk	to
see	to	talk	about
shout	at	think	of/about
smile	at	turn	to
specialize	in	tell s.b	about sth.
speak	to	thank s.b	for sth.
stand	for	translate sth.	into sth.
stare	at	trust s.b	with sth.
stem	from	wait	for
subscribe	to	wonder	at
substitute	for	work	on
succeed	in	worry	about
suffer	from	write	to / about

participate	in	warn s.b	about/against
pay	for	resign	from
persist	in	respond	to
pray	for	result	in
prepare	for	retire	from
prohibit	from	room	for
use	for	quarrel	about sth.
vote	for	quarrel	with s.b
insist	on	invest	in

Exercise B8.3... I

Complete the following sentences with prepositions.

Do you like listening traditional music?
How do you feel about the new teacher?
Do you sometimes waste money things which you don't really need?
What sports are you good?

Adjective + Preposition

Study the following adjective plus preposition combination.

5. Have you ever spoken _____ a famous person?

Adjective	Preposition	Adjective	Preposition
Ahead	of	Good	for
Angry	at/with	Kind	to
Angry	about	Known	for
Anxious	about	Nice	to
Apparent	to	Perfect	for
appropriate	for	Polite	to
Aware	of	Proud	of
Capable	of	Ready	for
good/bad	for	Relevant	to
Different	from	Resistant	to

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Difficult	for	Rich	in
Eager	for	Sorry	about/for
envious/jealous	of	Suitable	for
Equal	to	superior	to
Known	for	Tolerant	of
familiar/unfamiliar	to	Pleased	with
famous	for	Thankful	to
Fond	of	Valid	for
Glad	about	Keen	on

Exercise B8.3... II

Put in the correct preposition.

1.	England is famous its rainy weather.
2.	I'm very proud my daughter; she worked very hard.
3.	He isn't really interested getting married.
4.	Luke is very pleased his exam results.
5.	Unfortunately, I'm very bad music.
6.	I've been married my husband for 10 years.
7.	She's very excited the party.
8.	8. Julie is very different her sister.
9.	9. My niece is afraid dogs.
10.	A ball gown is similar an evening dress.
11.	What is your town famous?
12.	It's great you got that job - you should be proud yourself.
13.	I'm very excited buying a new computer.
14.	That bike is similar yours.
15.	She is interested jazz.
16.	Are you pleased your new house?
17.	Lucy is extremely good languages.
18.	Who is James married?
19.	English cheese is very different French cheese.

20. He isn't afraid _____ anything.

B8.6 Language Focus: Articles a, an, the

The English language uses articles to identify nouns. Articles act much like adjectives. Articles

clarify whether a noun is specific or general, singular or plural. An article appears before the noun it accompanies.

There are two types of articles

- Definite article: the
- Indefinite article: a, an.

General rules

- Place the article before the noun.
- e.g., the house the cat a dog
- Place the article before the adjective when the noun is modified by an adjective.

e.g. (the purple house the black cat a white dog an open book) =

a book

Correct

the house purple OR a dog white = **Incorrect**

• Do not add an article when the noun has a possessive pronoun (*my, his, her, our, their*) or a demonstrative pronoun (*this, that*).

e.g.(my house her book that house this book) = $\mathbf{Correct}$

the my house OR the this book = **Incorrect**

DEFINITE ARTICLE: the

- Use *the* to identify specific or definite nouns: nouns that represent things, places, ideas, or persons that can be identified specifically.
- Use *the* with both singular and plural definite nouns.
 - e.g. the house the business the businesses
- Use *the* to identify things, places, ideas, or persons that represent a specific or definite group or category.
 - e.g. The students in Professor Smith's class should study harder.

The automobile revolutionized travel and industry.

(the automobile identifies a specific category of transportation)

INDEFINITE ARTICLE: a or an

- Use a or an to identify nouns that are not definite and not specific.
 - Think of a and an as meaning any or one among many.
 - e.g., a book (any book) a dog (any dog) a cat (one cat) a house (one among many houses)
- Use a or an only for singular nouns.
- Do not use an article for a plural, indefinite noun.
 - Think of a plural, indefinite noun as meaning all.
 - e.g. Students should study hard. (All students should study hard.)

When to use a and when to use an

- Choose when to use a or an according to the sound of the noun that follows it.
 - Use a before consonant sounds.
 - e.g., a book a dog
 - \triangleright Use a before a sounded h, a long u, and o with the sound of w.
 - e.g., a hat a house a union a uniform a one-hour appointment
 - \triangleright Use an before vowel sounds (except long u).
 - e.g., an asset an essay an index an onion an umbrella
 - Use an when h is not sounded.
 - e.g., an honor an hour

Omission of Articles

1. Do not use an article with countries, states, counties or provinces, lakes and mountains except

when the country is a collection of states such as "The United States".

- He lives in Washington near Mount Rainier.
- They live in Northern British Columbia.
- They climbed Mount Everest.
- 2. we do not normally use an article with plurals and uncountable nouns to talk about things in general.:
 - He writes books.
 - She likes sweets.
 - Do you like jazz music?

• She ate bread with butter in the morning.

Exercise B8.6

Fi	ll the gaps with "the", "a", "an" or "x" (zero article).
1.	I bought pair of shoes.
2.	I saw movie last night.
3.	They are staying at hotel.
4.	Look at woman over there! She is a famous actress.
5.	I do not like basketball.
6.	That isgirl I told you about.
7.	night is quiet. Let's take a walk!
8.	price of gas keeps rising.
9.	John traveled toMexico.
10.	Juan isSpanish.
11.	I readamazing story yesterday.
12.	My brother doesn't eat chicken.
13.	love is such beautiful thing.
14.	I live inapartmentapartment is new.
15.	I would likepiece of cake.
16.	I was inJapanese restaurantrestaurant served good food.
17.	Sara can playguitar.
18.	Did you get married after leavinguniversity?
19.	I was attrain station when you called me.
20.	I leftwork at six o'clock pm.
21.	They are openingnew shops here.
22.	She was returning fromschool when I met her.
	She has a strong alibi. She was atcinema at the moment the crime was committed.
	Are you going tobeach this afternoon?
	He went toprison for domestic violence.
	The kids are sitting attable eating cereals.
27.	Are you at home?

B8.9 Language Focus: State Verbs

What are State Verbs?

State verbs refer to a state, not an action. State verbs are used to refer to facts without movement or motion. Most state verbs are never used in the continuous tenses. Be careful! There are exceptions! Just ask yourself one simple question! Can I see it happening? Can I see a physical action? If not, it most likely is a "State verb".

Examples

I understand everything you have said!

You have a cold right now, don't you?

We didn't recognize her in her new car!

They **appreciate** everything we do for them!

He agrees with you on that project!

It weighs more than it did six months ago!

I like the fact that you are a happy person!

You love your wife and everyone knows it!

We always **enjoy** going to the movies!

It will **satisfy** the loan payment!

Some state verbs are used in the continuous form (have, see, be, taste, feel, smell, look).

Example:

They **are enjoying** the party tonight!

He **is having** dinner at his mother's house Friday!

She is seeing her doctor Tuesday at three o'clock!

Generally, state verbs fall into four groups:

A. Verbs Showing Thought or Opinions

know, believe, understand, recognize

B. Verbs Showing Possession

have, own, belong, possess

C. Verbs Showing Senses

hear, smell, see, feel

D. Verbs Showing Emotion

love, hate, want, need

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You may notice that some of these verbs can be used as action verbs with different meanings. For example, the verb 'to think' can either express an opinion, or the process of considering. In the first case, when 'think' expresses an opinion it is stative:

I think she should work harder on her math.

She thinks he is a fantastic singer.

'Think', however, can also express the process of considering something. In this case 'think' is an action verb:

They're thinking about buying a new house.

She's thinking of joining a health club

Exercise B8.9

Answer questions 1 - 8 (exercise 1) on page 152, T.B

UNIT NINE: SEAS AND RIVERS

A9.6 language Focus: Using *the* with place names

A **proper noun** is the unique name of a person, place, or thing that starts with a capital letter, for example, 'John', 'Sweden', 'Google'. Before **proper nouns**, we generally do not use an article. For example,

- Tola is a man.
- He lives in Canada.

However, sometimes you can find the definite article 'the 'before proper nouns.

- Carver lives in the **United States**.
- He lives near the **Pacific Ocean**.

Why? Well, it's hard to give a reason. However, there are some rules we can follow.

Rule 1: Use the Definite Article 'The' with Countries that are States, Unions, Republics, etc.

We use 'the' before countries that contain a word like 'Union', 'Emirates', and 'Kingdom.' These words mean that the country is a group of smaller states.

Example:

- the United States
- the Republic of Ireland

- the Czech Republic
- the United Arab Emirates

We also use 'the' before countries that end in a plural 's'.

- *the Philippines* (= the full name is *The Republic of the Philippines*)
- *the Bahamas* (= the full name is *The Republic of the Bahamas*)
- the Netherlands

Rule 2: Use the Definite Article 'the' with Names of Rivers, Seas, Oceans, etc.

We say the following:

- the Nile / the Nile River
- the Caspian Sea
- the Pacific / the Pacific Ocean

- the Mediterranean / the Mediterranean Sea
- the Panama Canal

Rule 3: Use the Definite Article 'The' with Deserts

• the Sahara / the Sahara Desert

Rule 4: Do Not Use 'the' with Lakes or Mounts

- I live by Lake Ontario.
- I swam in Lake Superior.

- He can see Mount Fuji.
- She can see Mount Rushmore.

Rule 5: Use the Definite Article 'The' with Building Names

We usually use 'the' before the names of buildings.

- the Emperor's Palace
- the Tower of Pisa

- the Louvre
- the Pentagon

This is not true, however, in some cases:

- The names of **stations**: Grand Central Station, Main Station
- The names of **airports**: Pearson Airport, Gatwick Airport
- The names of universities (without 'of'): Columbia University, Santa Monica
 College

General Rule: Use the Definite Article 'The' with Names that Have the Preposition 'Of'

• the Island of Lesbos

• the Republic of Congo

• the University of Toronto

• the Gulf of Mexico

To **summarize**, use 'the' before the following:

- proper nouns that contain a word that means *they are a group* (unions, republics, etc.)
- deserts (the Mojave)
- rivers, seas, oceans, etc. (but not lakes!)
- mountain ranges (the Rockies)
- building names (the Pentagon)
- proper nouns that include 'of' (the University of Michigan)

Do not use 'the' for everything else, which includes:

• lake names (Lake Superior)

• airports (JFK Airport)

mounts (Mount Everest)

stations (Broadway Station)

• street names (Main Street)

Exercise

3. Write these place names in your exercise book. Put *the* in front of them if necessary.

Kenya	Atlantic Ocean	University of London
United States	Ras Dashen	National Museum
Great Britain	Congo River	Central Station
Netherland	Bale Mountain	Mediterranean Sea

A9.8 language Focus: Verb + verb patterns

In English, when a verb is followed by another verb, the second verb may be an **infinitive** with to , **bare infinitive** or **-ing form.** It all depends on the first verb. Let's see all those different patterns.

Many English verbs are followed by -ing form

admit	adore a	preciate	avoid	celebrate	
consider	delay	deny	detest	dislike dread	
Enjoy f	ace fancy	finish	go imag	gine involve	
lie mer	ntion min	d miss	stand	suggest	
postpone	sit kee	p resist	report	risk etc	

Example: I always enjoy cooking.

She *keeps changing* her mind about the wedding.

Many English verbs are followed by to-infintive form

affor	choose	happen	offer	tend
agree	dare	help	plan	threaten
aim	decide	hesitate	prepare	volunteer
appear	demand	hope	pretend	vow
arrange	deserve	intend	promise	wait
ask	expect	learn	prove	want
attempt	expect	manage	refuse	wish
beg	fail	mean	seem	
care	fight	neglect	swear	

Example: I can't afford to go on holiday.

She **hopes to go** to university next year.

Verbs are followed by to-infintive or ing forms form

Attempt bother continue fear like prefer

Begin cease deserve hate love start

Example: I like cooking Indian food.

I *like to drink* juice in the morning, and tea at lunchtime.

She *hates cleaning* her room.

I *hate to be* the only person to disagree

Verbs that can be followed by object + infinitive

Many English verbs are followed by object + infinitive, rather than by a that-clause.

advise, allow ask beg command promise prefer teach cause force get would like recommend compel encourage expect forbid leave trouble tempt request wish hate instruct intend invite help like love mean need oblige order permit want remind tell warn etc.

Examples are:

- ✓ I don't want him to go. (NOT: I don't want that he goes.)
- ✓ We don't allow people to smoke in the kitchen.
- ✓ I asked him to pay for the meal.
- ✓ I advised him to stop smoking.
- ✓ He taught us to forgive.
- ✓ I requested him to help me.
- ✓ We expect them to turn up in time.
- ✓ My parents always encouraged me to explore newer horizons.
- Verbs followed by an object and a *to*-infinitive can also be passive:
 - ✓ The students were instructed to line up in pairs.
 - ✓ After days of pointless fighting, the marines were ordered to withdraw.
 - ✓ He was told to give up smoking
- ❖ Some verbs are followed by object + infinitive without to.

Examples:

let make see hear feel watch notice have etc.

Why don't you let me go? (NOT Why don't you let me to go?) I heard her sing a lovely song. (NOT I heard her to sing a lovely song.)

- ❖ Note that many of the verbs listed above can also be followed by an −ing form or a that-clause.
- Some verbs cannot be followed by object + infinitive. Example: suggest
- ✓ I suggested that she should consult a doctor. (NOT I suggested her to consult a doctor.)

Exercise

Complete the following sentences with the correct form of the verbs (the -ing or infinitive to) in the bracket.

1.	I try (learn) some new words every day.
2.	I enjoy (try) to use them in different situations.
3.	I have stopped (look up) every new word in a dictionary.
4.	I first try (work out) the meaning of new words myself.
5.	Sometimes I forget (write down) all the new words in my vocabulary book.

B9.7 Increase Your Word Power: Adding Prefixes

Prefixes are letters which we add to the beginning of a word to make a new word with a different meaning. Prefixes can, for example, create a new word opposite in meaning to the word the prefix is attached to. They can also make a word negative or express relations of time, place or manner. Here are some examples:

base word	prefixed word	type of meaning
possible	im possible	opposite
able	un able	opposite/negation
payment	non -payment	negation
war	pre -war	time (before)
terrestrial	extra terrestrial	place (outside of/beyond)
cook	over cook	manner (too much)

I'm sorry I was **unable** to attend the meeting.

Non-payment of fees could result in a student being asked to leave the course.

Has anyone ever really met an extraterrestrial being?

The meat was **overcooked** and quite tasteless.

The most common prefixes

Prefixes	Meaning	Examples
anti-	against/opposed to	anti-government, anti-racist, anti- war
auto-	self	autobiography, automobile
de-	reverse or change	de-classify, decontaminate, demotivate
dis-	reverse or remove	disagree, displeasure, disqualify
down-	reduce or lower	downgrade, downhearted
extra-	beyond	extraordinary, extraterrestrial
hyper-	extreme	hyperactive, hypertension
il-, im-, in-, ir-	not	illegal, impossible, insecure, irregular
inter-	between	interactive, international
теда-	very big, important	megabyte, mega-deal, megaton
mid-	middle	midday, midnight, mid-October
mis-	incorrectly, badly	misaligned, mislead, misspelt
non-	not	non-payment, non-smoking
over-	too much	overcook, overcharge, overrate
out-	go beyond	outdo, out-perform, outrun
post-	after	post-election, post-war
pre-	before	prehistoric, pre-war
pro-	in favour of	pro-communist, pro-democracy

Prefixes	Meaning	Examples
re-	again	reconsider, redo, rewrite
semi-	half	semicircle, semi-retired
sub-	under, below	submarine, sub-Saharan
super-	above, beyond	super-hero, supermodel
tele-	at a distance	television, telepathic
trans-	across	transatlantic, transfer
ultra-	extremely	ultra-compact, ultrasound
un-	remove, reverse, not	undo, unpack, unhappy
under-	less than, beneath	undercook, underestimate
ир-	make or move higher	upgrade, uphill

Exercise

- 1. Read the following sentences and guess the meaning of the words written in bold from the context.
 - a. The men in the boat **overcome** their fear of the sharks around the boat.
 - b. The shipwrecked men suffered from thirst and dehydration.
 - c. The sailors **underwent** the torment of dying of thirst.
 - d. Their joy was **unimaginable** when at last they were rescued.
 - e. The raw fish they ate was almost inedible.

B9.8 Increase Your Word Power: Word building

We can change the form of many words in English by adding an ending. For example:

We can make nouns from some verbs by adding suffixes as follows.

Examples:

- arrive arrival
- exist exist**ence**
- inform information
- press pressure

- develop develop**ment**
- swim swim**ming**
- write writer
- assist assistant

We can make nouns from some adjectives by adding suffixes as follows.

- ready_readiness
- happy –happiness
- forgetful Forgetfulness
- responsible –responsibility.
- possible –possibility.
- scarce scarcity
- hilarious –hilarity.

- probable –probability
- independent -independence
- important -importance
- silent -silence
- appear -appearance
- resist -resistance

Revision 3 (Unit 7-9)

Students, you are given revision exercises on page 170-174. These exercises may help you to revise points you have discussed from unit 7 through unit 9. Therefore, practice these exercises and check your answer referring to the answer key given at the back of this **material.**

UNIT TEN: ENERGY

A10.4 language Focus: Using which and that

Do you sometimes wonder whether to use that or which in a sentence? The key to understanding proper usage of these words is learning the difference between restrictive/defining and nonrestrictive/non-defining relative clauses. Consider the following example:

She held out the hand **that** was hurt.

In this sentence, that is introducing a restrictive relative clause. This is a clause containing essential information about the noun that comes before it. If you leave out this type of clause, the meaning of the sentence is affected and it will result in either a sentence of doubtful meaning or a sentence that makes no sense at all:

She held out the hand. (Incomplete meaning)

Restrictive relative clauses are typically introduced by <u>that</u>, as well as by <u>whose</u>, <u>who</u>, <u>or whom</u>. Note that in British English, the word which is often used interchangeably with the restrictive that:

She held out the hand which was hurt.

This common British construction is not strictly incorrect in American English.

The other type of relative clause is a **non-restrictive relative clause**. This kind of clause contains extra information that could be left out of the sentence without affecting the meaning or structure. Nonrestrictive relative clauses can be introduced by **which, whose, who, or whom**, but you should **never use that** to introduce them. For example:

She held out her hand, which Rob shook.

She held out her hand, that Rob shook. (Wrong)

If you leave out this type of clause, the result is a sentence that may have less information but still makes sense:

She held out her hand. (Still makes a sense)

Note that a nonrestrictive clause is preceded by a comma, whereas no comma should precede a restrictive clause:

They got into the van, which had Ohio plates. (Nonrestrictive/ non-defining) I was driving the van that had Ohio plates. (Restrictive/defining)

Exercise

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	TOHOWINE SCH	ichico using willich	or mu.

- Solar power is a form of energy _____ comes from the sun.
 The electricity we use every day comes from a hydro-electric dam.
- 3. A car _____ is powered by diesel fuel is more efficient then a petrol-driven car.
- 4. She prefers to watch films _____ make her feel happy.

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5.	Fossil fuels,	are	e in	limited	supply,	will	soon	run	out.
----	---------------	-----	------	---------	---------	------	------	-----	------

6. Fires _____ burn wood are causing environmental disaster.

A10.5 Language Focus: Comparing things

Comparative and superlative adjectives

Comparative adjectives

Comparative adjectives compare one person or thing with another and enable us to say whether a person or thing has more or less of a particular quality. For example:

Bontu is taller than his sister.

I'm more interested in music than sport.

Big cars that use a lot of petrol are less popular now than twenty years ago.

Superlative adjectives

Superlative adjectives describe one person or thing as having more of a quality than all other people or things in a group.

The 'Silver Arrow' will be the fastest train in the world when it is built.

The most frightening film I've ever seen was Alfred Hitchcock's 'Psycho'.

What is **the least expensive way** of travelling in Japan?

Comparative and superlative adjectives form

To form the comparative, we use the -er suffix with adjectives of one syllable:

It's colder today than yesterday.

It was a **longer** holiday than the one we had last year.

Sasha is older than Mark.

To form the superlative, we use the *-est* suffix with adjectives of one syllable. We normally use *the* before a superlative adjective:

I think that's **the biggest** apple I've ever seen!

At one time, the Empire State building in New York was the tallest building in the world.

They have three boys. Richard is the oldest and Simon is the youngest.

Spelling of comparatives and superlatives with one-syllable adjectives

Type of adjective	Comparative	Superlative
most adjectives	add -er: cheap er , rich er , small er , young er	add -est: cheap est , rich est , small est , young est
adjectives ending in -e	add -r: finer, nicer, rarer	add -st: finest, nicest, rarest
adjectives with one vowel + one consonant:	double the final consonant and add -er: bigger, hotter, thinner	double the final consonant and add -est: biggest, hottest, thinnest

One-syllable adjectives which are irregular

Some one-syllable adjectives have irregular comparative and superlative forms.

Adjectives comparative superlative

bad, worse worst

far farther/further farthest/furthest

good better best

old older/elder oldest/eldest

The morning flight is **better** than the afternoon one.

His **elder** sister works for the government.

Olivia is Denise's **best** friend.

I think that was the **worst** film I've ever seen!

Pluto is **the furthest** planet from the sun in our solar system.

Note: We do not use *more* or *most* together with an *-er* or *-est* ending:

They emigrate because they are looking for a better life.

(Not:... a more better life.)

Two-syllable adjectives

Two-syllable adjectives ending in -y change y to i and take the -er and -est endings:

busy: busier, busiest happy: happier, happiest easy: easier, easiest funny: funnier, funniest

We were **busier** last week than this week.

Are you **happier** now that you've changed your job?

That was **the easiest** exam I've ever taken.

Some other two-syllable adjectives (especially those ending in an unstressed vowel sound) can also take the *-er* and *-est* endings:

clever: cleverer, cleverest quiet: quieter, quietest
narrow: narrower, narrowest simple: simpler, simplest

I've always thought that Donald was **cleverer** than his brother.

This new bed is **narrower** than the old one.

The guest bedroom is **the quietest** room in the house because it overlooks the garden.

We don't normally use the -er and -est endings with two-syllable adjectives ending in -ful. Instead, we use more and most/least:

This dictionary is more useful than the one we had before.

(Not: *This dictionary is usefulest*)

You'll have to try to be more careful in future.

The most useful tool in the kitchen is a good sharp knife.

This is the least harmful chemical in terms of the environment.

Longer adjectives

Adjectives of three or more syllables form the comparative with *more/less* and the superlative with *most/least*:

The second lecture was more interesting than the first.

That way of calculating the figures seems less complicated to me.

London is the most popular tourist destination in England.

If you are going as a group, the least expensive option is to rent an apartment or villa.

More, less and fewer

We can use *more*, *less* and *fewer* with noun phrases to create comparisons which are similar to the comparative forms of adjectives and adverbs:

There was more snow this year than last year.

She has more problems than most people.

You should eat less junk food and start to take better care of your health.

There are fewer birds in the countryside now than there were 30 years ago.

Commonly, we use *less* with uncountable nouns and *fewer* with plural countable nouns. Nowadays, many people use *less* with plural countable nouns. Some people consider this to be incorrect, and prefer to use *fewer*:

I think the room would look better with less furniture. (less + singular uncountable noun) There were fewer cars on the roads twenty years ago. (fewer + plural countable noun; formal)

Less kids take music lessons now than before. (less + plural countable noun; considered incorrect and less formal)

More and more, less and less, fewer and fewer

We can use *more and more, less and less* and *fewer and fewer* in noun phrases to refer to things which increase or decrease over time:

There are **more and more** low-quality reality shows on TV.

I seem to have less and less time to myself these days.

She visited her family on **fewer and fewer** occasions, till soon she stopped seeing them altogether.

Most, least and fewest

We can use *most*, *least* and *fewest* with noun phrases to create comparisons which are similar to the superlative forms of adjectives and adverbs. It is more common to use *the* before *most*, *least* and *fewest*, but we can also leave it out:

The points are added up, and the team with the most points wins.

Who got **most votes** in the election?

The room that has **the least furniture** would be best for dancing.

The class with the fewest students was always Miss Murray's philosophy seminar.

Traditionally, we use *least* with singular uncountable nouns and *fewest* with plural countable nouns. Nowadays, many people use *least* with plural countable nouns. Some people consider this to be incorrect, and prefer to use *fewest*:

Which horse eats **the least food**? That's the one I'll buy! (least + singular uncountable noun)

Of all the models we tested, the B226X had the fewest faults. (fewest + plural countable noun; traditional correct form)

Of the three cities, I'd say Limerick gets the least tourists. (least + plural countable noun; considered incorrect by some people)

Comparative adjectives: using much, a lot, far, etc.

We can strengthen or emphasise a comparative adjective using words such as *much*, *a lot*, *far*, *even* or *rather*, or by using *than ever* after the adjective:

This food is **much better** than the food we had yesterday.

The town is a lot more crowded these days because of the new shopping centre.

Alex is far less intelligent than the other kids in the class.

We've been busier than ever at work this last month or so.

We can soften a comparative adjective using a little or a bit. A bit is less formal:

She feels a little more confident now that she's given her first public performance.

She feels a bit more confident ... (less formal)

-er and -er, more and more

To talk about how a person or thing is changing and gaining more of a particular quality, we can use two -er form adjectives connected by and, or we can use more and more before an adjective.

We don't follow such comparisons with *than*:

The weather is getting hotter and hotter.

I'm getting more and more interested in conservation these days.

the -er, the -er and the more ..., the more ...

If a person or things gains more of a particular quality and this causes a parallel increase of another quality, we can repeat the + a comparative adjective:

The colder it is, the hungrier I get. (as the weather gets colder, I get hungrier)

The more generous you are to others, the more generous they are likely to be towards you.

Less and not as/not so with comparatives

We use *less* with longer adjectives (*interesting*, *beautiful*, *complicated*), but we don't normally use *less* with short adjectives of one syllable (*big*, *good*, *high*, *small*). Instead we use *not as* ... *as* ..., or *not so* ... *as* ... *Not as* is more common than *not so*:

The second method was less complicated than the first one.

This new laptop is **not** as fast as my old one. I'm sorry I bought it now.

Prepositions after superlative adjectives

We don't normally use of before a singular name of a place or group after a superlative adjective:

The castle is the oldest building in the city. (Not:the oldest building of the city.)

She's the youngest musician in the orchestra. (Not: ... the youngest musician of the)

However, we can use of with a plural word referring to a group:

All the sisters are pretty, but Sarah's the prettiest of them all.

The with superlative adjectives

When a superlative adjective is followed by a noun, we normally use *the*:

This is the best meal I've had for a long time. (Not: This is best meal...)

In informal situations, we can often omit *the* after a linking verb (*be, seem*) or a verb of the senses (*look, taste*) if there is no noun:

(talking about sweaters in a shop)

They've got them in red, green or grey. Which looks **best**?

If you want to get a message to Peter, email is quickest. He never answers the phone.

Farther, farthest or further, furthest

Farther / further and Farthest and furthest are comparative and superlative forms of far. We use them to talk about distance. There is no difference in meaning between them. Further is more common:

We can't go any further; the road's blocked.

How much **farther** are we going?

Go on, boys! Let's see who can run furthest/farthest.

However, there are some occasions when we can use *further* but not *farther*. We use *further* before a noun to mean 'extra', 'additional' or 'a higher level':

For further information, please ring 095-6710090.

I do not propose to discuss it any further.

She's gone to a college of further education

Exercise

M	ake sentences in the way indicated in the example.
Ex	cample: Tola is very strong, but Bonsa is stronger. He is the strongest in the class.
1.	Nuclar power can be dangerous. It is than wind energy.
2.	Ayana is very intelligent, but Meselech is She is in the class.
3.	Nishan had good results in the test, but Desta's were Hers were in the class
4.	Our English test was easy, but our maths test was It was test of all.
5.	The floods this year are bad, but they were five years ago. They were we
	have had for many years.
6.	Ethiopia is a big country, but D.R.Congo is It is country in Africa.

A10.10 Language Focus: make and do

Basic difference between *make* and *do* include:

- Use *do* for actions, obligations, and repetitive tasks.
- Use *make* for creating or producing something, and for actions you choose to do.

Common English collocations with do include:

- do the housework
- do the laundry
- do the dishes
- do the shopping
- do work
- do homework
- do business

- do anything
- do well
- do something
- do a report
- do a course
- do exercise
- do your hair

- do your nails
- do everything
- do nothing
- do badly
- do good
- do the right thing
- do your best

Exception: make the bed = putting blankets, sheets, and pillows in the correct place so that the bed looks nice and not messy.

Common English collocations with make include:

- make food/ breakfast/lunch
- make a salad
- make a cup of tea
- make a reservation
- make money
- make a profit
- make a fortune
- make friends
- make love
- make up your mind
- make a discovery
- make a list
- make sure
- make a difference
- make an exception

- make a pass at
- make fun of someone
- make a phone call
- make a joke make a point
- make a complaint
- make a confession
- make a speech
- make a suggestion

- make a prediction
- make an excuse
- make a promise
- make an observation
- make a comment
- make a mistake
- make progressmake an attempt
- make an effort

Exercise

1. Put the words or phrases in the box in the correct list.

a journey	an exam	a profit a de	ecision you	r best	a suggestion
your hair	a phone call	the housework	progress	an effort	a noise
an excuse	a complaint	your bed	arrangemen	ts the s	shopping

<u>make</u> <u>do</u>

a journey an exam

B10.6 Language Focus: Preposition with verbs/ adjectives

Adjective + Preposition

Adjectives are often followed by prepositions.

nice / kind / good / stupid / silly / intelligent / clever / sensible / (im)polite / rude /unreasonable OF someone (to do something)

Example: Thank you it was very nice / kind of you to help me.

It's stupid of her to go out without a coat.

> nice / kind / good / (im)polite / rude / (un)pleasant / (un)friendly / cruel TO s/one

Example: She has always been very nice / kind to me.

Why are you so rude / unfriendly to Ann?

> angry / furious ABOUT something / WITH someone / FOR something

Example: Why are you so angry about it?

They were furious with me for not inviting them to my party.

> pleased / disappointed / satisfied WITH something

Example: I was pleased with the present you gave me.

Were you disappointed with your examination results?

bored / **fed up WITH** something

Example: You get bored / fed up with doing the same thing every day.

> surprised / shocked / amazed / astonished AT / BY something

Example: Everyone was surprised by /at the news.

> excited / worried / upset ABOUT something

Example: Are you excited about going on holiday next week? **afraid / scared / frightened / terrified OF** someone / something

Example: Are you afraid of dogs? **proud** / **ashamed OF** someone / something Example: I'm not ashamed of what I did. **good** / bad / excellent / brilliant / hopeless AT (doing) something Example: I'm not very good at repairing things. > married TO someone Example: Linda is married to an American. > sorry ABOUT something Example: I'm sorry about the noise last night. > sorry FOR doing something Example: I'm sorry for shouting at you yesterday. **be / feel sorry FOR** someone Example: I feel sorry for George. > famous FOR something Example: Florence is famous for its art treasures. **responsible FOR** something Example: Who was responsible for this noise last night? > interested IN something Example: Are you interested in art? > Full/ short /fond OF something Example: The letter was full of mistakes. Example: I'm a bit short of money. Example: Mary is fond of animals. **keen ON** something Example: We stayed at home because Mary wasn't very keen on going out. > similar TO something Example: Your writing is similar to mine. > crowded WITH (people,...) Example: The city was crowded with tourists. Add a preposition to these sentences where one is needed. Note: some have zero preposition! 1. She is interested _____ all types of music, but fanatical _____ jazz. 2. We are almost totally dependent _____ the weather. 3. The film is loosely based _____ the book. 4. The government has set up a group to enquire _____ airport accidents. 5. She has been doing research _____ cancer for twenty years. 6. Although he paints, he is most famous _____ his poetry. 7. I could never get accustomed _____ the cold weather. 8. I got so totally absorbed _____ the film, I forgot the cake! 9. We have been flooded _____ requests to show the programs again.

10. He is capable turning the company's fortunes around. B10.7 language Focus: Using <i>too</i> and <i>enough</i>
Too and Enough Too and enough indicate degree. They modify adjectives, adverbs, and nouns. ➤ Too means more than what is needed. ➤ Enough means sufficient. Examples: He is too old to play football with the kids. Dave is intelligent enough to do the right thing. You're not working fast enough. I don't have enough time. She has got too much patience
Use of too and enough
2. Enough comes after adjectives and adverbs/ ADJECTIVE + ENOUGH or ADVERB + ENOUGH Examples: He isn't old enough to watch this program. We're not walking quickly enough.
1. Enough may also precede nouns/ ENOUGH + NOUN
Examples: We have enough money.
I have not got enough money to buy this computer.
2. Too comes before adjectives and adverbs/ TOO + ADJECTIVES or TOO + ADVERBS
Examples: It's too hot to wear that coat.
I was driving too fast.
3. Too may also come before nouns when it is used with the expressions too much and too many.
A) Too much is used before uncountable nouns.
Example: There is too much salt in this food.
B) Too many is used before countable nouns.
Example: There are too many students in this classroom.
Exercise
Choose the correct alternative to complete each sentence.
1. It was so we didn't get it.
A) expensive enough B) too expensive C) enough expensive
2. It is to read. I don't understand it at all.
A) enough difficult B) too difficult C) difficult enough
3. They didn't sell to make it worthwhile.
A) tickets enough B) enough tickets C) too tickets
4. There were people there. A) too B) too many
5. It is notto sort things out. A) enough late B) late enough C) too late
6. It is to pass. A) enough difficult B) too difficult C) difficult enough
7. I left because I had had their arguing. A) enough B) enough of C) too
8. He ate and felt ill. A) enough much. B) much enough. C) too much

B10.9 Language focus: Using the passive tense

A) Uses of passive sentences

In some sentences, passive voice can be perfectly acceptable. You might use it in the following cases:

1. The actor/ subject is unknown:

Example: The cave paintings of Lascaux were made in the Upper Old Stone Age. (We don't know who made them.)

2. The actor is irrelevant:

Example: An experimental solar power plant will be built in the Australian desert. (We are not interested in who is building it.)

3. You want to be vague about who is responsible:

Example: Mistakes were made. [Common in bureaucratic writing!]

4. You are talking about a general truth:

Example: Rules are made to be broken. [By whomever, whenever.]

5. You want to emphasize the person or thing acted on. For example, it may be your main topic:

Example: <u>Insulin</u> was first discovered in 1921 by researchers at the University of Toronto. It is still the only treatment available for diabetes.

B) Forms of passive sentences

Tense	Auxiliary verb + V3	Examples
Present simple	am, is, are + made	Wine is made from grapes. Many cars are made in Japan.
Present progressive	am, is, are + being + sent	The document is being sent right now. I am being sent to work in the London office.
Past simple	was, were + invited	John was invited to speak at the conference. We were invited to Daniel and Mary's wedding.

Past progressive	was, were + being + washed	The dog was being washed when I got home. Their cars were being washed while they were in the mall shopping.
Future (will)	will be + signed	The contract will be signed tomorrow. The documents will all be signed by next week.
Future (going to)	am, is, are + going to be + built	A bridge is going to be built within the next two years. New houses are going to be built in our neighborhood.
Present perfect	has, have + been + sold	That start-up has been sold for \$5 million. The rights to his book have been sold for \$250,000.
Past perfect	had + been + hired	The new manager had been hired before John left the company. All the employees had hired before the store opened.
Future perfect	will + have been + finished	The crates will have been loaded by then.
Modals: can/could	can, could + be + issued	A passport can only be issued at the embassy. He said the documents could be issued within the week.
Modal: have to	have to, has to, had to + be + arranged	A babysitter has to be arranged for this evening. Joan's travel plans have to be arranged by December.

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Modal: must	must + be + stopped	Criminals must be stopped before they commit crimes.
----------------	---------------------	--

Note: <u>Verbs</u> that have no object (no one to receive the action) cannot be put in to the passive, such as, arrive, come, die, exist, go, happen, have, live, occur sleep, etc.

Exercises

Fill in the correct passive form of the verb in parentheses.

1.	After the earthquake, aid was sent to the people of Haiti. (sent)
2.	The electricity was cut off because the bill hadn't been paid. (not pay)
1.	Penicillin by Alexander Fleming in 1928. (discover)
2.	Statements from all the witnesses at this moment. (take)
3.	Both weddings by Good Taste. (cater)
4.	A Picasso from the Metropolitan Museum of Art.(steal)
5.	this washing machinein Germany? (make)
6.	Tea in China. (grow)
7.	When we reached the airport, we found that all the flights due to the storm. (cancel)
8.	The fax until tomorrow morning. (not send)

B10.10 Language focus: Conditional tense with will

There are four different types of conditional sentences in English. Each expresses a different degree of probability that a situation will occur or would have occurred under certain circumstances.

- Zero Conditional Sentences
- First Conditional Sentences
- Second Conditional Sentences
- Third Conditional Sentences

1. How to Use Zero Conditional Sentences

Zero conditional sentences express general truths (situations in which one thing *always* causes another). When you use a zero conditional, you're talking about a general truth rather than a specific instance of something. Examples:

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

When people smoke cigarettes, their health suffers.

There are a couple of things to take note of in the above sentences in which the zero conditional is used.

✓ First, when using the zero conditional, the correct tense to use in both clauses is the <u>simple present</u> tense.

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✓ Secondly, notice that the words *if* and *when* can be used interchangeably in these zero conditional sentences. This is because the outcome will always be the same, so it doesn't matter "if" or "when" it happens.

2. First Conditional Sentences

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

Example: If you rest, you will feel better.

Note that we use the <u>simple present tense</u> in the if-clause and <u>simple future tense</u> in the main clause (the clause that expresses the likely outcome). This is how we indicate that under a certain, a specific result *will* likely happen in the future.

3. Second Conditional Sentences

Second conditional sentences are useful for expressing outcomes that are completely unrealistic or will *not* likely happen in the future. Consider the examples below:

If I inherited a billion dollars, I would travel to the moon.

If I owned a zoo, I might let people interact with the animals more.

Notice the correct way to structure second conditional sentences is to use the <u>simple past tense</u> in the if-clause and an auxiliary modal verb (e.g., could, should, would, might) + v1 in the main clause.

4. Third Conditional Sentences

Third conditional sentences are used to explain that present circumstances would be different if something different had happened in the past. Look at the following examples:

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

If I had cleaned the house, I could have gone to the movies.

These sentences express a condition that was likely enough, but did not actually happen in the past. The speaker in the first sentence was capable of leaving early, but did not. Along these same lines, the speaker in the second sentence was capable of cleaning the house, but did not. These are all conditions that were likely, but regrettably did not happen.

Note that when using the third conditional, we use the <u>past perfect</u> (had + past participle) in the if-clause and **the modal auxiliary (would, could, shoud, etc.)** + **have** + **past participle** in the main.

Exercise

Complete the sentences with the verb in brackets in the present simple or will.

- 1. I (be) very angry if you (not come) to my party.
- 2. If you (feel) nervous about walking to the bus stop, I (go) with you.
- 3. Our teacher (punish) you if you (do that again.)

B10.11 Increase your word power: Collocations of get

Study the following collocations of get and practice the given exercise below.

- ✓ get a call
- ✓ get a chance
- ✓ get a clue
- ✓ get a shock
- ✓ get a cold
- ✓ get a degree/ a
- ✓ get a ticket
- ✓ get a dark
- ✓ get angry
- ✓ get a diploma
- ✓ get a job
- ✓ get cool
- ✓ get a splitting headache
- ✓ get dressed/ undressed
- ✓ get good/top/bad
 - marks

- ✓ get a/the right
- ✓ get drunk
- ✓ get fired
- ✓ get frightened
- ✓ get a letter
- ✓ get changed (change
 - clothes)
- ✓ get dark
- ✓ get divorced
- ✓ get a joke
- ✓ get home (arrive)
- ✓ get hot(ter)
- ✓ get hungry
- ✓ get into trouble
- ✓ get lost
- ✓ get married
- ✓ get nowhere
- ✓ get old

- ✓ get one's hair cut
- ✓ get out of breath
- ✓ get permission
- ✓ get pregnant
- ✓ get ready for
- ✓ get started
- ✓ get tired get stuck (in a traffic jam)
- ✓ get the ticket (buy)
- ✓ get to sleep
- ✓ get together
- ✓ get the impression
- ✓ get upset
- ✓ get wet
- ✓ get sleep
- ✓ get worried
- ✓ get the message

Exercise

C	ompl	ete	the	fol	low	ing	sentences	with	a	form	of	ge	t.
---	------	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----------	------	---	------	----	----	----

- 4. Every morning I _____ up at six oc'lock.
- 5. After three years of living in the city, he _____ used to the noise.
- 6. I am going to _____ ready for the party.
- 7. We _____ very cold last night.
- 8. We hope to _____ some tickets for the concert.

Answer:

UNIT 11: APPLICATION FOR JOBS OR COLLEGE

PART A

A11.1 INTRODUCTION: How to Apply for a Job

Study the following words and phrases

- Job vacancies
- Applying for job
- Curriculum Vitae (CV)

- Employer
- Employee
- Employ

A11.3 Speaking: Talk about the future

Using the question forms what, where, why and the future tenses we can talk about your plan for the future.

Examples: I am staying at school. (Present continuous)

I would like to go to college. (Would like)

I am going to go to college. (Going to future)

I will visit my family. (Simple future)

Study the dialogue:

A - What **are you going** to do this weekend?

B - On Saturday **I'm going to finish** my assignment and then go out at night. On Sunday **I'm playing soccer** in the morning and then having dinner at my parent's house. What about you?

A - I'm going to the mountains for the weekend. It should be a lot of fun!

A11.8 Writing: A record of achievement (CV)

Curriculum Vitae (CV) is a Latin expression literally meaning 'course of life'. Study the example below, each item of the information has its own heading. Full sentences are not required. Two names of referees are usually required, etc. Here is a sample curriculum Vitae:

Curriculum Vitae

Name: Iftu Mohammed

Date of birth: 12,05, 1996

Place of birth: Jimma

Education back ground:

Primary: (2003-2009) *Jimma Jiren primary school*

Secondary (2010-2011) Jimma Jiren secondary school

Part-time work experience:

2010-2011 volunteer helper, engaged in creative work in science and technology club

Interest/hobbies: reading, sport, secretory of school mini-media club

Referees: Ato Mussa Ahimed(school principal) phone no 0911001112

Ato Hunde Oli (Vice director) phone no 0909091112

A11.10 Language Focus: Using since and for

♣ We use for and since to say how long:

Jibril has been in Harar - for four days.

- since Monday.

 \blacksquare We use for + a period of time (four days / two years etc.)

four days five years

an hour a long

time

For a week

ten

a month three weeks

minutes

two hours

♣ We use since + the start/point of the time (Monday / 9 o'clock etc.)

Monday December

9 o'clock 2010

Since 24 July Wednesday

I got up

Compare:

Compare: Bontu has been in Gonder since January. (= from January to now)

Bontu has been in Gonder for six months. (not 'since six months')

I've known her since 1980. (= from 1980 to now)

I've known her for a long time. (not 'since a long time')

 \blacksquare ago = before now:

e.g. Simbo started her new job two weeks ago. (= two weeks before now)

'When did Beka go out?' 'Ten minutes ago.' (= ten minutes before now)

I had dinner an hour ago. (= an hour before now)

Life was very different a hundred years ago.
♣ We use ago with the past simple (did/had/started etc.).
Compare ago and for:
When did she arrive in London?
She arrived in London four days ago.
How long has she been in London?
She has been in London for four days.
Exercise 1: Complete these sentences with since or for
 My aunt has lived in Australia15 years. Nobody lives in those houses. They have been empty many years. Mrs Hire is in her office. She's been there7 o'clock. The bus is late. We've been waiting20 minutes.
Exercise 2: Answer the following questions. Use the words in brackets () + for or ago. 1. (four days) When did she arrive in Nekemte? 2. (four days) How long has she been in Asella? 3. (20 years) How long have they been married? 4. (20 years) When did they get married? 5. (ten minutes) When did Dori arrive?
Exercise 3: Use for, since, or ago to complete the following paragraph, and correct form of the verb in brackets.
My father is a farmer. He(farm) in the Tigray region 20 years. He first(move) there with his parents many years when he (is) a child. His father (die), so he (work) to grow food the rest of the family. We children (walk) to school two hours every morning. The school (open) on 2003 and my brother (be) at school there four years. He (is) the first in our family to go there it opened, and now my two sisters (attend) the same school as well.
PART B
B11.3 Language Focus: Sentence patterns with adjectives
Exercises: On STB page 202 there are exercise 1 and 2 read the instructions carefully and

B11.5 Language Focus More about adjectives

complete each sentence.

Participle is adverbial that indicates action or a state of being.

✓ Is a very common way of forming adjectives by using *present and past participle* of verbs

✓ Participle come into two varieties: past and present

Study the following sentences:

He is *bored* by the lesson.

He finds the lesson boring.

Past participle

Most past participles have a passive meaning when used as adjectives. They end in –ed/d/en Study the examples:

When was the last time you were embarrassed? (embarrassed=passive meaning)

Talk about a time you were terrified!(terrified=passive meaning)

The chairperson was excited at prospect of another change. (was excited=passive meaning)

- Present participle
- Show an ongoing condition or feeling
- Describe the person or thing that causes the action
- Modifies a noun that affects someone or something else
- Is active participle

Study the examples:

What kind of TV program do you think is boring? (boring TV program=active meaning)

Talk about something you think is fascinating!(something fascinating=active meaning)

✓ As a rule the past participle(usually, but not always, ending in-ed) tells us how someone feels about something, while the present participle ending in -ing tells us how something makes us feel

I'm excited at the prospect of another change- tells you how I feel

The prospect of another change is exciting (for me) –tells you how the prospect makes me feel.

Exercise: Complete the following sentences with the correct word from the brackets.

- 1. I like being a nurse. It is very (satisfied/satisfying) to look after ill people.
- 2. We were glad to arrive after such a long and (tired/tiring) journey.
- 3. My boss was very (pleased/pleasing) with my work and increased my salary.
- 4. The children were (thrilled/thrilling) by their new pet.
- 5. The music was so (bored/boring), that Nishan fell asleep.
- 6. Please stop making that noise. It is very (annoyed/annoying).
- 7. Desta was (surprised/surprising) to get a letter from her brother in America.
- 8. We were very tired and (confused/confusing) after the long journey from London.

B11.9 Writing: Complete the story(using discourse markers)

Discourse markers are connectors/linking words that generally occur at the beginning or middle of sentences. For example:

I like English very much, but how to study it well?

Although she's very nice, her classmates hate her.

A. Coordinating Conjunctions

Location of a coordinating conjunction

1. <u>Don't use a coordinating conjunction</u> (*for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so*) <u>at the beginning</u> of a sentence. These conjunctions can be used to join two independent clauses, so they come in the middle of a sentence rather than the beginning.

Commas with coordinating conjunctions

2. <u>Use a comma before</u> a coordinating conjunction when it is being used to join two independent clauses.

I wrote for ten hours, **but** I didn't finish my composition.

I wrote for ten hours, yet I didn't finish my composition.

I went to bed, for I was tired.

I continued thinking about my composition, and I couldn't fall asleep.

I didn't finish my composition, **nor** did I get any sleep.

3. The coordinating conjunctions *and* and *or* can be used to join two nouns, verbs, adjectives, or adverbs. In these cases, <u>don't use a comma before</u> the conjunction.

I couldn't decide if I should **continue** writing **or go** to bed.

I felt nervous and worried.

I was thinking about my **composition and** other **homework** all night.

B. Conjunctive Adverbs

Location of a conjunctive adverb in a sentence

1. A conjunctive adverb (e.g., however, nevertheless, therefore, moreover, likewise, furthermore, consequently, etc.) can be used at the beginning, middle, or end of a <u>single</u> independent clause. The beginning or middle is preferred to the end position.

Commas with conjunctive adverbs

2. Use a comma after a conjunctive adverb when it starts a single independent clause.

I wrote for ten hours. **However**, I didn't finish my composition.

I wrote for ten hours. Nevertheless, I didn't finish my composition.

I was tired. **Therefore**, I went to bed.

I was tired. **Consequently**, I went to bed.

3a. <u>Use commas around a conjunctive adverb</u> when it comes between a subject and main verb in a single independent clause

I wrote for ten hours. I didn't, however, finish my composition.

3b. <u>Use a comma before a conjunctive adverb</u> when it ends a single independent clause.

I wrote for ten hours. I didn't finish my composition, however.

Semi-colons with conjunctive adverbs

4. A **conjunctive adverb** can be used to **join two independent clauses**. In this case, **a semi-colon is used instead of a period** after the first independent clause.

I wrote for ten hours; however, I didn't finish my composition.

I was tired; consequently, I went to bed.

C. Subordinating Conjunctions

Location of a subordinating conjunction in a sentence

1. A subordinating conjunction (because, although, until, if, when, while, before, after, as, since) is used to join an independent clause and a dependent clause. They can come at the beginning of a sentence or in the middle when they begin another clause.

Commas with subordinating conjunctions

2. When you begin the sentence with the subordinating conjunction and the dependent clause, use a comma after the dependent clause (before the second/independent clause).

Although I wrote for ten hours, I didn't finish my composition.

Because I was tired, I went to bed.

3. When you use the **subordinating conjunction** in the middle of the sentence and the dependent clause at the end, don't use a comma after the first (independent) clause.

I didn't finish my composition although I wrote for ten hours.

I went to bed **because** I was tired.

D. Correlative conjunctions

<u>Correlative</u> conjunctions work in pairs to join words and groups of words of equal weight in a sentence. There are many different pairs of correlative conjunctions: either...or, not only...but (also), neither...nor, both...and, whether...or, just as...so, as...as, rather...than Examples:

You either do your work or prepare for a trip to the office.

Not only is he handsome, but he is also brilliant.

Neither the basketball team **nor** the football team is doing well.

Both the cross country team **and** the swimming team are doing well.

Whether you stay or you go, it's your decision.

Exercise: Read the story from STB-page 205 about '*The clever crow*' and complete with words (discourse markers) from the box.

UNIT 12

BIRTHS, WEDDINGS AND FUNERALS

PART A

A12.1 Introduction: Ups and Downs

Think of things that can make you happy or sad. How do you manage your happiness? What can you do to feel better when you are sad?

This is an **active** sentence and it has the subject first (the person or thing that does the verb), followed by the verb, and finally the object (the person or thing that the action happens to).

In this example, the subject is 'I', the verb is 'drank' and the object is 'two cups of coffee'.

If we want to put the object first in this sentence, we make the voice 'passive'.

Hence, it will be:

Two cups of coffee were drunk (we can add 'by me' if we want, but it isn't necessary).

Notice that the **object** of the active sentence becomes the **subject** of the passive sentence.

In the active voice, the subject of the sentence **DOES** the action; in the passive voice, the subject of the sentence is **ACTED UPON**.

How to make the Passive in English

We make the passive by putting the verb 'to be' into whatever tense we need and then adding the past participle. Study the Structure of the passive voice below.

Note that the form of the verb "to be" is singular or plural depending on the subject of the sentence:

A12.8 Language Focus: Using to get

TO GET can be used in a number of patterns and has a number of meanings.

1. to get + direct object = to obtain, to receive, to buy

I got my passport last week. (to obtain)

I got a letter from my friend in Dubai. (to receive)

We got a new television for the sitting room. (to buy)

1. to get + place expression = reach, arrive at a place

How are you getting home tonight?

We got to London around 6 p.m.

What time will we get there?

2. to get + adjective = become, show a change of stat

I'm getting old.

It's getting hotter.

By the time they reached the house they were getting hungry.

3. to get means to understand

Do you get what the teacher was explaining in class?

4. to get means to prepare meal

You can relax. It's my turn to get dinner tonight.

5. to get means to pay

Put your wallet away! I'll get the bill.

6. to get means to irritae

That really gets me! means that irritates me.

It really gets me when my sister shows up late.

7. to get + preposition/adverb = phrasal verbs with various meanings

to get at = try to express

to get away with = escape punishment for a crime or bad action

to get by = manage (financially)

to get down = depress, descend

to get off = leave a form of transport (train, bus, bicycle, plane)

to get on = 1. enter/sit on a form of transport (train, bus, bicycle, plane)

2. have a relationship with someone

to get on with = to proceed

to get out of = avoid doing something, especially a duty

to get over = recover (from an illness, a surprise)

to get through = use or finish the supply of something

to get up = leave your bed

to get up to = do something bad

A12.9 Language Focus: Congratulating, Inviting, Expressing Sympathy and Responding

Ways of congratulating

Great! Let me congratulate you on. ..

Well done! Congratulations on your promotion! Please accept my warmest Congratulations on your graduation!

congratulations... Congratulations! You deserve it!

Let me offer you my congratulations. That was excellent. Congratulations! I'd like to congratulate you on ...

Responses

Thanks. It's very kind of you. Thanks so much. It's very nice of you. Thanks for your support. Thanks a million.

Thanks for your kind words Thanks a lot.

Thank you for your kindness.

Ways of expressing sympathy:

That's too bad. I can't tell you how sorry I am. Oh, I am sorry to hear that. That's so sad.

I'm sorry. What bad luck! I take my sympathy to you.

I sympathize with your condition. What a pity! Oh, that's terrible.

Responding:

It's very kind of you. Thanks for your sympathy. Thank you very much. Thanks for your support

It would be Ok, thanks.

Invitations:

Would you like to... We should be delighted if you could...

I'd very much like you to... Would you care to... You will ... won't you?

We should be pleased if you could **Accepting:**

That's very kind of you With the greatest pleasure.

We'd very much like to... Thank you very much for inviting me.

What a delightful idea. **Refusing:**

I'm very sorry, I don't think I can. Thank you for asking me, but ...

I'd like to, but... Unfortunately, I can't ...

I'm afraid I've already promise ...

PART B

B12.3 Speaking: Making Generalizations

To make	generalizations, we	can use the follo	wing expression	ons.			
As a rule For the most part Generally In general On the whole			Usually Most of By and	In most cases Usually Most of the time By and large In my experience			
B12.5 R	eading: Three Poem	s					
Exercise	B12.5						
Read the 1	three poems entitled	'Witness', 'Bel	loved', and 'F	ace downwai	rds' on page 219 –		
20, and co	mplete the gaps in the	e following sent	tences with the	given words.			
scolding	ashen	fulfilled	moaned	relief	flattery		
hoarse	bellies	deputation	entangled	abounddiv	ine		
terrain	bondage	intrigue					
1. At the	e end of the football i	match, the man	was	from chee	ring on his favorite		
team.							
2. The c	hildren's w	vere swollen fro	m hunger and	lack of food.			
3. The m	nother fr	om grief and pa	in.				
4. The v	illagers sent a	to tell the l	local council at	out their con	cerns.		
5. The fa	armers' faces were pa	le and	_ from wearing	ess.			
6. The re	oots of the tress were	all	and wound to	gether.			
7. The tr	rees of the forest	with w	ild fruits.				
8. We w	ere so thirsty that the	fresh lemonade	tasted	·			
9. The w	veary soldiers stumble	ed over the roug	gh				
10. Her a	mbitions were	when she	was appointed	the hotel man	ager.		
11. Her_	from the p	oain made her vo	ery happy.				
12. My m	other is always	me for no	ot getting up or	n time.			
13. The s	lave resented his	when he	was captured.				
14. The a	tmosphere was full o	of plots and	whe	n my parents	were planning my		
weddi	ing.						

15. Her boyfriend tried to persuade her by ______ to give in to him.

B12.6 Language Focus: Using Even

The word 'even' is used to show that something is surprising or unusual; it is more than we would expect.

Example

She likes chocolate so much that she even eats it for breakfast.

We couldn't find it – even using the map.

Everyone failed the test –even Melesse who usually passes.

B12.7 Language Focus: Present Perfect and Past Simple Tenses

The present perfect tense is used to denote a period of time and the past simple tense is used to denote a particular time.

Example:

Two years ago, I studied English in England. (past simple)

I have studied English in several different countries. (present perfect)

'Just' is used with the present perfect to show a completed action in the recent past.

Example:

My mother has just left for the church.

We have just finished discussing on tenses.

B12. 8 Language Focus: Past Verb Forms

We use the different verb forms to add interest to a story. If we use only one verb form all the time, it would be boring to the reader.

Therefore, we use, for example, the past simple, the past continuous and the past perfect in a story.

Exercise B12.8

Complete the story on page 223 of your T.B by putting the verbs into the past simple or the past continuous.

ANSWER KEY

UNIT 7

A7.4 Exercise 1: a True b True c False d True

Exercise 2: 1 a, b 2 c

Exercise 3: 1. Such 2. So 3. So 4. Such 5. Such 6. So 7. Such 8. So

9. So 10. So 11. Such 12. Such 13. Such 14. So

A7.6 Exercise 1: 1 at 2 on 3 in 4 in 5 on 6 in 7 at

8 every 9 last 10 this

Exercise 2:

in On at no preposition

in two weeks' time the following day night, next year

in February Monday morning noon tomorrow afternoon

midnight yesterday

A7.7 Exercise 1:

Camels

- 1. Appearance and characteristics
 - 1.1 people think it's strange
 - 1.2 long neck, hump
 - 1.3 bad temper
- 2. Adaptation to the desert
 - 2.1 travels well in the desert
 - 2.2 strong, carries loads over big distances
 - 2.3 needs very little food and water
 - 2.4 large, flat feet for walking on soft sand

A7.10 Practice question: a Get b Make c my Bones d pretenses

Exercise 1:

volcanic eruption tsunami wave manmade disaster flash flood

ENGLISH LANGUAGE HANDOUT FOR GRADE 10, UNITS 7 - 12

mud slide global warming water-borne survive disaster disease Exercise 2: Volcano – volcanic eruption, ash cloud, lava flow, mud slide Tsunami – giant wave, swept ashore, water surge, coastal areas People – aid worker, rescue team, death toll Earthquake – earth movement, collapsed building, earthquake zone Flood – flash flood, water-borne disease, torrential rain Exercise 3: relief workers, affected region, washed/swept away, medical supplies, stricken areas, aid workers, cut off, relief effort, distribute aid Exercise 4: 1 washed away 2 affected region 3 cut off 4 relief workers 8 relief effort 5 distribute aid 6 medical supplies 7 stricken areas **B7.3 Exercise 1**: 1 some, any 2 no, any 3 any 4 some **Exercise 2:** Some: something, someone, somebody, somewhere Any: anything, anyone, anybody, anywhere No: nothing, no one, nobody, nowhere Every: everyone, everybody, everything, everywhere Exercise 3: 1 something 2 everywhere 3 anything 4 something/anything 6 anything 5 no one 7 somebody/someone 8 anywhere/somewhere, anywhere 9 nothing 10 Everyone **B7.7** Exercise 1: 1 f 2 d 4 b 5 c 3 a 6 e UNIT 8 Exercise A8.5 ...II 5. too much 1. too many 2. too many 6. too 7. enough 3. enough

4. too

8. enough

Exercise A8.6

- 1. Non-religious, worldly
- 2. Government, ruling system
- 3. Approved
- 4. Difference

- 5. Rate of speed
- 6. Stealing of property during a riot or violence
- 7. Attempting to influence
- 8. Shocking, alarming

Exercise B8.3... I

- 1. to 2. a
 - 2. about
- 3. on
- 4. at
- 5. to

5

Exercise B8.3... II

1. for

6. to

11. for

16. with

2. of

7. about

12. of

17. at

3. in

8. from

- 13. about
- 18. to

4. with

9. of

14. to

19. from

5. at

10. to

15. in

20. of

Exercise B8.6

1. a

8. The

15. a

22. x

2. a

9. x

23. the

3. a

10. x

17. the

16. a/The

24. the

4. the

11. an

18. x

25. x

5. x

12. x

19. the

26. the

6. the

13. x/a

20. x

27. x

7. The

- 14. an/The
- 21. x

Exercise B8.9

- 1. have
- 2. don't remember
- 3. I'm seeing
- 4. weighs

- 5. Do you know
- 6. We are having
- 7. smells / Does it taste
- 8. don't understand

UNIT 9

Exercise A9.6

The Atlantic Ocean The United States

The Netherland

The Congo River **Exercise A9.8**

1. to learn

- 2. trying
- 3. looking up

Exercise B9.7

- a. conquered
- b. lack of water
- c. suffered

The Bale Mountain

The University of London

The National Museum

The Mediterranean Sea

- 4. to work out
- 5. to write down
 - d. beyond imagination
 - e. not fit for eating

UNIT TEN

Exercise A10.4

1. That 2. which 3. that 4. that 5. which 6. that

Exercise A10. 5

- 1. more dangerous
- 2. more intelligent, the most intelligent
- 3. better, the best

- 4. easier, the easiest
- 5. worse, the worst
- 6. bigger, the biggest

Exercise B10.9

- 1. was discovered 2. are being taken 3. were catered 4. was stolen 5. Was/made
- 6. is grown 7. had been cancelled 8. won't be sent

Exercise A10.10

<u>make</u>		<u>do</u>
a journey	arrangement	an exam
a complaint	an effort	the shopping
your bed	a noise	your hair
progress	a phone call	an exercise
a profit	an excuse	your best
a decision	a suggestion	the housework

Exercise B10.6

1. in 2. on 3. on 4. into 5. on 6. for 7. to 8. in/by 9. with 10. of

Exercise B10.7

1. B 2. B 3. B 4. B 5. C 6. C 7. B 8. C

Exercise B10.10

1. get 2. got 3. get 4. got 5. get

UNIT 11

A11.10 Exercise 1: 1 for 2 for 3 since 4 for

Exercise 2: 1 four days ago 2 for four days 3 for 20 years 4 20 years ago 5 10 minutes ago

Exercise 3: has been farming for moved ago was has since died has been working for walk to school for was opened has been was since attend

B11.3 Exercise 1: 1 about 2 for 3 by 4 about 5 at 6 form 7 by 8 for

Exercise 2: 1 pleased 2 happy 3 sad 4 surprised 5 angry 6 annoyed

B11.5 Exercise 1: 1 satisfying 2 tiring 3 pleased 4 thrilled 5 boring 6 annoying 7 surprised 8 confused

B11.9

Although Then although Despite but however Then since but Finally then Finally since so

UNIT 12

Exercise B12.5

1	. Hoarse	5.	Ashen	9. Terrain	13. Bondage
2	. Bellies	6.	Entangled	10. Fulfilled	14. Intrigue
3	. Moaned	7.	Abounded	11. Relief	15. Flattery
4	. Deputation	8.	Divine	12. Scolding	
]	Exercise B12.8				
1	. went	7.	arrived	12. were	16. jumped
2	. left	8.	was	listening	17. got
3	. were		harvesting	13. didn't	18. started
	bumping	9.	welcomed	notice	19. disappeare
4	. saw	10	. were	14. was	d
5	. took		sitting	making	20. ran
6	. walked	11	. told	15. screamed	