

Anglès tècnic

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CFGM - Atenció a les persones en situació de dependència





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Introduction

This is the course *Anglès tècnic* corresponding to the studies of the CFGM of 'Atenció a les persones en situació de dependència'. It is composed of two parts: the written material and the web material. The written material includes the basic grammatical and lexical contents that are necessary to use the English language As it is designed as a distance learning course, it also includes tips and suggestions to help you learn the language on your own. On the other hand, the web material is composed of online activities and exercises which may serve as practice of the theoretical knowledge that you learn.

Now the question is: how do we justify the inclusion of an English course in the studies of 'Atenció a les persones en situació de dependència'? First of all, our current education system, the 'Ley Orgánica de Educación' (LOE), includes an English course in the curriculums of all the vocational studies. Apart from this, we should remember that in our present globalized world, English has become the standard language of communication. For this reason, a good knowledge of the language may have a positive influence on your personal success, on your career training, on your chances of promotion and possibly on a successful job search.

This course has been designed for students and professionals who work in the field of the support to people with special needs. The curriculums of the CFGMs assume a basic level of English, but we are aware that many students do not have any previous knowledge of the language. For these students, there is a number of extra resources in the course website, but they will have to make a greater effort to meet the course requirements.

Apart from grammar, the material includes information about the four skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) and a section called 'Everyday language', which explains different functions of the language, like greetings, making requests, making suggestions, etc. You can practise the contents of the written material with a variety of interactive exercices and activities in the course website and in the web material. However, you should be aware that the characteristics of a distance course make it very difficult to get enough practice of the oral skills (listening and speaking), so you will need some extra practice on your own.

The course contents are divided into three units, and each unit is sub-divided into three sections, which together cover different aspects of the English language. At the beginning of all the sections, you will find a reading text. These texts will offer you the possibility of checking and practising your reading comprehension and picking up some specific words and expressions which are frequently used in your professional field. Then, there is a storyline, a chapter of the life of a family called "The Marbles". Next, you will find information about several aspects of the English language, mostly grammatical explanations, but also some functional language and useful information for an online student.

The contents of the written material phocus their attention on three main topics: older people, disabilities and mental disorders and the working conditions of

caregivers. The units are called 'Aging', 'Disabilities and mental disorders' and 'At work'.

It is very important to understand that the written material is conceived as a manual. The course and the material are organized in units, but you do not have to read and study the first unit, and then go on to the second, and then to the third, as if you were reading a novel. You only need to look up the information that you need to do a specific task. Very often the exercise will tell you which section you need to check, and you won't probably need to read many of the sections.

Here are some tips about the best way of using this course:

- 1. Check and write down the deadlines for submitting the activities (you will find the course schedule in the 'Pla de Treball').
- 2. Look at the contents page in the written material to see what the unit is about and which topics you will practise.
- 3. Go to the course website and check the activities that you will have to submit. As a rule, you will find two oral activities (speaking and listening), an interactive grammar quizz and some written exercises in a text file, which you will have to download and submit for correction.
- 4. Use all or some the resources available for you: written material, web material, complementary material, websites, reference books, etc., and then do the exercises as well as you can. You can start doing the activities in the order that you prefer, but do not leave everything for the last day.
- 5. Submit your activities before the deadline.

You can use a dictionary if you have problems with the language, but you should also make an effort to understand the main ideas of a text without knowing all the words. As for automatic translators, they are very useful to understand short written texts (like the instructions of an exercise), but do not use them to translate the whole material or to write a text in English. The idea of presenting the written material in English is that you can learn the language by using it, so it makes no sense to use an automatic translator to do the work for you. Remember also that you can ask your teacher or your classmates anytime you need their help.

Apart from all these technical resources, it is very important that you adopt a specific attitude to be successful in this course. We understand how difficult English is for many of you, but we can assure you that if you work hard, you do all the activities and you are patient, you will have no problems with English. Good luck!

Learning objectives

By the end of the course, you should be able to:

1. Understand oral messages in standard language related to the education, the health, and the working and social environments of people working in the field of support to people with special needs and to analize the general meaning of a message relating it to the corresponding language resources.

2. Understand and make a comprehensive analysis of simple written texts related to the education, the health, and the working and social environments of people working in the field of support to people with special needs.

3. Produce clear, well-organized oral messages and take an active part in conversations frequently used in companies in the fields of the education, the health, and the working and social environments of people working in the field of support to people with special needs.

4. Fill in basic documents in the field of support to people with special needs and/or write simple texts in standard language related to the education, the health, and the working and social environments of workers in that field.

5. Show the appropriate attitude and behaviour in communicative situations as established by international conventions.

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Aging

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Introduction

Each unit is composed of three separate sections, and each section includes a reading text about a relevant topic, a grammar reference, a short story of the life of a family called "The Marbles", and finally a section about the use of the language.

In the unit called "Aging", there is a text about life expectancy. Nowadays, people live longer than in the past and this generates a lot of changes and challenges at a social level. Next, there is a text which describes the aging process, the physical and psychological changes that occur as we age. The last text describes some of the diseases normally associated with the elderly.

As for the grammar, you will learn about three basic aspects. In the first section, there is information about three very important words in a language: the nouns, which are used to define the material and inmaterial world around us; the determiners, which are some small words that we add to nouns, like articles, demonstratives and possessives; and the personal pronouns, which we use to refer to nouns. The second grammar section deals with the auxiliary verbs. These verbs are used to help other verbs form certain tenses, like the continuous tenses (verb 'to be') and the perfect tenses (verb 'to have'); the passive (verb 'to be'); and the interrogative and negative sentences (verb 'to do'). The third section in the unit deals with three other types of important words: the quantifiers, which are added to nouns to express quantity; the intensifiers, which we can add to adjectives and adverbs to indicate different degrees of intensity; and the English numbers, which form a type of quantifiers with some special characteristics. Before this grammar section, you will see the storyline, where you can see some examples of the grammar points in context.

In the first section of the unit, you will also find information about the oral skills of the language (listening and speaking). These skills are the most difficult ones to acquire in an online course because they require practice with another person, especially speaking, but even so, you will find some advice and resources about the best ways of practising these skills. In the second section, we introduce the two remaining skills, the written skills (reading and writing). You will read about the characteristics of both and you can also get some ideas on how to practice each one, with a special reference to the use connectors and puctuation, which are necessary to write a text correctly. The third section introduces what we call 'everyday language'. This refers to a number of expressions which are used in particular contexts and we can also use the terms 'functional language', or 'social language', because they are used in our interaction with other people. In this unit, we begin with the ways of greeting and introducing people, which are two very basic examples of interaction.

Learning objectives

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

1. Understand oral messages in standard language related to the education, the health, and the working and social environments of people working in the field of support to people with special needs and to analize the general meaning of a message relating it to the corresponding language resources.

- Identify the context of the message.
- Identify the main idea of the message.
- Identify the purpose of a face-to-face or telephone message or any other oral message received through any means of communication.
- Get specific information from oral messages common in the professional and daily lives in the field of support to people with special needs.
- Organize the elements of a message.
- Identify the main ideas in a speech about the professional field transmitted through the mass media in standard language.
- Recognize oral instructions and follow instructions.
- Be aware of the importance of understanding the general meaning of a message even if you dont' understand everything.

2. Understand and make a comprehensive analysis of simple written texts related to the education, the health, and the working and social environments of people working in the field of support to people with special needs.

- Read and understand written texts in standard language about the professional field of support to people with special needs.
- Interpret the global meaning of a written message.
- Relate a written text to the professional field of support to people with special needs.
- Identify the specific information used in the professional field of support to people with special needs.
- Interpret the most common documents used in the professional field of support to people with special needs.
- Translate texts from the professional field of support to people with special needs by using the necessary reference material.

• Understand a written text received through different means: post, fax, and e-mail, among others.

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• Choose the appropriate reference material such as technical dictionaries and automatic translators.

3. Produce clear, well-organized oral messages and take an active part in conversations frequently used in companies in the fields of the education, the health, and the working and social environments of people working in the field of support to people with special needs.

- Identify and apply the correct style, formal or informal, in oral speech.
- Express an oral message by using a variety of communicative resources.
- Use the appropriate conventions in the production or oral messages in the professional field of support to people with special needs.
- Describe the events that normally occur in the professional field of support to people with special needs.
- Use the appropriate terminology as commonly used in the professional field of support to people with special needs.
- Express feelings, ideas or opinions.
- Express the basic activities in the professional field, such as giving support to people, meeting professionals of related fields and describing common documents.
- Describe the job of a professional in the field of support to people with special needs.
- Accept or reject other people's proposals.
- Justify a decision taken.
- Ask other people to repeat or explain an oral message to make it more clear.
- Apply the appropriate conventions in oral communication within the professional field of support to people with special needs.

4. Fill in basic documents in the field of support to people with special needs and/or write simple texts in standard language related to the education, the health, and the working and social environments of workers in that field.

- Write short texts about the professional and daily lives in the field of support to people with special needs.
- Organize a text in a coherent way.
- Summarize texts in the professional field of support to people with special needs.

- Fill in documents related to the professional field of support to people with special needs.
- Apply the appropriate conventions and vocabulary in documents related to the professional field of support to people with special needs.
- Summarize the main ideas in written texts by using your own words.
- Use the appropriate protocol in documents.

5. Show the appropriate attitude and behaviour in communicative situations as established by international conventions.

- Define the most distinctive aspects of the customs of English-speaking communities in the professional field of support to people with special needs.
- Describe the social conventions of your country.
- Identify the values and beliefs which are characteristic of English-speaking communities.
- Identify the social and professional aspects of the professional field of support to people with special needs in all types of oral and written messages.
- Apply the social conventions in English-speaking communities.

1. Life expectancy

"Old is always fifteen years from now", Bill Cosby

Unfortunately, growing older is inevitable. In recent years, lifespan in Europe has grown up to the age of 75, and it is keeping the same trend. However, there is a big difference between developed and developing countries. According to the WHO (World Health Organization), in 2013 people in Monaco could live averagely up to 87 years, while in Sierra Leone their life expectancy was only of 47 years.

There is another phenomenon, the decreased birth rate, which contributes to this increasing ageing trend. In 1950, 95 million or 12% of the developed world population was over 60; and the forecast for 2050 is 416 million or 33% of the developed world. Some countries, such as Japan, have the longest life expectancy in the world. By 2020, more than one in four Japanese will be over 65.

This social change will have a direct impact on the economy and it will affect every area of life: labour markets, tax payment, health, family life or housing. There will be new challenges, more people will claim pension benefits while less people will work and pay income taxes. The dependency ratios will rise, and there will be more retired people. They will create a bigger market for goods and services linked to older people, such as retirement homes, and they will need more caregivers.

This new social structure will result in political changes. The governments will have to take the necessary steps to make the new society sustainable. Some measures have already been proposed, such as raising the retirement age, or tax rises. It is a cause for concern, but the new generations will have to struggle to overcome the difficulties of what has been called the "demographic agequake".

Language notes

Growing older: (Cat. fer-se gran) This expression is composed by a gerund (-ing form) and an adjective (old). We add -er to make the comparative form.

Lifespan: (Cat. esperança de vida) The lenght of time that a person is expected to live.

up to: (Cat. fins a) Used as a function word to indicate a limit or boundary.

Trend: (Cat. tendència) The prevailing tendency.

Developed/Developing countries: (Cat. païssos desenvolupats/en vies de desenvolupament). Developing countries refer to countries that do not enjoy the same level of economic security, industrialization and growth as developed countries.

WHO (World Health Organization): (Cat. OMS (Organització Mundial de la Salut)) Specialized agency of the United Nations (UN) that is concerned with international public health.

Averagely: (Cat. com a mitjana) Usually.

Life expectancy: (Cat. esperança de vida) = lifespan.

Birth rate: (Cat. taxa de natalitat) The proportion of births to the total population in a place in a given time.

Ageing increasing trend: (Cat. tendència creixent de l'envelliment) Tendency of increasing the number of people who get older.

Forecast: (Cat. previsió) Prediction.

Such as: (Cat. per exemple) For example.

Longest: (Cat. el/la més llarg/a). We add -est to an adjective to form the superlative.

Labour markets: (Cat. mercats laborals) The market in which workers compete for jobs and employers for workers.

Tax payment: (Cat. pagament de taxes) A sum of money paid to a government.

Challenge: (Cat. repte) Difficulty.

Will claim: (Cat. reclamaran) Claim means asking for the right. If we add "will" in front of a verb, it becomes the future form of the verb.

Retirement homes: (Cat. residència) Place where old people live and are cared for when they are too old to look after themselves.

Concern: (Cat. preocupació) Trouble, worry.

"Demographic agequake": (Cat. terratrèmol demogràfic d'envelliment) "Agequake" is an invented term composed by the words: "age"+"earthquake". It means such a big change in the number of old people that will resemble an earthquake.

Storyline

The Marbles

The Marbles are a family of seven members. Three generations live happily in the same house in a quiet neighbourhood near Stradford. Belien, the grandmother, who is now 71, has seen *her* graddaughter Annie grow and is very fond of *her*. *She* married Mr John Marble at the age of 25, quite late for *those* times. *They* moved to the house after *their* wedding and have lived there ever since. One year after getting married *they* had a baby called Thomas. *He* is now a doctor, and *his* wife, Linda, is a nurse. *They* are husband and wife, and *they* are always busy because *they* have a lot of work to do. Life is not easy for *them*. In addition, *they* have to take care of Annie, who is now 7 years old. *She* is a very nice girl, and *she* loves animals. *She* has got a dog. *It* is *her* favourite pet. *She* also has a turtle, *its* name is Gus. There are two animals in the house and that is why *they* always say that the family has seven members.

1.1 Grammar

Pronouns (Cat. pronoms) are very important words in a language. We use pronouns to refer to nouns. For example, when we say: *David is here*. *He is my friend*, we use the pronoun 'he' to refer to 'David'. In this way, we do not need to repeat the noun.

In English, the pronouns have different forms when they are the *subject* (Cat. subjecte) or the *object* (Cat. complement) of a *sentence* (Cat. oració).

The elements of an English sentence

A sentence is a group of words that have a meaning. In a sentence, the words have different functions. The most important are:

- The subject (S): it says who or what does the action of the verb. For example: *David is here*.
- The verb (V): it expresses the action or the state of the subject. For example: *David is here*.

Other common functions are:

- The direct object (DO): it says who or what receives the action of the verb. For example: *David drinks a cup of tea* in the evening.
- The indirect object (IO): it says who or what receives the direct object. For example: *David gives his friend a cup of tea*.
- The adverbial of time (AT): it says when the action happens. For example: *David drinks a cup of tea in the evening*.
- The adverbial of place (AP): it says where the action happens. For example: *David is here*.

A basic verb in English is the verb *to be* (Cat. ser, estar). As all the verbs, the verb *to be* has different forms. These forms depend on the subject of the sentence. We call the different forms of the verb the *conjugation* (Cat. conjugació) of that verb.

1.1.1 Subject and object pronouns

Subject pronouns

The subject pronouns always have the function of subject in the sentence. They have the following forms:

	Singular		Plural	
First person:	L	јо	we	nosaltres
Second person:	you	tu, vostè	you	vosaltres, vostès
Third person:	he	ell	they	ells, elles
	she	ella		
	it	-		

Notes:

- The first person singular pronoun *I* (pronounced /ai/) is always written with a capital letter (Cat. majúscula).
- In English, there is no distinction between the Catalan informal *tu* and the formal *vostè*, *vostès*.
- The third person singular pronouns *he* (masculine) and *she* (feminine) refer to people. The pronoun *it* (neutre) refers to all the other nouns.

Here are some examples of subject pronouns:

- I speak English (Cat. [Jo] parlo anglès).
- You are tired (Cat. ([tu] estàs cansat/da).
- David is my brother. **He** works in a hospital (Cat. David és el meu germà. *[Ell]* treballa a un hospital).
- Mary is my sister. **She** lives in Manchester (Cat. Mary és la meva germana. *[Ella]* viu a Manchester).
- It is very late. (Cat. és molt tard).
- We are at home. (Cat. [Nosaltres] som a casa).
- How are you? (Cat. Com esteu [vosaltres]?, com estàs [tu]?).
- These are David and Mary. **They** are my brother and sister (Cat. Aquests són David i Mary. *[Ells]]* són el meu germà i la meva germana).

Object pronouns

The object pronouns have the function of object (direct or indirect). We also use the object pronouns after a preposition. The following table shows the forms of the object pronouns and their Catalan equivalent forms:

TAULA 1.2. The object pronouns

	Singular		Plural	
First person:	me	me (a mi)	us	ens (a nosaltres)

TAULA 1.2	(continuació)
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	Singular		Plural	
Second person:	уои	et (a tu); el, li (a vostè)	you	us (a vosaltres); els (a vostès)
Third person:	him	el, li (a ell)	them	els (a ells, a elles)
	she	el, li (ella)		
	it	el, la		

Examples of the use of the object pronouns:

- Please help **me**! (Cat, Si us plau, ajuda'*m*).
- David listens to **you** (Cat. David *t*'escolta; David *l*'escolta [a vostè]).
- This is David. Go with him (Cat. Aquest és David. Vés amb ell).
- This is Mary. Tell her the news (Cat. Aquesta és Mary. Dóna-li la notícia).
- Mary lives in Manchester. It is a big city (Cat. Mary viu a Manchester. [-] És una gran ciutat).
- Please come with **us**! (Cat. Si us plau, vine amb *nosaltres*!).
- Are they with **you**? (Cat. Estan (ells/es) amb *vosaltres*; estan (/ells/es) amb *vostès*?).
- Speak to them! (Cat. Parla amb *ells*, *elles*!).

The following text shows the use of pronouns in a text. The pronouns are in bold type (Cat. negreta):

English:

'*David* gets up at seven everyday and then **he** has breakfast. At about eight, **he** goes to work with *Mary*, but **he** does not like going with **her** because **she** talks a lot. **They** usually come back home at five...'

Catalan:

'*David* es lleva a les set cada dia i després (**ell**) esmorza. Cap a les vui, (**ell**) va a treballar amb *Mary*, but a (**ell**) no li agrada anar amb **ella** perquè (**ella**) parla molt. (**Ells**) normalment tornen a casa a les cinc...'

1.1.2 The verb 'to be'. There is/there are

The verb 'to be'

The table shows the forms of 'to be'(in present):

In Catalan and Spanish, we normally omit the subject pronoun. In English, we always write or say the subject pronoun.

.99	Ag	i	ng
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TAULA 1.3. The verb 'to be' (present)

Affirmative Long form	Affirmative Short form	Negative Long form	Negative Short form	Interrogative
am	'm	am not	'm not	am I?
are	're	are not	aren't	are you?
is	'S	is not	isn't	is he/she/it?
are	're	are not	aren't	are we?
are	're	are not	aren't	are you?
are	're	are not	aren't	are they?
	Long form am are is are are are	Long formShort formam'mare'reis'sare'reare'reare're	Long formShort formLong formam'mam notare'reare notis'sis notare'reare notare'reare notare'reare not	Long formShort formLong formShort formam'mam not'm notare'reare notaren'tis'sis notisn'tare'reare notaren'tare'reare notaren'tare'reare notaren't

Long and short forms

Verbs usually have two forms:

- Long forms: they are used in the written, formal language.
- Short forms: we omit some letters. They are used in the oral, informal language.

The verb 'to be' is used in different ways:

1) As a *lexical verb* (Cat. verb lèxic), with the meaning of Cat. *ser*, *estar*. For example:

- David *is* a doctor (Cat. David *és* metge)
- He is tired (Cat. està cansat)
- 2) As an *auxiliary verb* (Cat. verb auxiliar):
 - To form the continuous tenses of the verbs. For example: *David is working now* (Cat. David *està* treballant en aquest moment).
 - To form the passive voice. For example: *This is explained in this letter* (Cat. Això *està* explicat en aquesta carta).

The lexical verbs and the auxiliary verbs

The *lexical verbs* are the verbs that express an action or a state. Practically all the verbs are lexical. The *auxiliary verbs* are the verbs that we use to form other verb tenses. In English, there are three auxiliary verbs:

- To be: it forms the continuous tenses and the passive voice.
- To have: it forms the perfect forms.
- To do: it forms the negative and interrogative forms of the lexical verbs.

There is / There are

The forms *there is* (singular) and *there are* (plural) express the existence of a noun. It is equivalent to Cat. *hi ha* and Sp. *hay*. In English, there are two forms: one for the singular and one for the plural, but in Catalan and Spanish, there is only one. Here are all the forms in English:

- *Affirmative*: there is..., there are...
- Negative: there is not ... there are not ...
- *Interrogative*: is there...?, are there...?

Examples:

- There is a person at the door (Cat. *Hi ha* una persona a la porta).
- There are two people at the door (Cat. *Hi ha* dues persones a la porta).
- There is not anything to say (Cat. No hi ha res a dir).
- There are not many people in the room (Cat. No hi ha molta gent a la sala).
- Is there anyone in the office? (Cat. *Hi ha* algú a l'oficina?).
- Are there any jobs available (Cat. *Hi ha* feines disponibles?).

1.2 Communication

In English, there is a great difference between the formal and the informal language. We use the formal language to speak to our superiors at work or to a person that we do not know; we use the informal language to speak to friends, colleagues and family members. The English give a lot of importance to formalities, so we must be careful and use the appropriate language in each situation.

There are four *skills* (Cat. habilitats) in all the languages:

- Oral skills: listening and speaking
- Written skills: reading and writing

Learning a foreign language means to develop the four skills. For this, you need a lot a lot of practice: you must speak English to speak fluently; you must listen to English understand the language; you must write to produce an accurate text and you must read to understand a written text.

See Unit 1, section 2 'Communication' for learning about the written skills

1.2.1 Formal and informal style

See annex 'Formal and informal style' for examples of the two styles in business letters. Both styles are correct; it is only a matter of tone and setting. These are the main characteristics of the formal and the informal styles:

Formal style:

- It uses the long forms of the verbs verbs: I am, he is not, etc.
- It uses the full forms of the nouns, and not the abbreviations: *photograph* (and not: *photo*), *television* (and not: *TV*), etc.
- In requests, it uses the form *could you...?*, and not the imperative form: *could you help me?* (and not: *help me!*).
- It frequently uses the passive voice, especially in written English: *it is considered that...* (and not: *people consider that...*), etc.
- It uses the formal versions of words and expressions: *post* (and not: *job*), *I would like...* (and not: *I want...*), etc.
- In writing, it uses longer, more complex sentences.

Informal style:

- It uses the short forms of the verbs. For example: I'm, he isn't, etc.
- It generally uses the abbreviated forms of the nouns. For example: *photo*, *TV*, etc.
- In requests, it generally uses the form *can you...?* or the imperative form. For example: *can you help me?*, *help me!*, etc.
- It does not frequently use the passive voice.
- It uses colloquial words and expressions: *job* (for: *post*), *dad* (for: *father*), *hi* (for: *hello*), etc.
- In writing, it generally uses short and simple sentences.

When you write or speak in English, you must be consistent: do not mix the formal and the informal styles. Compare these two texts with the same information, but different language styles:

Formal text

Dear Sir or Madam

This is to inform you that I am interested in the post of administrative assistant advertised in 'The Guardian' of 3r March. I would appreciate it if you could send me further details. Thank you in advance.

Yours sincerely

Informal text

Hi

Do you remember the advertisement for a job as an administrative assistant? It was in 'The Guardian' of the last 3rd March. Well, I inform you that I'm interested in this job. Can you tell me more about it? Thanks.

Bye

1.2.2 The listening skills

Like all the skills, the only way of developing your listening skills is by practising as much as you can. You must train your ear to the sounds of the English language, so you must listen to people speaking in English. The best option is to practise with another person (preferably a native speaker). If you have no possibility of speaking in English, there are other options for practising the listening skills. Here is a list of options:

- Watch films, TV series or TV documentaries in their original language (most are in English). Of these, documentaries are the easiest to understand because the speech is more formal and does not include conversations. Use subtitles in Spanish to help you understand, if you wish.
- Listen to songs in English and read the lyrics at the same time. Do not worry about the meaning of the words; just listen to the sounds and enjoy the music.
- Watch videos of your interest in YouTube, Vimeo, etc. There are thousands of videos especially created for practising the English listening skills.
- Surf the Internet. You will find many websites with listening texts, usually with exercises to check your comprehension.

Here is some advice if you decide to practise your listening skills:

- Do not try to understand all the words that you hear. You must learn gradually: at first, you will understand very little; later on, you will understand more and more things.
- Be patient. It can take a long time to see the results of your practice: this depends on your previous experience, on the frequency of your practice, on your natural dispositions, on the people's accent, etc.
- Do not abandon. You must continue learning after the end of the course, or you may lose the listening skills that you have gained with your practice.

Check the 'Interesting links' section in the course material for a list of websites with listening activities.

See annex 'The Phonetic Alphabet' for a list of the sounds of the English language. For many students, speaking is the most difficult of the four skills. Speaking usually happens in two situations:

- A speech (Cat. discurs, xerrada): for example, in a presentation. In a speech, you speak and other people listen; the language style is usually formal.
- A conversation (Cat. conversa): it is the most common situation at work and in your daily life. In a conversation, there is interaction with other people; the language may be formal or informal, depending on the situation.

To develop the speaking skills, you must practise a lot. Here is some advice for you:

- To practise your pronunciation, check websites where you can listen to words and sentences; then repeat what you hear. Many online dictionaries (like 'Wordreference.com') offer the pronunciation.
- Find another person to speak to: you can practise with another learner of English or with a native speaker.
- Check the Internet: some websites offer speaking practice via Skype to students of English from all over the world.
- Do not be afraid of making mistakes: people will understand that you are not a native speaker.

During a conversation, we can use some common expressions. Here are some examples (with equivalent expressions in Catalan):

To start a conversation:

- *Hello!* (informal) (Cat. Hola!)
- Excuse me (formal) (Cat. Perdoni)

To ask people to repeat:

- Pardon? (informal) (Cat. Perdoni?)
- Can you repeat please? (informal) (Cat. Pots repetir si us plau?)
- *Could you repeat please?* (formal) (Cat. Podria repetir si us plau?)
- *Could you say that again please?* (formal) (Cat. M'ho podria tornar a dir si us plau?)
- Sorry, but I didn't understand. What did you say? (formal) (Cat. Perdoni, però no l'he entès. Què ha dit?)

Check the 'Interesting links' section in the course material for a list of websites to practise your pronunciation and speaking skills.

To finish a conversation:

- *Well, I must go I'm afraid* (formal/informal) (Cat. Bé, hauria d'anar marxant)
- *OK, it was a pleasure talking to you* (formal) (Cat. Bé, ha estat un plaer)

2. The aging process

"Time flies, before you know, your body is not the same anymore. Suddenly you realize that you do not remember your friend's phone number. You get easily tired and your legs feel heavy."

For most of us, aging is an unexpected guest that arrives too early. People age at a different rate, it is a gradual process. There are physical and psychological changes.

Some physical changes are a decline in the senses, slower reflexes, a decrease in physical strenght and flexibility, and the body organs become less efficient. Hearing and vision loss affect the interaction with the world, though in most cases there is a remedy to compensate it. For example, wearing glasses or using hearing aid, and other eye problems such as cataract or glaucoma can be treated. Driving might become a dangerous activity, as the reaction time is slower. Therefore, competency assessment should be a must.

The brain works slowlier, it is easier to recall memories from 40 years ago better than recent events. It is more difficult to learn new things and you feel more comfortable when you are away from the crowd. Retirement is a reason for joy, but at the same time you feel like drifting in a pool of uncertainties and fears such as loneliness, poverty, sickness, death, dependency on others, and diminished mental capacity.

But not everything is about the physical and psychological changes, the social environment plays an important role too. Especially for the elder, familiarity means comfort. It is not easy to give up your independence and move to a retirement house or accept that you are not in control anymore. The feeling of alineation often results in anger, increased demands and helplessness. It is a psychological factor that caregivers and social workers always have into account and it can be a real burden for them sometimes.

Although it is well known that we are going to grow older, it still remains a taboo and it needs time for acceptance. In some cultures, the elderly are the most respected and the family keeps together, but in others aging is a fearful event.

Language notes Anymore: (Cat. ja no) No longer. Realize: (Cat. adonar-se) Comprehend, understand. Your legs feel heavy: (Cat. et pesen les cames) Your legs are tired. Aging: (Cat. envellir/envelliment) Growing older.

Unexpected guest: (Cat. convidat inesperat) Someone that visited and you were not waiting for them, they came by surprise.

Decline, decrease: (Cat. disminució) Drop, to come down.

Slower: (Cat. més lent/a) At a slow pace, comparative form (-er).

Hearing and vision loss: (Cat. pèrdua d'oïda i visió) Impairments of the essential senses of vision and hearing.

Competency assessment should be a must: (Cat. hauria de ser obligatòria una revisió de competències) It should be compulsory to pass a competency test.

Brain: (Cat. cervell) The organ of the body in the head that controls functions, movements, sensations, and thoughts.

Memories: (Cat. records) Thoughts, remembrances.

Away from the crowd: (Cat. Iluny de la multitud) Far from large groups of people.

Drifting in a poold of uncertainties: (Cat. submergir-se en un mar de dubtes (sentit figurat)) To find yourself in a point where you have lots of doubts.

Loneliness: (Cat. soletat) Feeling of being alone, not having anyone with you, to support you.

Poverty: (Cat. pobresa) Being poor.

Dependency on others: (Cat. dependència en els altres) When you depend on the help of others, you cannot do things by yourself.

Diminished mental capacity: (Cat. capacitat mental minvada) A decrease in the mental skills.

Elderly: (Cat. les persones grans) Old people.

Give up your independence: (Cat. renunciar a la independència) To stop being independent.

Burden: (Cat. càrrega) A serious of difficult responsibility that you have to deal with.

Storyline

Small talk

During the week, Belien and Annie spend most of the afternoon in the living room **because** they **don't like** staying in their rooms alone. Annie's friend sometimes comes around to play with her, but today she **isn't** there, so the grandmother and the granddaughter are talking.

Annie: "Tell me, granny, *were* you happy when you *were* my age? *Was* your life then similar to mine now?"

Belien: "It *was* more or less the same, sweetheart. *There weren't* any mobile phones, *but* we *didn't need* them. *There were* doctors *as well as* hospitals, *although* they *weren't* so modern.

Annie: Sorry, granny, and how did you chat with your friends?

Belien: Annie! Mobiles are quite recent. We didn't have these devices then.

Annie: So, what did you do?

Belien: I remember I had a best friend and I could explain you all details about our adventures as if everything happened yesterday.

Annie: Wow, granny! How can you remember things that happened so many years ago?

Belien: I *don't know*, Annie. What I know is that those memories are fresh in my mind, while I forget some other things. For example I *don't remember* what we had for breakfast this morning.

2.1 Grammar

In English, there are three *verb tenses* (Cat. temps verbals). The tenses indicate *when* the action happens:

- Present
- Past
- Future

There are also three *aspects* (Cat. modes). The aspects indicate *how* the action happens:

- Simple: the simple tenses express the actions of the verb.
- Continuous: the continuous tenses express actions that continue for a period of time.
- Perfect: the perfect tenses express actions that are finished at a particular moment.

The two present tenses are the *present simple* and the *present continuous*.

The prepositions are short words that are usually placed in front of a noun. There are few rules to explain the use of the prepositions. The only way of learning them is by reading a lot and learning useful phrases by heart (Cat. de memòria). There are different types of prepositions. The most important are:

- Prepositions of place
- · Prepositions of time

2.1.1 The present simple and the present continuous

Here are the forms and uses of the present simple and the present continuous.

The present simple:

TAULA 2.1. Conjugation of the present simple (//work//)

	Affirmative	Negative Long form	Negative Short form	Interrogative
I	work	do not work	don't work	Do I work?
You	work	do not work	don't work	Do you work?
He/She/It	works	does not work	doesn't work	Does he work?
We	work	do not work	don't work	Do we work?

TAULA 2.1 (continuació)

	Affirmative	Negative Long form	Negative Short form	Interrogative
You	work	do not work	don't work	Do you work?
They	work	do not work	don't work	Do they work?

Notice the following:

- The third person singular adds -s to the base form of the verb.
- The negative is formed with *do not* or *does not* in front of the base form.
- In the interrogative form, the auxiliary *do/does* is placed before the subject.

The main uses of the present simple are:

- 1) To express an habitual, regular action:
 - I get up at seven everyday (Cat. em llevo a les set cada dia).
 - David *lives* in London (Cat. David *viu* a Londres).
 - We work in a big company (Cat. Nosaltres *treballem* a una gran empresa).
- 2) To express a permanent state, something that is always true:
 - Australia *is* a very big country (Cat. Austràlia *és* un país molt gran).
 - The sun *rises* in the east (Cat. El sol *surt* per l'est).
 - Water *boils* at 100°C (Cat. L'aigua *bull* als 100°C).

Adverbs of frequency

The adverbs of frequency express the frequency of an action. They are very common with the present simple because they indicate regular actions. Here is a list of the most important adverbs of frequency:

- Always (Cat. sempre)
- Usually (Cat. normalment)
- Often (Cat. sovint)
- Sometimes (Cat. algunes vegades)
- Seldom (Cat. poques vegades)
- Never (Cat. mai)
- Everyday (Cat. cada dia)
- Every week (Cat. cada setmana)
- Once a week (Cat. una vegada a la setmana)
- Twice a week (Cat. dues vegades a la setmana)
- Three times a week (Cat. tres vegades a la setmana)
- From time to time (Cat. de tant en tant)

The adverbs *always*, *usually*, *often*, *seldom* and *never* are placed in the middle of the sentence:

- He always arrives late (Cat. Sempre arriba tard).
- We are *often* tired in the evening (Cat. Estem *sovint* cansats al vespre).

The adverb *sometimes* is placed at the beginning, at the end or in the middle of the sentence:

- He sometimes calls me (Cat. Em truca algunes vegades).
- Sometimes he calls me.
- He calls me *sometimes*.

The expressions *everyday*, *every week*, etc. are usually placed at the end of the sentence:

- We meet *everyday* (Cat. Ens reunim *cada dia*).
- I see David *twice a week* (Cat. A David el veig *dues vegades a la setmana*).

The present continuous

TAULA 2.2. Conjugation of the present continuous (//work//)

	Affirmative Long form	Affirmative Short form	Negative Long form	Negative Short form	Interrogative
I	am working	'm working	am not working	'm not working	am I working?
you	are working	're working	are not working	aren't working	are you working?
he/she/it	is working	's working	is not working	isn't working	is he working?
we	are working	're working	are not working	aren't working	are we working?
you	are working	're working	are not working	aren't working	are you working?
they	are working	're working	are not working	aren't working	are they working?

The gerund is an invariable form of the verb. It always ends in -ing. It is mostly used (together with the auxiliary verb *be*) to form the continuous tenses of the verbs.

The present continuous is composed of two elements: the auxiliary verb *be*, conjugated in the present tense, and the gerund of the verb (*working*).

The main uses of the present continuous are:

- 1) To express an action that is happening at the moment of speaking:
 - Look! David *is talking* to the director (Cat. Mireu! David *està parlant* amb el director)
 - I am writing the report now (Cat. Ara estic redactant l'informe)
 - He *is flying* to London in this moment (Cat. En aquest moment *està volant* cap a Londres)

2) To express a temporary action, one that is not permanent:

- I am working at night this week (Cat. Aquesta setmana treballo de nit)
- She is living with her sister (Cat. (Ella) viu/està vivint amb la seva germana)
- My car is in the garage so these days I *am taking* the bus to come to work (Cat. El meu cotxe és al taller així que aquests dies *agafo* l'autobús per a venir a treballar)

Adverbs of time

Some adverbs and adverbial expressions of time are frequently used with the present continuous tense. For example:

- Now (Cat. ara)
- In this moment (Cat. en aquest moment)
- This week (Cat. aquesta setmana)

We usually place these words at the end of the sentence:

- He is sleeping now (Cat. Ara està dormint).
- I'm reading your mail *in this moment* (Cat. *En aquest moment* estic llegint el teu mail).
- We are not working *this week* (Cat. Aquesta setmana no treballem).

Verbs that do not take the continuous tenses

Some verbs are never expressed in the continuous tenses. Some of these verbs are:

- Believe (Cat. creure)
- Doubt (Cat. dubtar)
- Enjoy (Cat. agradar, gaudir)
- Hate (Cat. odiar, detestar)
- Have (Cat. tenir)
- Know (Cat. saber)
- Like (Cat. agradar)
- Love (Cat. estimar)
- Prefer (Cat. preferir)
- Remember (Cat. recordar)
- See (Cat. veure)
- Think (Cat. opinar)
- Understand (Cat. entendre)
- Want (Cat. voler)

It is wrong to say: **I am liking this film*. We must say: *I like this film*. But we can use the continuous tenses with two of these verbs when they have a different meaning:

- Have (Cat. prendre): I *am having* breakfast (Cat. *Estic prenent* l'esmorzar/*Estic esmorzant*)
- Think (Cat. pensar): What *are* you *thinking* about? (Cat. En què *estàs pensant*?)

2.1.2 Prepositions of place (I)

Some prepositions of place express position and others express movement.

The most important prepositions that express **position** are:

- In (Cat. a, dintre de)
- On (Cat. a sobre de, damunt de)
- At (Cat. a)
- Next to (Cat. al costat de)
- Over (Cat. per damnunt de)
- Under (Cat. a sota de)
- In front of (Cat. al davant de)
- **Opposite** (Cat. davant de)
- Behind (Cat. al darrera)
- Between (Cat. entre)
- Across (Cat. a l'altra banda de)

The figure shows a graphical representation of the prepositions of place indicating position:

After a preposition, we can say:

- a noun: in the garden
- an object pronoun: for *him*
- a verb in -ing: without saying anything

IN	ON	AT	NEXT TO	OVER
UNDER	IN FRONT OF	OPPOSITE	BEHIND	BETWEEN
ACROSS				J

FIGURA 2.1. The prepositions of place (position)

Some common expressions with these prepositions are:

- In London (Cat. a Londres)
- In England (Cat. a Anglaterra)
- In the street (Cat. al carrer)
- On the corner of (Cat. a la cantonada de)
- On the wall (Cat. a la paret)
- On the floor (Cat. a terra)
- On the train (Cat. al tren)
- At home (Cat. a casa)
- At work (Cat. a la feina)
- At school (Cat. a l'escola)
- At the table (Cat. a la taula)

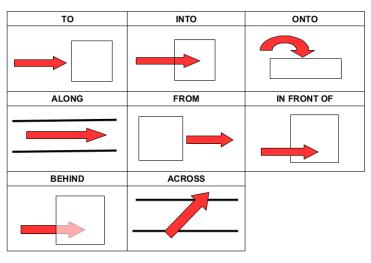
The prepositions that express **movement** are:

- **To** (Cat. a, cap a)
- Into (Cat. cap a dins de)
- Onto (Cat. cap el damunt de)
- Along (Cat. per, al llarg de)
- From (Cat. de, des de)
- In front of (Cat. cap al davant)

- Behind (Cat. cap el darrera)
- Across (Cat. a través de)

The figure below represents the prepositions of place that indicate movement:

FIGURA 2.2. The prepositions of place (movement)



We use all these prepositions with verbs that indicate movement, for example: *go* (Cat. anar), *drive* (Cat. conduir), *walk* (Cat. caminar), *run* (Cat. córrer), *fly* (Cat. volar), etc. Here are some examples:

- I am flying to London (Cat. Estic volant cap a Londres).
- He is running *into* the room (Cat. Entra corrents a l'habitació).
- Put the boxes *onto* the table (Cat. Posa les caixes *sobre* la taula).
- I am coming *from* the office (Cat. Vinc *de* l'oficina).
- They are walking *behind* the house (Cat. Estan caminant cap a darrera de la casa).

But we do not use a preposition with the noun *home*: *I am going home* (Cat. Vaig cap a casa). It is wrong to say: **I am going to home*.

Other prepositions

Other important prepositions are:

- With (Cat. amb)
- Without (Cat. sense)
- Of (Cat. de)
- For (Cat. per a)
- By (Cat. per)

Examples:

- I work *with* very interesting people (Cat. Treballo *amb* gent molt interessant).
- He left without saying goodbye (Cat. Va marxar sense dir adéu).
- February is the second month *of* the year (Cat. El febrer és el segon mes *de* l'any).
- Is this present for me? (Cat. Aquest regal és per a mi?).
- The job was finished *by* Peter (Cat. La feina va ser acabada *per* en Peter).

2.2 Communication

Reading and writing are the two written skills. Reading is a passive skill. This means that reading only requires to understand a written text. On the other hand, writing is an active skill, which means that we have to produce a text. Some common types of text are:

- Letters and emails
- Manuals
- Articles
- Fiction

At work, you will probably have to write letters and emails, and you will probably need to make translations (Cat. traduccions) and/or summaries (Cat. resums) of manuals and articles. For all this, it is very important that you learn the techniques for producing an accurate text.

See Unit 2, section 2 'Communication' to learn about translations and summaries.

2.2.1 The reading skills

Reading is very easy to practise because it is an individual activity. If you read in English, you will learn a lot of new words and a lot of grammatical structures, so reading is a very good activity for developing your writing skills.

At work, you will mostly read letters and emails in English, and you will probably need to read manuals or articles, too.

This is a small selection of material for practising your reading skills:

- *Graded readers*: if you like fiction, there are many graded readers at different levels, from beginners to advanced learners. These readers offer adaptations of classical works from the English and American literature.
- *Wikipedia*: if you prefer reading online, the Internet offers a great quantity of material. The English version of the Wikipedia has more than 5 million articles about any possible topic.
- *Simple English Wikipedia*: if you find the articles in the Wikipedia too difficult, there is a version specially designed for learners of English. The Wikipedia in Simple English uses basic words and very simple grammatical structures. It currently has more than 125,000 articles.
- *Howstuffworks*: in this website, you can find a great variety of articles divided into different topics. There are a lot of technical manuals that explain how things (stuff) works. It is recommended for intermediate and advanced students.

[Imatge: graded readers (càmera)]

Here are some ideas to practise your reading skills:

- Read slowly. You will need to read a sentence or a paragraph several times before you understand the meaning.
- You do not need to know all the words to understand the general meaning of a text.
- Do not translate the text into your own language: the objective is to practise your reading skills in English.
- Try to guess the meaning of unknown words. You will notice that many English words are of Latin origin. For example, you do not need a dictionary to understand: *family*, *future*, *university*, *excuse*, *practice*, *manual*, *dictionary*, etc.
- Read English as much as you can in your free time. This will help you to improve your reading/writing skills more quickly.

See the 'Interesting links' section for links to the recommended websites.

2.2.2 The writing skills

Writing is a very common activity. At work, you will probably need to write emails and letters in English, and perhaps instructions or short notes. As in all the skills, the only way of improving your writing is to practise as much as possible.

When you write a text in English, it is very important to consider the following aspects:

- **Clarity**: write short, simple sentences; write different paragraphs and separate them clearly; use connectors and punctuation to link the sentences.
- **Style**: choose the appropriate style (formal or informal), depending on the situation.
- Accuracy: use the correct vocabulary, grammar structures and spelling; take your time to correct mistakes.
- **Layout**: use the appropriate layout and conventions used in formal texts, especially in business letters.

Here is an example of a formal text (a business letter):

FIGURA 2.3. Business letter

	1 Southampto
	Hampshir
	2 15th November 200
Competitions D	epartment
Young News Ma	agazine 3
118 High Street	3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3
Leeds	
Dear Sir or Mad	am, 4
and I am writing Firstly, I would b	e competition for 'Young Journalist of the Year' on your website g to ask for some more information. se grateful if you could you tell me how long the article should it be acceptable for me to enter an article that has already been
published? Seco	ondly, could you let me know if I should send photographs with Ily, could you please confirm the closing date of the competition?
published? Seco the article? Fina	
published? Seco the article? Fina	lly, could you please confirm the closing date of the competition? o hearing from you. 6
published? Secc the article? Fina I look forward to	lly, could you please confirm the closing date of the competition? o hearing from you. 6

See Unit 1, section 1 'Communication' for the characteristics of the formal and the informal language.

The term *layout* (Cat. distribució, composició) refers to the position of the different elements in a text, normally in letters and emails.

See the annex 'Writing: emails and letters' for more information.

Notice the position and characteristics of the different elements:

- 1. The sender's address (without the name)
- 2. The date

- 3. The receiver's address
- 4. A standard formal opening phrase
- 5. The text of the letter: two paragraphs, formal style (*I would be grateful if..., could you...?*), use of connectors (*firstly, secondly, finally*)
- 6. A standard formal ending
- 7. A standard formal closing phrase
- 8. The sender's signature

2.2.3 Connectors and punctuation

Connectors and punctuation are very important elements because they contribute to the accuracy of the text. They bring clarity and coherence, so it is necessary to learn their use.

Connectors

Here is a list of some common English connectors. We include their translation into Catalan and examples of their use:

Expressing addition:

- and (Cat. i): I like reading *and* listening to music (Cat. M'agrada llegir *i* escoltar música).
- or (Cat ni) (in negative sentences): I don't like reading *or* listening to music (Cat. No m'agrada llegir *ni* escoltar música)
- also (Cat. també) (formal): I *also* like reading (Cat. A mi *també* m'agrada llegir).
- **too** (Cat. també) (informal): I like reading *too* (Cat. A mi *també* m'agrada llegir).

Expressing alternatives:

• or (Cat. o): You can go *or* wait a little longer (Cat. Pots marxar *o* esperar-te una estona més).

Expressing contrast:

- **but** (Cat. però): It's late, *but* I will wait a little longer (Cat. És tard, *però*, 'esperaré una estona més).
- however (Cat. malgrat tot): It's late. *However*, I will wait a little longer (Cat. És tard. *Malgrat tot*, m'esperaré una estona més).

- **although** (Cat. encara que, tot i que): *Although* it's late, I will wait a little longer (Cat. *Encara que* sigui tard, m'esperaré una estona més).
- on one hand...on the other hand (Cat. per una banda...per una altra banda): *On one hand* it is raining. *On the other hand*, it is very cold (Cat. *Per una banda*, està plovent. *Per una altra banda*, fa molt de fred).

Explaining ideas:

- **in other words** (Cat. amb altres paraules): It's crystal clear. *In other words*, it is very clear (Cat. Està clar com el cristall. *En altres paraules*, està molt clar).
- for example (Cat. per exemple). There are many things to do. *For example*, bring water and take out the chairs (Cat. Hi ha moltes coses per fer. *Per exemple*, portar aigua i treure les cadires).

Listing ideas:

- **firtsly,...;secondly...** (Cat. en primer lloc,...en segon lloc, ...): *Firstly*, bring water; *secondly*, take out the chairs (Cat. *En primer lloc*, porta aigua; *en segon lloc*, treu les cadires).
- **and then** (Cat. i aleshores): Bring water *and then* take out the chairs (Cat. Porta aigua *i aleshores*, treu les cadires).
- **next** (Cat. després): Bring water. *Next*, take out the chairs (Cat. Porta aigua. *Després*, treu les cadires).
- **finally** (Cat. finalment, per acabar): Bring water, take out the chairs and *finally* check the computer (Cat. Porta aigua, treu les cadires i *finalment* comprova l'ordinador).

Expressing purpose:

• to (Cat. per a, per tal de): Use a dictionary *to* look up the meaning of a word (Cat. Utilitza un diccionari *per a* consultar el significat d'una paraula).

Expressing the reason:

- **because** (Cat. perquè): I study English *because* it is very important (Cat. Estudio anglès *perquè* és molt important).
- **because of** (Cat. degut a, a causa de): I study English *because of* its great importance (Cat. Estudio anglès *degut a* la seva gran importància).

Expressing the result:

• **so** (Cat. així que, per tant): I need money *so* I work extra hours (Cat. Necessito diners *així que* faig hores extres).

Summarizing ideas:

- **in conclusion** (Cat. en conclusió): We have no money and we do not work. *In conclusion*, we cannot give you anything (Cat. No tenim diners i no treballem. *En conclusió*, que no et podem donar res).
- Summing up (Cat. resumint). We have no money and we do not work. *Summing up*, we cannot give you anything (Cat. No tenim diners i no treballem. *Resumint*, que no et podem donar res).

Now see the difference between a text with and without connectors:

Text without connectors:

The Internet has some advantages. It is useful to broaden your knowledge and meet new people. It has some disadvantages. Its free access to pages which show violence and crimes. There are people who think that the Internet should be a free space to express ideas. Some people consider that the Internet can be dangerous if it is not controlled. The Internet has both advantages and disadvantages. People must learn to use it for positive aims.

Text with connectors (in bold type):

The Internet has some advantages **because** it is useful to broaden your knowledge and meet new people, **but** it **also** has some disadvantages, **as for example**, its free access to pages which show violence and crimes. **On the one hand**, there are people who think that the Internet should be a free space to express ideas.**On the other hand**, some people consider that the Internet can be dangerous if it is not controlled. **In conclusion**, the Internet has both advantages and disadvantages, **but** people must learn to use it for positive aims.

Punctuation

In writing, it is very important to use the punctuation marks correctly because they contribute to give clarity to the text.

Here are the most important uses of the punctuation marks:

- Do not write a comma (,) between the subject and the verb.
- Write a full stop (.) at the end of a sentence.
- The adverbials and connectors are usually separated from the sentence by a comma. For example: *in the mornings*, *I usually check my mail*.
- Write a colon (:) to introduce a list of items or an explanation. For example: *the continents are: Europe, Asia, Africa, America and Oceania.*
- Write a comma to separate the elements in a list. For example: *I visit customers on Monday*, *Wednesday*, *Thursday and Friday*.
- Use a semi-colon (;) to separate the groups of items in a list. For example: *in computing, we must distinguish between hardware and software. Hardware refers to the material parts of a computer ; software refers to programming and includes operating systems, compilers, editors, etc.*
- Use brackets () to add extra information. For example: *in writing, we must use connectors (also called 'linking words')*.

- Write a capital letter at the beginning of a sentence or after a full stop.
- Write a question mark (?) at the end of a sentence. For example: *what's your name* **?**.
- Write an exclamation mark (!) at the end of a sentence with the imperative form. For example: *Come in !*.

Capitalization

Capitalization is the use of capital letters (Cat. lletres majúscules). In English, capitalization is sometimes different from Spanish or Catalan. We use capital letters:

- with the pronoun 'I'
- with adjectives derived from proper names: *English*, *Londoner*, etc.
- with days of the week and months of the year: *Monday*, *Tuesday*, *February*, *April* etc.
- with names of personal and job titles: *Mr.*, *Miss*, *Sales Manager*, *Director*, etc.
- at the beginning of a sentence.

3. Age associated diseases

There are some chronic diseases often associated with the elderly. For example: hypertension, diabetes melitus, arthritis, osteoporosis, Alzheimer, dementia, and others. In addition, the elder have a higher risk of a heart attack, or stroke, which can provoke death or permanent impairment or disability.

Hypertension: the blood pressure in the arteries is elevated to a value above 140/90 mmHg. If it is not treated it can lead to angina or heart attack. The symptoms of a heart attack can be chest discomfort or pain, upper body pain, shortness of breath, cold sweat, anxiety or nausea. In case of a heart attack it is very important to call the emergency services as fast as possible. Minutes matter, and a fast action can save someone's life.

Diabetes melitus or type 2 occurs when the pancreas does not make enough insulin, or the body cannot use the insulin well enough. When there is not enough insulin, glucose cannot get into the body cells and the level of glucose builds up in the blood. This can cause damages in different parts of the body, such as the nerves, kidneys and heart, and it can provoke the hardening of the arteries, which can cause heart attack or stroke. Other consequences could be dehydration or diabetic coma. Those that suffer from diabetes have to keep their blood sugar levels as stable as possible. They should keep a daily routine, check their sugar level, and balance food and regular exercise.

Arthritis is also a common disease. Symptoms of arthritis are joint pains, stiffness in the fingers, arms, legs and wrists. In order to reduce the pains, it is important to watch weight, do exercise, and take pain relievers.

Osteoporosis is the loss of bone mass. The best way to prevent it is to have an adequate intake of calcium, maintain an average body weight, and do regular exercise.

Alzheimer starts with a mild cognitive decline, forgetting familiar words or the location of familiar objects, and then it moves onto different stages that end up with a very severe cognitive decline, where the patients need help for their daily personal care, they do not respond to their environment, and eventually they are unable to control movement. It is a terrible burden for the family or the caregivers, so they should receive psychological support.

It is very important to be aware of these dangers and to try to prevent them by leading a healthy life. Especially the elder should undergo regular examination in order to avoid unwanted and irreversible consequences. They should avoid smoking, which can provoke lung cancer and is bad for the skin, and alcohol consumption, which accelerates the aging of their skin, liver, heart, brain, and pancreas. They should be careful, as they are more vulnerable to accidents and injuries. It they fall, they may have hip or other fractures, or suffer a head injury.

And finally nutrition is one of the key ingredients to make their body work. These are the secrets to living a long and happy life.

Language notes

Stroke: (Cat: embòlia/ICTUS) It occurs when the blood supply of your brain is interrupted, depriving brain tissue of oxygen and food. Some brain cells die.

Permanent impairment: (Cat. deficiència) An injury which impairs the physical or mental ability of a person to perform their normal activities during all their lifes.

Disability: (Cat. discapacitat) Lack of adequate power, strenght or physical or mental ability. Incapacity.

Blood pressure: (Cat. pressió arterial) Pressure of the blood within the arteries.

Chest discomfort: (Cat. malestar al pit) Pain in the chest.

Upper body pain: (Cat. dolor a la part superior del cos) Pain in the abdomen.

shortness of breath: (Cat. falta d'aire) Difficulty in breathing.

Cold sweat: (Cat. suor freda) A condition in which someone is sweating and feeling cold at the same time.

Body cells: (Cat. cèl·lules del cos) The basic structural and functional units of the body.

Builds up: (Cat. augmenta) Increases.

Kidneys: (Cat. ronyons) Organs in the back part of the abdomen that form and excrete urine.

Heart: (Cat. cor) Muscular organ that pumps blood received from the veins into the arteries.

Hardening: (Cat. enduriment) Process of becoming harder.

Blood sugar levels: (Cat. nivells de sucre a la sang) Amount of glucose in the blood.

Daily routine: (Cat. rutina diària) Habit, a regular way of doing things.

Joints: (Cat. articulacions) Physical point of connection between two bones.

Stiffness: (Cat. rigidesa) Difficult to bend or move.

Wrists: (Cat. canells) The joint between the hand and the forearm.

Watch weight: (Cat. controlar el pes) Taking measures such as dieting to control weight.

Pain relievers: (Cat. remei contra el dolor) An agent that relieves pain, such as lboprufen or aspirin.

Bone mass: (Cat. massa òssia) Bone density.

Intake: (Cat. ingesta) The amount of something (food or drink) that is taken into your body.

Cognitive decline: (Cat. pèrdua cognitiva) Deterioration in cognitive function.

To be aware: (Cat. ser conscient) Having the knowledge of something.

They should avoid: (Cat. ells haurien d'evitar) It is advisable not to do something.

Lung: (Cat. pulmó) Pair of breathing organs located in the chest which remove carbon dioxide from and bring oxygen to the blood.

Skin: (Cat. pell) The external covering of the body.

Liver: (Cat. fetge) A large reddish-brown organ of the body which is responsible for metabolism and syntesis and storage of various substances.

Storyline

When things start going wrong

Annie: "Mum, mum! Come! Grandpa is on the floor, I don't know what happened but he is sweating *a lot* and he's complaining of chest pains, he's *extremely* pale."

Linda ran downstairs with her phonendoscope and her blood pressure monitor.

Linda: "Annie! Fast! Call your dad."

Annie: "What's his phone number, granny?"

Belien: "I can't recall it, I used to remember all numbers *very* well. Let me look for it. Ok, it's 606 36 88 12."

Annie: "What's this again?"

Belien: "six-O-six, three-six, double eight, one-two.

John: "Can I have a little bit of water?"

Linda: "You shouldn't drink any water now."

Annie: "The ambulance is there!"

Linda: "They were *quite* fast. I hope we'll have *enough* time to save his life. Belien, pick *a few* things for him, his pyjamas and *some* clothes. There's *no* time to waste. Luckily, there won't be *much* traffic by this time, there aren't *many* cars on the road."

This poem, **"Warning"**, was written by Jenny Joseph. She dedicated it to old people:

"Warning", by Jenny Joseph

When I am an old woman I shall wear purple

With a red hat which doesn't go, and doesn't suit me.

And I shall spend my pension on brandy and summer gloves

And satin sandals, and say we've no money for butter.

I shall sit down on the pavement when I'm tired

And gobble up samples in shops and press alarm bells

And run my stick along the public railings

And make up for the sobriety of my youth.

I shall go out in my slippers in the rain

And pick flowers in other people's gardens

And learn to spit.

3.1 Grammar

Expressing possession, expressing quantity and asking questions are basic functions of the language. There are different ways of expressing possession. The English language sometimes expresses possession very differently from the way we do in our own language, so we should be careful to learn it accurately. We ask about possession with the interrogative pronoun *whose*? (Cat. De qui?).

On the other hand, expressing an indeterminate quantity requires the correct use of some small words called 'quantifiers' (Cat. quantificadors). Sometimes there is only a small difference between the meanings of different quantifiers, and we should also learn to distinguish between two types of nouns: 'countable nouns' (Cat. noms contables) and 'uncountable nouns' (Cat. noms no-contables). However, we can also speak of specific quantities and then we need to use the numeral adjectives. In this caseIn English, we ask about quantity with the interrogative pronouns *how much?* (Cat. Quant/a?) or *how many?* (Cat. Quants/-es?).

Finally, to ask questions in English correctly we need to know the correct grammatical structure, which sometimes is different from the structure of our own language. We also need to learn the interrogative pronouns, which are used to ask questions.

3.1.1 Expressing possession

We can express possession in different ways. We can use a special form of the noun called 'Saxon genitive' (Cat. Genitiu saxó), the preposition *of*, a possessive adjective or a possessive pronoun.

The Saxon genitive

The Saxon genitive is a special form of the noun. It is used to indicate possession when the possessor refers to a person or a group of persons. We form the Saxon genitive by adding 's to the possessor. Examples:

- Jane's brother (Cat. El germà de la Jane).
- The company's benefits (Cat. Els beneficis de l'empresa).
- The *people's* decision (Cat. La decisió *de la gent*).
- My colleague's desk (Cat. La taula del meu company).

When the possessor ends in -s, we only add the apostrophe ('), without an 's'. Examples:

In the Saxon genitive, we must place the possessor (with 's) before the noun: *Jane's brother*. In Catalan and Spanish, we place first the noun and then the possessor: *El germà de la Jane*.

- The companies' benefits (Cat. Els beneficis de les empreses).
- My colleagues' desks (Cat. Les taules dels meus companys).
- Mr Landis' attitude (Cat. L'actitud del Sr Landis).
- Charles' car (Cat. El cotxe d'en Charles).

Apart from the use of the Saxon genitive with people, we can also use this form with adverbials of time. For example:

- Tomorrow's work (Cat. La feina de demà).
- Last week's meeting (Cat. La reunió de la setmana passada).
- Next year's conference (Cat. El congrès de l'any que ve).

The preposition of

We use the preposition of (Cat. de) when the possessor is a thing. For example:

- The effects of the earthquake (Cat. Els efectes del terratrèmol).
- The siren of the ambulance (Cat. La sirena de l'ambulància).
- The minutes of the meetings (Cat. les actes de la reunions).
- The screen of the computer (Cat. La pantalla de l'ordinador).

In this case, the order of the words is the same as in Catalan and Spanish.

Possessive adjectives

We must place the possessive adjectives before a noun. The possessive adjectives tell us whose is the noun indicated. The following table shows the forms of the possessive adjectives:

TAULA 3.1. The possessive adjectives

Singular		Plural	
my	el meu	our	el nostre
your	el teu, el seu (de vostè)	your	el vostre el seu (de vostès)
his	el seu (d'ell)	their	el seu(d'ells/es)
her	el seu (d'ella)		
its	el seu (per a coses)		

Note

The third person pronouns *his*, *her* and *their* are often used instead of the Saxon genitive forms. For example: *Mary's* sister > *her* sister; *John's* sister > *his* sister; *Mary and John's* sister > *their* sister.

In English, the possessive adjectives agree (Cat. concorden) with the possessor and not with the noun, as in Catalan and Spanish. Notice that the possessive adjective remains invariable when the noun changes:

- My brother (Cat. El meu germà; Sp. mi hermano).
- My sister (Cat. La meva germana; Sp. mi hermana).
- My brothers (Cat. Els meus germans; Sp. mis hermanos).
- My sisters (Cat. Les meves germanes; Sp. mis hermanas).

Here are some examples of the use of the possessive adjectives:

- Here is my ID (Cat. Aquí té el meu DNI).
- What is your name? (Cat. Quin és el teu/el seu nom?).
- This is Mr Gordon and *his* secretary (Cat. Aquest és el Sr Gordon i *el seu* secretari).
- I met Elizabeth and *her* son (Cat. Em vaig trobar amb l'Elizabeth i *el seu* fill).
- I'll send you a copy of the email with *its* corresponding answer (Cat. Li enviaré una còpia del correu amb *la seva* corresponent resposta).
- We are lucky with *our* jobs (Cat. Tenim sort amb *les nostres* feines).
- Can you please give me *your* phone numbers? (Cat. Em podeu donar *els vostres* números de telèfon si us plau?)
- These are my two colleagues and *their* families (Cat. Aquests són els meus companys i *les seves* famílies).

Possessive pronouns

The use of the possessive pronouns is very similar to the use of the possessive adjectives, but the pronouns are not used before a noun. The table shows the forms of the possessive pronouns:

TAULA 3.2. The possessive pronouns

Singular		Plural	
mine	el meu	ours	el nostre
yours	el teu, el seu (de vostè)	yours	el vostre el seu (de vostès)
his	el seu (d'ell)	theirs	el seu(d'ells/es)
hers	el seu (d'ella)		
(its)	el seu (per a coses)		

Note:

- The third person pronoun *its* is very little used.
- As in the possessive adjectives, the pronouns agreee with the possessor.

Some examples of the use of the possessive pronouns:

- Is this John's coat? No, it's *mine* (Cat. És aquest l'abric del John? No, és *el meu*).
- Is this yours? (Cat. Això és teu/seu (de vostè)?).
- Is this John's coat? Yes, I think it's *his* (Cat. És aquest l'abric del John? Sí, crec que és *el seu*).
- Is this Mary's coat? Yes, I think it's *hers* (Cat. És aquest l'abric de la Mary? Sí, crec que és *el seu*).
- This project is quite good, but *ours* is still better (Cat. Aquest projecte està bastant bé, però *el nostre* encara està millor).
- Yes, I think *yours* is better (Cat. Sí, crec que *el vostre/el seu [de vostès]* és millor).
- Was this your idea? No, it was *theirs* (Cat. Això va ser idea teva? No, va ser *seva* [d'ells/es]).

Possessive adjectives and possessive pronouns

There is a close relationship between the possessive adjectives and the possessive pronouns. Compare their forms:

- Possessive adjectives: my, your, his, her, its, our, your, their
- Possessive pronouns: mine, yours, his, hers, (its), ours, yours, theirs

The meaning of the possessive adjectives and the possessive pronouns is the same, but the sentence structure is different. We can say:

- This is my uniform (Cat. Aquest és el meu uniforme).
- This uniform is *mine* (Cat. Aquest uniform és *meu*).

3.1.2 Expressing quantity

We can express a specific quantity os something by using numbers. For example:

- One year (Cat. Un any).
- Two years (Cat. Dos anys).

See Annex 'English pronouns' for a comparative table of the personal pronouns, the possessive pronouns and the possessive adjectives

- *Three* years (Cat. *Tres* anys).
- Four years (Cat. Quatre anys).
- etc.

Cardinal and ordinal numbers

The numbers that express quantity are called *cardinal numbers*. For example: *one, two, three, four, five...*

The numbers that express order are called *ordinal numbers*. For example: *first, second, third, fourth, fifth....*

To express an indeterminate quantity of something, we must use some little words called 'quantifiers' (Cat. quantificadors). The English quantifiers are the following:

- No
- A/an, some, any
- Little, few, a little, a few
- A lot of, many, much

The correct use of the English quantifiers depends on the sentence (affirmative, negative or interrogative) and on the type of noun (countable and uncountable).

Countable and uncountable nouns

- *Countable nouns* are nouns that refer to objects that can be separated into units. In other words, we can count them. For example: *day, book, job, car, house, man, company, office, river....*
- Uncountable nouns (also called: non-count nouns) are nouns that express concepts, substances, etc. that we cannot separate into units. For example: *friendship, emotion, music, news, food, water, bread, money, advice, luggage....*

Uncountable nouns have a singular reference: *This news is good* (Cat. Aquesta notícia és important), *The water is very clear* (Cat. L'aigua és molt clara). We cannot use numbers or the word *a/an* before an uncountable noun. It is wrong to say: **A water*, **three advices*, **one bread*, etc. We must say: *a litre/a bottle of water, three pieces of advice, a loaf (Cat. barra) of bread*.

The following table shows the use of the English quantifiers:

See Annex 'The English numbers' for a complete list of the cardinal and the ordinal numbers.

$T_{AULA}\ 3.3.$ The English quantifiers

	Affirmative	Negative	Interrogative
Countable nouns	no, a/an, some	any	any
	a lot of, many	many	many
	few, a few	few, a few	few, a few
Incountable nouns	no, some	any	any
	a lot of	much	much
	little, a little	little, a little	little, a little

Notes:

- The quantifier *no* means: zero quantity of something. It has a negative meaning, but the verb must be in the affirmative form: *I have got no friends* (Cat. No tinc amics). *No* is equivalent to the form *not...any*: *I have not got any friends* (Cat. No tinc amics).
- The quantifier *a* is the same word as the indeterminate article. We say *an* before a noun starting with a vowel sound: *an hour, an animal*, etc., but we say: *a unit, a university*, etc. because we pronounce *u* as a consonant (/junit/, /juniversiti/).
- The quantifiers *a lot of* and *many* express a great quantity of something. They have the same meaning, but we generally use *a lot of* in informal situations and *many* in formal situations.

Few, little, a few, a little

These four quantifiers express a small quantity of something, but there is a a difference between *few/little* and *a few/a little*:

- *Few* (with countable nouns) and *little* (with uncountable nouns) indicate that the quantity is too small to do something. For example: *we can't buy a coffee because we have little money* (Cat. No ens podem comprar un cafè perquè tenim **pocs** diners).
- *A few* (with countable nouns) and *a little* (with uncountable nouns) indicate that the quantity is small, but it is enough (Cat. suficient) to do something. For example: *we can buy a coffee because we have a little money* (Cat. Ens podem comprar un cafè perquè tenim **uns quants** diners).

Here are some examples of the use of quantifiers. The type of noun is indicated in brackets:

- I've got *a* very interesting offer (count.) (Cat. Tinc *una* oferta molt interessant).
- There are *some* people (count.) in the room (Cat. Hi ha *algunes* persones a la sala).

- Have you got *any* money (uncount.)? (Cat. Tens diners?).
- We found *no* books (count.) (Cat. No vam trobar *cap* llibre).
- We didn't find *any* books (count.) (Cat. No vam trobar *cap* llibre).
- There's *a lot of* information (uncount.) in the website (Cat. Hi ha *molta* informació a la web).
- Mr Larson controls *a lot of / many* companies (count.) (Cat. El Sr. Larson controla *moltes* empreses).
- We haven't got *much* time (uncount.) (Cat. No tenim *molt de* temps).
- Are there *many* people (count.) in the room? (Cat. Hi ha *molta* gent a la sala?).
- We have *few* computers (count.) for so many people (Cat. Tenim *pocs* ordinadors per a tanta gent).
- We have *a few* computers (count.), so we can work (Cat. Tenim *uns quants* ordinadors, així que podem treballar).
- There's *little* time (uncount.) to finish the work (Cat. Hi ha *poc* temps per a acabar la feina).
- We can finish because we have *a little* time (uncount.) (Cat. Podem acabar perquè tenim *una mica de* temps).
- There are *no* books on the shelves. Where are they? (Cat. No hi ha *cap* llibre a les prestatgeries. On són?).

3.1.3 Asking questions

The English questions have a different structure from the Catalan and the Spanish questions. For this reason, we must learn how to ask questions correctly. We can distinguish two types of questions:

- Yes/No questions: the answer to these questions is always 'yes' or 'no'.
- Wh-questions: these questions ask about specific information; they must have an interrogative pronoun.

Yes/No questions

To ask a yes/no question, the correct structures are the following:

1) With auxiliary and modal verbs: VERB + SUBJECT + ...? For example:

• Are you the new employee? (Cat. Ets [tu] el nou empleat?)

For the difference between auxiliary verbs and lexical verbs, see Unit 1, section 1 'Grammar' > 'Verb 'to be'; there is/there are'.

For modal verbs, see Unit 2, section 3 'Grammar'.

- Is there a fire? (Cat. Hi ha un incendi?)
- *Have you* been to England? (Cat. Has estat a Anglaterra?)
- Can you speak English? (Cat. Saps parlar anglès?)
- *Will you* come to work? (Cat. Vindràs [tu] a treballar?)

2) With lexical verbs: DO/DOES/DID + SUBJECT + VERB IN INFINITIVE FORM + ...? For example:

- Do you speak English? (Cat. Parles [tu] anglès?)
- *Does your brother live* with you? (Cat. Viu amb tu el teu germà?)
- *Did she go* out last night? (Cat. Va sortir [ella] ahir a la nit?)

In the answers to yes/no questions, we must use the corresponding subject pronoun and auxiliary or modal verb:

- Are you the new employee? Yes, I am.
- Is there a fire? No, *there isn't*.
- Have you been to England? Yes, *I have*.
- Can you speak English? Yes, I can.
- Does your brother live with you? No, he doesn't.
- Did she go out last night? Yes, she did.

Wh-questions

The correct structures of the wh-questions are the following:

1a) With auxiliary and modal verbs when the interrogative pronoun is the object:

-INTERROGATIVE PRONOUN + VERB + SUBJECT + ...?

Examples:

- What is your address? (Cat. Quina és la teva adreça?)
- Where are you going? (Cat. On vas [tu]?)
- What should I do? (Cat. Què hauria de fer [jo]?)

1b) With modal verbs when the interrogative pronoun is the subject:

-INTERROGATIVE PRONOUN + VERB + ...?

Examples:

Remember: DOES is used to express the present simple tense in the 3rd person singular; DO is used for all the other persons; DID is used to express the past simple tense (in all persons).

Aging

- *Who can* tell me? (Cat. Qui m'ho pot dir?)
- What must be done? (Cat. Què s'ha de fer?)

2a) With lexical verbs when the interrogative pronoun is the object:

-INTERROGATIVE PRONOUN + DO/DOES/DID + SUBJECT + VERB IN INFINITIVE + ...?

Examples:

- Where do you live? (Cat. On vius [tu]?)
- Why did he call you? (Cat. Per què et va trucar [ell]?)
- What does Jim do? (Cat. Què fa en Jim?)

2b) With lexical verbs when the interrogative pronoun is the subject:

-INTERROGATIVE PRONOUN + VERB IN THE APPROPRIATE TENSE + ...?

Examples:

- What happened? (Cat. Què va passar?)
- Who cleans the office? (Cat. Qui neteja l'oficina?)
- Who came yesterday? (Cat. Qui va venir ahir?)

Interrogative pronouns as subject and object

The interrogative pronouns *who*, *what* and *how much/many...?* can have the functions of object or subject. It is the subject when the information asks about the person or thing that does the action of the verb; it is the object in all the other cases. Compare these examples:

- SUBJECT: Who called last night? (Cat. Qui va trucar ahir a la nit?) *Peter* called last night (Peter=subject)
- OBJECT: Who did you call last night (Cat. A qui vas trucar [tu] ahir a la nit?) I called *Peter* last night (Peter=indirect object)

The following table shows the English interrogative pronouns:

TAULA 3.4. The interrogative pronouns

t

TAULA	3.4	(continuació)
-------	-----	---------------

English	Catalan	Observations
When?	Quan?	
Where?	On?	
Why?	Per què?	
How?	Com?	
How much?	Quant?	With uncountable nouns; it can be followed by a noun: <i>how much money</i> ?
How many?	Quants/es?	With countable nouns; it can be followed by a noun: <i>how many people?</i>
How old?	Quina edat?	
How far?	A quina distància?	
How big?	Quin tamany?	

3.2 Communication

Greeting and introducing people are two basic language functions which are very common in oral conversations in the working environment. In this type of conversations, the context is very important: we must use specific language and expressions depending on whether the situation is formal or informal.

In basic conversations, especially when we do not know the other person well or when we need to fill in a form, it is very common to ask and answer questions about personal aspects like name, address, telephone number, age, hobbies. etc.

3.2.1 Greetings and introductions

We greet people when we meet or when we leave a place. On the other hand, we introduce people when we say who they are to a third person so they can know each other. We can also introduce ourselves. Here are some expressions commonly used to greet people and make introductions in formal and informal situations. We also include some expressions that we can use to respond to greetings and introductions.

Meeting people

We can use these expressions when we meet someone (the Catalan translations are not literal; they only show an equivalent expression):

In formal situations:

- Good morning (Cat. Bon dia)
- Good afternoon (Cat. Bona tarda)

Remember that we are in a formal situation when we talk to unknown people or to a superior at work. We are in an informal situation when we talk to friends, colleagues and family members.

The treatment *Mr* is used for all adult males; *Mrs* is used for married women; *Miss* is used for unmarried women; *Ms* is used for all women irrespective of their marital status. We must place *Mr*, *Mrs*, *Miss* and *Ms* before a person's surname.

- Good evening (Cat. Bona nit)
- Hello, Mr/Mrs... How are you? (Cat. Hola, Sr/Sra... Com està [vostè]?)
- Good day, Sir/Madam (Cat. Bon dia, Sr/Sra)

In informal situations:

- Hi! (Cat. Hola)
- Hello! (Cat. Hola)
- How are you? (Cat. Què tal? / Com estàs [tu]?)
- What's up? (Cat. Què hi ha? / Què tal?)
- How are you doing? (Cat. Com va tot? / Com estàs [tu]?)

When we leave a place or a person after talking for some time, we can use the following expressions:

In formal situations:

- Good morning (Cat. Bon dia)
- Good afternoon (Cat. Bona tarda)
- Good evening (Cat. Bona nit)
- Good night (when going to slepp) (Cat. Bona nit)
- Goodbye (Cat. Adéu)
- It was a pleasure meeting you (Cat. Ha estat un plaer coneixer-lo/la [a vostè])
- It was a pleasure seeing you (Cat. Ha estat un plaer veure'l/-la [a vostè])
- It was a pleasure talking to you (Cat. ha estat un plaer parlar amb vostè)

In informal situations:

- Bye (Cat. Adéu)
- See you (Cat. Fins una altra)
- See you later (Cat. Fins després)
- See you tomorrow (Cat. Fins demà)
- See you on Monday (Cat. Fins dilluns)
- Take care (Cat. Cuida't)

Introducing people

To introduce ourselves, we can say:

In formal situations:

• Good morning. My name's [Josep Fernandez] (Cat. Bon dia. Em dic [Josep Fernandrez])

In informal situations:

- Hi, My name's [Josep] (Cat. Hola. Em dic [Josep])
- Hi, I'm [Josep] (Cat. Hola, sóc [Josep])

To introduce other people, we can use the following expressions:

In formal situations:

- May I introduce you to [Mr Josep Fernandez]? (Cat. Permeti'm que li presenti [el Sr Josep Fernandez])
- Let me introduce you to [Mr Josep Fernandez] (Cat. Permeti'm que li presenti [el Sr Josep Fernandez])

In informal situations:

• This is [Josep Fernandez] (Cat. Aquest és [Josep Fernandez])

Responding to greetings and introductions

In all situations, we can respond to *good morning*, *hello*, *goodbye* and similar expressions by using the same words. For example:

- A: Good morning
- B: Good morning
- A: Hello, Josep
- **B**: *Hi*
- A: Goodbye!
- B: Goodbye

We can respond to the expressions: *How are you?*, *What's up*, *How are you doing?* in different ways. For example:

A: How are you?

B: I'm fine, thank you. And you? (formal)

A: What's up?

B: Fine, thanks (informal)

A: How are you doing?

B: *Great, thanks. And you?*

Here are other examples of responses:

A: It was a pleasure meeting you

B: A pleasure for me too

A: See you later

B: See you

A: Take care

B: You too

In introductions, there are different expressions to respond in formal and informal situations. Here are some examples:

A: Let me introduce to Josep Fernandez

Josep: How do you do?

A: How do you do

A: Josep, this is Mary

Josep: Hi, Mary. Nice to meet you

Mary: Nice to meet you too

Social etiquette

When we are introduced to another person, the social etiquette demands to ask one or two questions to start a short conversation. We can ask, for example:

- Have you and [Josep] known each other for long? (Cat. Fa molt de temps que us coneixeu, [el Josep] i tu?)
- Is it your first time here? (Cat. És la primera vegada que vens per aquí?)
- Do you like [Barcelona]? (Cat. T'agrada [Barcelona]?)

In a first meeting, avoid such topics as religion or politics, and do not ask personal questions (marital status, age, etc.).

When you are introduced to a woman for the first time, do not kiss her on the cheeks, but shake hands instead. Although this is common in our country, in Anglo-Saxon countries kissing a woman on the first meeting is not considered proper.

3.2.2 Personal information

In formal situations, it is not common to ask and answer personal questions during a conversation because this is considered too rude, but we may need to do so during a job interview or when we need to fill in a form. In informal situations, however, it is very common to talk about personal things. Here are some common questions and answers which may be useful when asking for and giving personal information:

Wh-questions:

- What's your name? My name's (Maria) (formal) / I'm (Maria) (informal).
- Where are you from? I'm (Spanish) / I'm from (Spain) / I'm from (Barcelona).
- Where do you come from? I'm (Spanish) / I'm from (Spain) / I'm from (Barcelona).
- Where do you live? I live in (Barcelona) / I live in (Spain).
- What's your phone number? It's (605 33 33 33).
- What's your address? It's (Paral·lel 71, in Barcelona).
- What's your job? / What do you do? I'm (a doctor) / I work as (a doctor).
- Where do you work? I work (in a hospital) / I work (at Sant Pau Hospital).
- How old are you? I'm (32 years old) / I'm (32).
- What are your hobbies? I like (swimming) / My hobby is (swimming).
- What do you like doing? I like (swimming).

Yes/no questions:

- Are you (Maria)? Yes, I am / Yes, that's right / No, I'm not (my name's Paula).
- Are you (Spanish)? Yes, I am / No, I'm not (I'm Italian).
- Have you got any brothers or sisters? Yes, (I've got one brother and two sisters) / No, I haven't.

- Do you work? Yes, I do (I'm a doctor in a hospital) / No, I don't (I'm unemployed).
- Can you spell (the name of the street)? Yes, it's (p-a-r-a-l-l-e-l)
- Do you speak (English)? Yes, I do (a little) / No, I'm afraid I don't
- Do you like (sports)? Yes, (I like them very much) / No, I don't, (I prefer watching television).

Notes:

1) In telephone numbers, we must say each number individually. When two consecutive numbers are the same, we use the term *double* (55, for example, is *double five*). Number '0' is *zero*.

2) The question *what do you do?* is equivalent to *what's your job?*. Do not confuse with: *what are you doing?* (Cat. Què fas? / Què estàs fent?).

3) Notice the answer to the question *how old are you?*. We must say: *I'm* (30) *years old*). It is wrong to say: *I have (30) years.

4) Remember that in short answers, we must include the correponding auxiliary or modal verb of the question.

Disabilities and mental disorders

Carles Mora i Núria Terradellas

Índex

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Introduction

The second unit is called "Disabilities and mental disorders" because we focus our attention on people who suffer a kind of physical or mental impairment, and who require professional health assistance.

In the first section of the unit there is a text called 'Mental disorders', which describes different mental diseases and how to deal with them from a professional point of view. In the second text you will find a classification of physical and psychological disabilities, and the process of adjusting to the situation. In the last text, called 'Accidents', you will meet a person who suffers from Alzheimer's disease and how this can cause accidents at home. You will also find a form to fill in with information about an accident.

The grammar sections introduce three other basic aspects. In section one, you will learn about the different present and past tenses, which are obviously used to speak about the present and the past, respectively. You will see the forms of the verbs and the difference in use between the present simple and continuous, and between the past simple, the past continuous and the present perfect. There is also a reference to the adverbials of time which are normally associated to the present and past tenses. The second section is devoted to explain the adjectives, which are the words used to describe the material world around us and our emotions. There is a special section to introduce the comparative adjectives and adverbs. We use these forms to make comparisons. The third section introduces the prepositions of place and time, which tell us where and when something happens. We'll learn to destinguish their uses, with specific sections devoted to explain the date formats in English and the way of asking and saying the time. Before this grammar section, you will see the storyline, where you can see some examples of the grammar points in context.

The everyday language sections introduce other examples of this type of language. In the first part of the unit, you will learn the different questions and answers to ask for and give basic personal information, like your name, your age, your address, etc. This type of information is normally included in a friendly conversation with a colleague, or in a more formal situation, it may be part of a job interview. Next, you will see some words and expressions frequently used in telephone conversations. Telephone conversations are very common situations in our daily and working lives, and they require the use of the oral skills and some very specific language. Finally, you will also learn about the ways of giving advice. You give advice when you recommend an action to other people, and for this there are different ways which you can use in different contexts. The emphasis is on the grammatical structures used with each word and expression.

Learning objectives

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

1. Understand oral messages in standard language related to the education, the health, and the working and social environments of people working in the field of support to people with special needs and to analize the general meaning of a message relating it to the corresponding language resources.

- Identify the context of the message.
- Identify the main idea of the mesage.
- Identify the purpose of a face-to-face or telephone message or any other oral message received through any means of communication.
- Get specific information from oral messages common in the professional and daily lives in the field of support to people with special needs.
- Organize the elements of a message.
- Identify the main ideas in a speech about the professional field transmitted through the mass media in standard language.
- Recognize oral instructions and follow instructions.
- Be aware of the importance of understanding the general meaning of a message even if you don't understand everything.

2. Understand and make a comprehensive analysis of simple written texts related to the education, the health, and the working and social environments of people working in the field of support to people with special needs.

- Read and understand written texts in standard language about the professional field of support to people with special needs.
- Interpret the global meaning of a written message.
- Relate a written text to the professional field of support to people with special needs.
- Identify the specific information used in the professional field of support to people with special needs.
- Interpret the most common documents used in the professional field of support to people with special needs.
- Translate textsfrom the professional field of support to people with special needs by using the necessary reference material.

- Understand a written text received through different means: post, fax, and e-mail, among others.
- Choose the appropriate reference material such as technical dictionaries and automatic translators.

3. Produce clear, well-organized oral messages and take an active part in conversations frequently used in companies in the fields of the education, the health, and the working and social environments of people working in the field of support to people with special needs.

- Identify and apply the correct style, formal or informal, in oral speech.
- Express an oral message by using a variety of communicative resources.
- Use the appropriate conventions in the production or oral messages in the professional field of support to people with special needs.
- Describe the events that normally occur in the professional field of support to people with special needs.
- Use the appropriate terminology as commonly used in the professional field of support to people with special needs.
- Express feelings, ideas or opinions.
- Express the basic activities in the professional field, such as giving support to people, meeting professionals of related fields and describing common documents.
- Describe the job of a professional in the field of support to people with special needs.
- Accept or reject other people's proposals.
- Justify a decision taken.
- Ask other people to repeat or explain an oral message to make it more clear.
- Apply the appropriate conventions in oral communication within the professional field of support to people with special needs.

4. Fill in basic documents in the field of support to people with special needs and/or write simple texts in standard language related to the education, the health, and the working and social environments of workers in that field.

- Write short texts about the professional and daily lives in the field of support to people with special needs.
- Organize a text in a coherent way.
- Summarize texts in the professional field of support to people with special needs.

- Fill in documents related to the professional field of support to people with special needs.
- Apply the appropriate conventions and vocabulary in documents related to the professional field of support to people with special needs.
- Summarize the main ideas in written texts by using your own words.
- Use the appropriate protocol in documents.

5. Show the appropriate attitude and behaviour in communicative situations as established by international conventions.

- Define the most distinctive aspects of the customs of English-speaking communities in the professional field of support to people with special needs.
- Describe the social conventions of your country.
- Identify the values and beliefs which are characteristic of English-speaking communities.
- Identify the social and professional aspects of the professional field of support to people with special needs in all types of oral and written messages.
- Apply the social conventions in English-speaking communities.

"My brother and me were always fighting, but when I started listening to him we became best friends, and then I understood schizophrenia."

One of the main obstacles for mental diseases is the social environment and the prejudices attached to them. These diseases usually involve personality or *behavioural disorders*, which affect the social interaction with the rest. Ignorance, and the *lack of information* are the worst enemies for those that suffer from this type of illness.

Some mental diseases are schizophrenia, depression, bipolar disorders, autism, anxiety or Alzheimer. They can be caused by internal of external factors, and they can appear at *any stage in life*. Some diseases can be treated pharmacologically, but they need psychological support as well. A task of the social workers and therapists is to work on the autonomy of the patients, to make them participate in *social events*, and if possible to insert them into the laboral market. They should have a normal life as much as possible. *That is why* there are a lot of initiatives and some governments and organizations are *making efforts* to offer opportunities to people with mental disorders. A good example is "La Fageda", a company based in La Garrotxa that produces *dairy products* and employs people with mental problems. This business *has turned to be very successful*, and it is a model that others are trying to implement too.

There are different social health resources to help people with mental disorders, depending on the mental health of the individuals. Some live in hospitals, since in some cases this is the only possibility to assist them properly. Then, there are the *day-care centers*, where they receive treatment during part of the day, and also *supervised apartments* for chronically mentally disabled people. Finally, the housing social providers account for home help and nursing care.

All in all, most mental illnesses are still being studied and there is no treatment to cure them, just to help them to lead a better life. There is a lot to do, and by now, the family support and social awareness are necessary elements to accompany people with mental disorders.

Language notes

Mental disorder: (Cat. transtorn mental) Condition marked by sufficient disorganization of personality, mind, and emotions to impair the normal functioning of the individual.

Behavioural disorders: (Cat. transtorns de comportament) Inappropriate types of behaviour.

Lack of information: (Cat. falta d'informació) You do not have all the information.

Illness, disease: (Cat. malaltia) Poor health, sickness.

Any stage in life: (Cat. en qualsevol moment de la vida) Any time during your life.

Social events: (Cat. esdeveniments socials) A planned occasion or activity, such as a social gathering.

That is why: (Cat. aquesta és la raó per la qual) This is the reason why.

Making efforts: (Cat. fer esforços) The use of physical or mental energy to do something.

Dairy products: (Cat. làctics) Products made of milk.

Has turned to be very successful: (Cat. ha tingut molt exit) Has had a big success.

Day-care centers: (centres de dia) Daytime care for people who cannot be fully independent, such as children or elderly people.

Supervised apartments: (pisos tutelats) Apartments where individuals can live semiindependently in their own apartment. They are controlled and assisted by specialized staff.

Storyline

Suzie's visit

Linda: "Annie, your friend Suzie has called. She said she's coming to play with you."

Annie: "Oh, I'm so happy! Granny, Suzie is coming today!"

Belien: "Suzie? Who is it?"

Annie: "Suzie, my friend. She *came* yesterday too. And she *often comes* in the afternoon. *Do* you *remember* her?"

Belien: "I have never seen her."

Annie: "Mum! Why does granny forget so many things?"

Linda: "Don't worry, Annie. Your grandmother is a bit tired. Open the door, Suzie and her mother *have arrived*."

Annie: "Hi, Suzie!"

Suzie: "Annie, I'm very angry. *Two days ago* Gus *told* me that you *were playing* with my toys. They are mine!

Annie: "But Suzie, Gus cannot speak, it's a turtle. And I didn't play with your toys.

Suzie: (yelling) YOU ARE A LIAR! Gus told me everything."

Suzie's mum : "Suzie *is behaving* very strange lately. I *don't know* what is wrong with her. She *says* that she *hears* voices, and that Annie's turtle *tells* her all the secrets in the neighbourhood.

Linda: OMG! Take her to the doctor!

1.1 Grammar

To express the past, there are several verb tenses in English. Two of these tenses are the *past simple* and the *past continuous*. The basic difference between these two tenses is that the past simple is used to express finished actions whereas the past continuous is used to express actions that were taking place at a specific moment in the past.

On the other hand, the prepositions of time are those that introduce a prepositional phrase of time. In other words, the prepositions of time tell us when an action happens.

1.1.1 The past simple and the past continuous

Here are the forms and uses of the past simple and the past continuous tenses.

The past simple

When we need to use the past simple form of a verb, we must know whether the verb is *regular* or *irregular*.

- In *regular verbs*, the affirmative form of the past simple adds the ending *-ed* to the infinitive (*work > worked*).
- In *irregular verbs*, the affirmative form of the past simple is a different word from the infinitive (*go* > *went*).

There are no rules to know which verbs are regular and which are irregular. We must know the most common irregular verbs.

These are the forms of the past simple of a regular verb (*work*):

 $T_{AULA\ 1.1.}$ Conjugation of the past simple (regular verb: //work//)

	Affirmative	Negative Long form	Negative Short form	Interrogative
I	worked	did not work	didn't work	Did I work?
You	worked	did not work	didn't work	Did you work?
He/She/It	worked	did not work	didn't work	Did he work?
We	worked	did not work	didn't work	Did we work?
You	worked	did not work	didn't work	Did you work?
They	worked	did not work	didn't work	Did they work?

Here are the forms of an irregular verb (go):

See annex 'List of irregular verbs' to see the most common irregular verbs in English.

TAULA 1.2.	Conjugation of the	past simple	(irregular verb:	//qo//)

	Affirmative	Negative Long form	Negative Short form	Interrogative
1	went	did not go	didn't go	Did I go?
You	went	did not go	didn't go	Did you go?
He/She/It	went	did not go	didn't go	Did he go?
We	went	did not go	didn't go	Did we go?
You	went	did not go	didn't go	Did you go?
They	went	did not go	didn't go	Did they go?

The past simple is used:

1) To express finished actions or states in the past:

- I *worked* in a factory 20 years ago (Cat. Fa 20 anys *vaig treballar* a una fàbrica).
- *Did you watch* the film on TV last night? (Cat. *Vas veure* la pel·lícula de la tele ahir a la nit?).
- Mr Green *didn't come* in his office yesterday. (Cat. Ahir Mr Green *no va venir* al seu despatx).
- Marcia *met* her husband at a party when they were both 15 (Cat. La Marcia *va conèixer* el seu marit a una festa quan tots dos tenien 15 anys).
- It *was* very hot last summer, do you remember? (L'estiu passat *va fer* molta calor, te'n recordes?).
- We felt happy when he left (Cat. Ens vam alegrar quan ell va marxar).

The past continuous

Here are the forms of the past continuous:

TAULA 1.3. Conjugation of the past continuous (//work//)

	Affirmative	Negative Long form	Negative Short form	Interrogative
I	was working	was not working	wasn't working	was I working?
you	were working	were not working	weren't working	were you working?
he/she/it	was working	was not working	wasn't working	was he working?
we	were working	were not working	weren't working	were we working?
you	were working	were not working	weren't working	were you working?
they	were working	were not working	weren't working	were they working?

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- As in the present continuous, the past continuous is composed of two elements: the auxiliary verb *be* (conjugated in the past) + the gerund.
- In the past continuous, we only conjugate the verb *be*. For this reason, there is no difference between regular and irregular verbs (for example: *I was working*, *I was going*).
- The verb *be* is an irregular verb (*be* > *was/were*).

We use the past continuous:

1) To express actions that were taking place at a specific moment in the past. At that moment, the action was not fisnished yet.

- I *was sleeping* at eleven last night. (Cat. Ahir a les onze de la nit jo *dormia/estava dormint*).
- What *were you doing* at this time yesterday? (Cat. Què *feies/estaves fent* ahir a aquesta hora?).
- I wasn't doing anything (Cat. No feia/estava fent res).

2) To express simultaneous actions in the past (with the connector *while* [Cat. mentre]).

- While I *was doing* all the work, he *was talking* on the phone with his friend (Cat. Mentre jo *estava fent* tota la feina, ell *estava parlant* per telèfon amb el seu amic).
- They were flying to Paris while I was waiting for them in the office (Cat. Ells *estaven volant* a París mentre jo els *estava esperant* a l'oficina).

We very often use the past continuous in combination with the past simple to express an action that was taking place in the past (in past continuous) when another action took place in that moment (in the past simple). For example:

- I *met* Mr White when I *was going out* of the building (Cat. *Em vaig trobar* el Sr White quan jo *sortia* de l'edifici).
- We were walking down the street when the tree *fell down* (Cat. *Estàvem caminant* pel carrer quan l'arbre *va caure*).

We can translate the *past continuous* into Catalan and Spanish in two ways: *I was working* (Cat. *estava treballant/treballava*; Sp. *estaba trabajando/trabajaba*).

See Unit 1 section 2 Grammar: The present simple and the present continuous for a list of verbs that do not take the continuous forms. Adverbs and adverbials of time generally associated to the past tenses Some of the adverbs and time expressions that we can use with the past tenses are:

- Yesterday (Cat. ahir)
- The day before yesterday (Cat. abans d'ahir)
- Last week/month/year, etc. (Cat. la setmana passada, el mes passat, l'any passat, etc.)
- In the past (Cat. en el passat)
- Before (Cat. abans)
- In the old times (Cat. en els vells temps)
- When I was younger (Cat. quan jo era més jove)
- In that moment (Cat. En aquell moment)
- (One year) ago (Cat. Fa [un any])
- Then (Cat. aleshores, en aquell moment)

We generally say these adverbs and adverbials at the end of the sentence, but we can also place them at the beginning to emphasize the idea. For example:

- We met him at the airport *yesterday*.
- *Yesterday* we met him at the airport.

1.1.2 Prepositions of time (I)

The three basic prepositions of time are: *in*, *on* and *at*. As you can see, they have the same form as the prepositions of place. The prepositions of time indicate when something happens. They are equivalent to the Catalan 'a'/'en' or the Spanish 'en', but in English they are used in different contexts. To use the prepositions of time correctly, we must learn the prepositional phrase (that is, the preposition + the noun).

Here are the basic uses of the prepositions of time:

In

1) With years, centuries and historical periods:

- In 2010
- In the 19th century
- In the Middle Ages

- In modern times
- In the present
- In the past
- In the future
- 2) With the names of the months and seasons of the year:
 - In April
 - In September
 - In Winter
 - In Summer

3) With the parts of the day:

- *In the morning*
- In the afternoon
- In the evening
- In the night

4) With a period of time, to indicate when something will happen in the future:

- In a moment
- In five minutes
- In one week
- In three years

On

1) With the days of the week:

- On Monday
- On Tuesday
- On Sunday
- On Fridays
- On weekdays

2) With dates and nouns denoting specific dates:

- On 16th June
- On 4th November, 2005
- On the 23rd
- On Christmas Day
- On New Year's Eve

At

1) With clock times and nouns denoting clock times:

- At 6 o'clock
- At a quarter past eight
- At 2 pm
- At midnight
- At midday
- At sunset
- At dawn
- At night

2) With names of holidays and with the noun 'weekend':

- At Christmas
- At Easter
- At the New Year
- At the weekend

Some differences between the prepositions of time At/On

1) At is used to speak about holidays and weekends in general:

- *We usually stay at home at Christmas* (Cat. Normalment ens quedem a casa per Nadal)
- 2) **On** is used to speak about a special day or weekend:
 - *We usually stay at home on Christmas Day* (Cat. Normalment ens quedem a casa el dia de Nadal)
 - *The meeting took place on the last weekend of June* (Cat. La reunió va tenir lloc el darrer cap de setmana de juny)

In/On

1) In is used to speak about parts of the day:

• I work in the morning (Cat. Treballo pel matí)

2) On is used to speak about a part of the day in particular:

- I arrived on the morning of the ninth of November (Cat. Vaig arribar el matí del nou de novembre)
- It happened on a cold winter morning (Cat. Va passar un fred matí d'hivern)

At/In

1) At is used to speak about any night in general:

• I don't like working at night (Cat. No m'agrada treballar de nit)

2) In is used to speak about one particular night:

- *I met him in the night of the tenth* (Cat. El vaig conèixer la nit del dia 10)
- *I couldn't sleep in the night because I was very nervous* (Cat. No vaig poder dormir per la nit perquè estava molt nerviosa)

1.2 Communication

Speaking on the phone is a very common activity, both in a working environment and in our daily life. We may do so with customers, colleagues or friends, but in all the cases speaking on the phone requires the use of specific words and expressions. A clear pronunciation is very important when speaking on the phone, so it is a good idea to practise the expressions carefully before attempting to make a call or answering the phone. It is also necessary to have good listening skills because in a telephone conversation you cannot see the other person and therefore you will not have the help of the body language. It is also very common to speak about dates and clock times. We may need to write dates in formal business letters or we may need to say dates and clock times in our daily conversations. In the particular case of the dates, there is a great difference between the written and the spoken forms. Clock times are mostly used in speech.

1.2.1 Speaking on the phone

Here are some common expressions used in telephone conversations. They are divided in categories according to their purpose and they all include an equivalent expression in Catalan.

Answering the telephone

- Hello? (Cat. Digui?)
- Commercial Department, hello? (Cat. Departament comercial, digui?)
- Joan Alsina speaking (Cat. Joan Alsina, diguim?)
- *Customer service, can I help you?* (Cat. Servei al client, en què el puc ajudar?)

Asking for the other person's identification

- *Who's calling?* (Cat. Qui és?, de part de qui?, qui el truca?)
- Where are you calling from? (Cat. D'on truca?)
- *May I have your name please* (formal) (Cat. Em pot dir el seu nom si us plau?)
- Is that Mr Peter Bramwell? (Cat. Parlo amb el Sr. Peter Bramwell?)
- *Is that the Commercial Department?* (Cat. És el departament comercial?)

Identifying yourself

- This is Joan Alsina (Cat. Sóc Joan Alsina)
- My name's Joan Alsina (Cat. Em dic Joan Alsina)
- *I'm calling from Zara* (Cat. Truco de Zara)

Asking to speak to someone

• *Can I speak to Mr Peter Bramwell please?* (Cat. Puc parlar amb el Sr. Peter Bramwell si us plau?)

- *May I speak to Mr Peter Bramwell please?* (formal) (Cat. Podria parlar amb el Sr. Peter Bramwell si us plau?)
- Is Mr Peter Bramwell there? (Cat. Està el Sr. Peter Bramwell?)
- *I'd like to speak to Mr Peter Bramwell* (Cat. Voldria parlar amb el Sr. Peter Bramwell)
- *Could you put me through to Mr Peter Bramwell?* (Cat. Em podria passar amb el Sr. Peter Bramwell?)

If Mr Peter Bramwell answers the phone himself, the answer could be:

• Speaking! (Cat. El mateix, sóc jo mateix)

If someone else answers the phone, see below:

Asking the other person to wait

- One moment please (Cat. Un moment si us plau)
- Hold on please (Cat. No pengi si us plau)
- Just a minute (Cat. Un minut)

Connecting with other people

- *I'll put you through* (Cat. Li passo)
- I'l put you through to Mr Bramwell (Cat. Li passo al Sr. Bramwell)
- *I'll put you through to his office* (Cat. Li passo al seu despatx)

Explaining that the other person is not available

- *I'm afrain Mr Bramwell is not in his office right now* (Cat. Em temo que el Sr. Bramwell no és al seu despatx en aquest moment)
- *Mr Bramwell is in a meeting at the moment* (Cat. El Sr. Bramwell és a una reunió en aquest moment)
- I'm afraid the line's busy at the moment (Cat. Està comunicant)

Asking about the reason of the call

- What does it concern? (formal) (Cat. De què es tracta)
- What's it about? (Cat. Sobre què és?)

Offering solutions

- Can you call back later? (Cat. Pots trucar més tard?)
- Could you call back later? (formal) (Cat. Pot trucar més tard?)
- Could I take a message? (Cat. Vol que li doni algun missatge?)
- Would you like to leave a message? (Cat. Vold deixar-li algun missatge?)
- Can I help you in anything? (Cat. El puc ajudar en alguna cosa?)
- Ok, I'l call back later, thanks (Cat. D'acord, trucaré més tard)
- I'll try again, thanks (Cat. Ho tornaré a intentar, gràcies)

Leaving a message

- Could I leave a message please? (Cat. Puc deixar un missatge si us plau?)
- *I'd like to leave a message for Mr Bramwell* (Cat. Voldria deixar un missatge pel Sr. Bramwell)
- *Could you please tell Mr Bramwell that Joan Alsina called?* (Cat. Li pot dir al Sr. Bramwell que l'ha trucat Joan Alsina si us plau?)
- Please tell Mr Bramwell that... (Cat. Si us plau, digui al Sr Bramwell que...)

Explaining the reason of the call

- *I'm calling on behalf of Inés Fernández* (Cat. Truco de part de la Inés Fernández)
- I'm calling about... (Cat. Truco en relació a...)
- *I'm calling to...* (Cat. Truco per a...)

Saying goodbye

- Well, thanks for your help (Cat. Bé, gràcies per la teva ajuda)
- I'll call you back in a few days (Cat. Et truco d'aquí uns dies)
- Goodbye (Cat. Adéu)
- Bye (Cat. Adéu)

Leaving recorded messages

Sometimes we may need to leave a recorded message in an answering machine (Cat. contestador automàtic) or in a voicemail (Cat. bústia de veu). These messages must be as short as possible and they should include at least the following information:

- 1. The person to whom we address the message.
- 2. Our name.
- 3. The message.
- 4. Closing expressions.

Here are two examples ofrecorded messages:

- Hello. This is a message for Mr Peter Bramwell. This is Joan Alsina from Zara. I'm calling about an order for 30 male shirts we made two weeks ago. We are still expecting the shirts. Could you please call me back and tell me if there's any problem with the order? Thank you. Bye!
- Hi. This message is for Eric Smith. I'm calling from a hospital in Barcelona. I'm sorry to inform you that your mother had an accident the other day. It's not serious, but you should come as soon as possible. Could you please call me back at this number? Thanks, bye!

1.2.2 Expressing dates and clock times

There is a great difference in the way we write and say dates and clock times. In addition there is also a difference between British English and American English.

Dates

The table shows different ways of writing a date in British English and American English:

TAULA 1.4. Writing dates in British and American English	British English	American English
C C	9th June, 2007	June 9th, 2007
	9 June 2007	June 9, 2007
	9/6/2007	6/9/2007
	9/6/07	6/9/07
	09/06/07	06/09/07

When writing or interpreting a written date, we must be aware of the variety of English. Notice the following:

• For a British person, 9/6/2007 is 9th June 2007; for an American person, it is: 6th September 2007.

See unit 1, section 3 for detailed information about the expression of numbers in English.

Independtly of the format, we must say the dates like this:

- British English: the ninth if June two thousand and seven
- American English: June (the) ninth two thousand and seven

When we say a date, we must use the ordinal numbers (1st, 2nd, 3rd, 4th, etc.). In American English, we can eliminite the article *the*.

Saying the years in English

Both in British and American English, we can say the years like this:

- 1800: eighteen hundred
- 1906: nineteen hundred and six / nineteen oh six
- 1998: nineteen ninety eight
- 2000: two thousand / twenty hundred
- 2007: two thousand and seven / twenty oh seven
- 2018: two thousand and eighteen / twenty eighteen

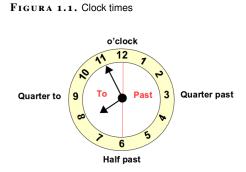
Here are some time expressions with dates:

- When did you arrive? (Cat. quan vas arribar?)
- I arrived in June (Cat. Vaig arribar el mes de juny)
- I arrived in 2007 (Cat. Vaig arribar l'any 2007)
- *I arrived on 9th June 2007* (Cat. Vaig arribar el 9 de juny de 2007)
- *I arrived on the 9th* (Cat. Vaig arribar el dia 9)
- What's the date today? (Cat. A quina data estem avui?)
- It's 9th June (Cat. És el 9 de juny)

Notice that we use the preposition *in* with months and years and the preposition *on* with complete dates or expressions denoting dates.

Clock times

The figure shows the basic words that we need to tell the time:



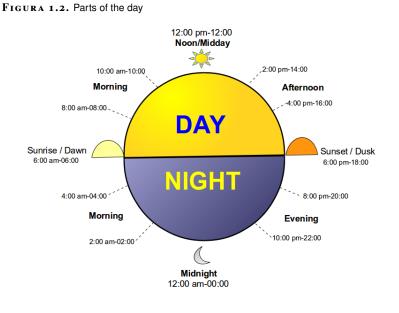
Here are some examples of clock times in English:

TAULA 1.5. The clock times in English	Time	In timetables	Normal use
<u> </u>	3:00	three (o'clock)	
	3:05	three oh five	five past three
	3:12	three twelve	twelve minutes past three
	3:15	three fifteen	a quarter past three
	3:30	three thirty	half past three
	3:40	three forty	twenty to four
	3:45	three forty-five	a quarter to four
	3:56	three fifty-six	four minutes to four
	4:00	four (o'clock)	

Note the following:

- We use the word o'clock (Cat. en punt) only on the hour: three o'clock.
- For all the times between the hour and the half hour, we use the adverb *past*; for all the times between the half hour and the next hour, we use the adverb *to*.
- We must always use the word *quarter (quarter past* or *quarter to)*. It is wrong to say: *fifteen past* or *fifteen to*.
- The half hour is expressed with *half past* and the previous hour.
- With the multiples of five, we say: *ten past three*. With all the others, we must say the word *minutes*: *twelve minutes past three*

The figure shows the parts of the day and the times included in each one.



Here are some expressions related to clock times. They are placed in a sentence:

- What time is it?, what's the time (Cat. Quina hora és?)
- It's a quarter past four (Cat. És un quart de cinc/Són les quatre i quart)
- It's half past seven (Cat. Són dos quarts de set/Són les sis i mitja)
- What time will you come? (Cat. A quina hora vindràs?)
- *I'll come at ten* (Cat. Vindré a les deu)
- It's three in the morning (Cat. Són les tres de la matinada)

With clock times we use the preposition *at*, but notice that we do not use it in the question. It is wrong to say: at what time...?. With parts of the day, we must use the preposition *in*.

Other expressions related to clock times are:

- At noon / At midday (Cat. Al migdia)
- At sunset / At dusk (Cat. A la posta del sol)
- At midnight (Cat. A mitjanit)
- At sunrise / At dusk (Cat. A la sortida del sol)

The 12-hour-system

In English, it is not common to use the 24-hour-system. Instead, they use the 12-hour-system. To distinguish between the morning and the evening, they add:

- *am* (Latin: *ante meridiam*), meaning *in the morning*
- pm (Latin: post meridiam), meaning in the afternoon or in the evening

For example, 15:00h is *three pm* or *three in the afternoon* and 03:00h is *three am* or *three in the morning*.

2. Disabilities

"And once the storm is over, you won't remember how you made it through, how you managed to survive. You won't even be sure whether the storm is over. But one thing is certain. When you come out of the storm, you won't be the same person you walked in. That's what this storm is all about.", Haruki Murakami

In 1980 the WHO (World Health Organization) created the ICIDH (International Classification of Impairments, Disabilities and Handicaps) in order to classify the health components of functioning and disability. It was useful because it stated the differences between impairment, disability and handicaps, and it was the starting point for legislation related to disabilities. However, there was a need to *improve* it and *take into account* not only the description of disabilities, but also the contextual factors. Therefore, in 2001, the ICF (International Classification of Functioning, Disability and Health) was endorsed by WHO. The ICF shows a more modern view of the concepts health and disability, and it has severity qualifiers to represent different levels of limitation or restriction, ranging from 0 (no problem or within normal limits) to 4 (complete or profound). It helps to describe disabilities and treat them more effectively by focusing on the *individual's needs*.

There are different types of disabilities, they can be "*developmental*", for example autism or Down syndrome, "mental", such as bipolar disorders, depression or Alzheimer, "physical", *visual, hearing or mobility impairment*, and they can also be related to drug or alcohol consumption.

A physical disability can be *temporary*, *short-term*, *or long-term*. Some may improve or they may be a gradual deterioration. A person may be born with a physical disability or acquire it later in life because of an accident, injury, illness or *side effects* of medical treatment. Some examples of physical disability are: *cerebral palsy*, spinal cord injury, amputation, multiple sclerosis, spina bifida, arthritis or muscular dystrophy.

People with new forms of disabilities have to *adjust* to the situation to make their lifes as comfortable as possible. It is like a *mourning process*, they may experience different stages: shock, *denial*, *anger* or depression, and adjustment or acceptance. It is the normal process although it depends on the individuals, as every case is different. The problem comes when the person *gets stuck in* one of the stages of the process that leads to acceptance. The family and caregivers can help them to move through all the stages and accompany them so that they can adjust to the new condition.

Language notes

WHO (World Health Organization): (Cat. OMS (Organització Mundial de la Salut) Specialized agency of the United Nations (UN) that is concerned with international public health.

ICIDH (International Classification of Impairments, Disabilities and Handicaps): (Cat. CIDDM (Classificació Internacional de les Deficiències, Discapacitats i Minusvalideses).

Improve: (Cat. millorar) To bring to a more desirable condition.

Take into account: (Cat. tenir en compte) Consider particular facts or circumstances.

ICF (International Classification of Functioning, Disability and Health): (Cat. CIF (Classificació Internacional del Funcionament, de la Discapacitat i de la Salut).

Individual's needs: (Cat. necessitats individuals): Special health care needs required by an individual.

Developmental disability: (Cat. de desenvolupament) Disability that occurs in human beings over the course of their lifes.

Visual, hearing or mobility impairment: (Cat. deficiència visual, auditiva o de mobilitat) When a person has sight, hearing or mobility loss.

Temporary: (Cat. temporal) Only lasts for a period of time.

Short-term: (Cat. de curta durada) During a short limited period of time.

Long-term: (Cat. de llarga durada) During a relatively long period of time.

Side effects: (Cat. efectes secundaris) Harmful or unwanted effect of a drug or chemical that occurs along with the desired effect.

Cerebral palsy: (Cat. paràlisi cerebral) Group of disorders affecting a person's ability to move.

Adjust: (Cat. adaptar-se) Adapt, accomodate.

Mourning process: (Cat. procés de dol) Process by which people adapt to a loss.

Denial: (Cat. negació) It is a defense mechanism. We block out the words and hide from the facts.

Anger: (Cat. ira) A strong feeling of displeasure or rage.

Get stuck in: (Cat. quedar estancat) Unable to move further.

Storyline

Back to a new life

The telephone rings.

Annie: "Good morning. This is Annie."

Suzie's mum: "Hi, Annie. Can I speak to your mum?

Annie: "She's very busy at the moment. Can I take the message?"

Suzie's mum: "Well, I wanted to ask her about your grandfather, and I need a recipe to prepare a *wonderful* cake for Suzie. She's *excited* about it."

Annie: "Ok, I will tell her. How is Suzie?"

Suzie's mum: "She's *fine*. She's feeling *better*. She just needs to rest. She looks *very tired* and *quite worried*."

Annie: "Oh, wait! Hold on a minute, mum is coming."

Linda: Hi, Brenda. It's so *depressing*! It's the *worst* situation I have ever passed through! As you know, my father-in-law came back from hospital. Now, he's *more confused* than before. He's *forgetful*, I think he's suffering some kind of dementia, he has memory losses, like his wife.

Suzie's mum: "Oh, Linda, I'm so sorry! How can I help you?"

Linda: "I think I'll need someone to run my errands."

Suzie's mum: "Why don't you hire a caregiver?"

Linda: "That's a good idea. I'll do that!"

2.1 Grammar

The *present perfect* is a verb tense which is used to speak about the past, but, unlike the *past simple* and the *past continuous*, the actions in the present perfect have strong connections with the present.

Apart from the basic prepositions *in*, *on* and *at*, there are other prepositions which are used to speak about time, as for example, *for*, *since*, *before*, *after*, etc.

Finally the *passive voice* (Cat. veu passiva) is a special form of the verb which is sometimes used instead of the 'normal' *active voice* (Cat. veu activa). The passive voice is more widely used in English than in Catalan and Spanish, especially in witten texts, so it is necessary to learn its forms and uses.

2.1.1 The present perfect simple and the present perfect continuous

The past participle is an invariable form of the verb. It is used (with the auxiliary verb *have*) to form the perfect tenses of the verbs and (with the auxiliary verb *be*) to form the passive voice.

The present perfect tenses are composed of two elements: the auxiliary verb *have* and the past participle form of the verb. As with the past simple, when we need to use the past participle in English we must know whetehr the verb is *regular* or *irregular*

- In *regular verbs*, the past participle form adds the ending *-ed* to the infinitive (*work > worked*).
- In *irregular verbs*, the past participle form is a different word from the infinitive (*go* > *gone*).

The present perfect simple

These are the forms of the present perfect simple of a regular verb (worked).

TAULA 2.1. Conjugation of the present perfect simple	(regular verb: //work//)
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	Affirmative Long form	Affirmative Short form	Negative Long form	Negative Short form	Interrogative
I	have worked	've worked	have not worked	haven't worked	Have I worked?
You	have worked	've worked	have not worked	haven't worked	Have you worked?
He/She/It	has worked	's worked	has not worked	hasn't worked	Has he worked?
We	have worked	've worked	have not worked	haven't worked	Have we worked?
You	have worked	've worked	have not worked	haven't worked	Have you worked?
They	have worked	've worked	have not worked	haven't worked	Have they worked?

	Affirmative Long form	Affirmative Short form	Negative Long form	Negative Short form	Interrogative
I	have gone	've gone	have not gone	haven't gone	Have I gone?
You	have gone	've gone	have not gone	haven't gone	Have you gone?
He/She/It	has gone	's gone	has not gone	hasn't gone	Has he gone?
We	have gone	've gone	have not gone	haven't gone	Have we gone?
You	have gone	've gone	have not gone	haven't gone	Have you gone?
They	have gone	've gone	have not gone	haven't gone	Have they gone?

TAULA 2.2. Conjugation of the present perfect simple (irregula	ar verb: //go//)
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The present perfect simple is used:

1) To express an action that started in the past that continues in the present (usually with the prepositions *for* or *since*):

- I *have worked* in this company for 20 years (Cat. Porto 20 anys treballant en aquesta empresa)
- He has been a firefighter since 1998 (Cat. És bomber des del 1998)

In these two examples, we understand that I still work in this company and that he is is still a firefighter. If we use *for* or *since*, the actions are not finished.

2) To express a recently finished action whose consequences still continue in the present:

- The street is wet because it *has rained* all night (Cat. El carrer està mullat perquè *ha plogut* tota la nit)
- He is in hospital because he *has had* an accident at home (Cat. És a l'hospital perquè *ha tingut* un accident domèstic)

3) To express a finished action in an indeterminate past, usually to speak about experiences and accomplishments:

- I have been to Canada many times (Cat. He estat al Canadà moltes vegades)
- *Have* you ever *worked* in a foreign country? (Cat. *Has treballat* alguna vegada a l'estranger?)

Adverbials of time commonly used with the present perfect simple

These are some time adverbials that we often use with the present perfect simple:

- Today (Cat. avui)
- This week, etc. (Cat. Aquesta setmana)
- Never (Cat. mai)
- Just (Cat. -)
- Already (Cat. ja)
- *Ever* (in questions) (Cat. alguna vegada)
- *Yet* (in questions) (Cat. ja)
- Yet (in negatives) (encara not)

Some of these adverbs need an explanation:

1) *Just* has no equivalent word in Catalan or Spanish. The adverb is used to say that the action has finished very recently. In Catalan and Spanish, we express this idea with the expression: 'acabar de' + verb. Examples:

- I have *just* met Mr Bramwell (Cat. M'*acabo de* trobar el Sr. Bramwell).
- He has *just* gone (Cat. Acaba de marxar)

2) *Yet* is only used in questions and negative sentences. We usually place it at the end of the sentence. Examples:

- Have you started the course *yet*? (Cat. Has començat *ja* el curs?)
- We haven't met Mr Bramwell *yet* (Cat. *Encara no* hem conegut el Sr. Bramvell)

The present perfect continuous

The present perfect continuous combines the perfect tenses and the continuous tenses. The form is composed of three elements: the auxiliary verb *have* + the past participle of *be* (*been*) + the gerund of the verb.

The table shows the forms of the present perfect continuous of the verb *work*:

	Affirmative Long form	Affirmative Short form	Negative Long form	Negative Short form	Interrogative
I	have been working	've been working	have not been working	haven't been working	Have I been working?
You	have been working	've been working	have not been working	haven't been working	Have you beer working?
He/She/It	has been working	's been working	has not been working	hasn't been working	Has he been working?

TAULA 2.3. Conjugation of the present perfect simple (irregular verb: //go//)

TAULA 2.3 (continuació)

	Affirmative Long form	Affirmative Short form	Negative Long form	Negative Short form	Interrogative
We	have been working	've been working	have not been working	haven't been working	Have we been working?
You	have been working	've been working	have not been working	haven't been working	Have you been working?
They	have been working	've been working	have not been working	haven't been working	Have they been working?

The present perfect continuous is used in the same cases as the present perfect simple, but sometimes there is a difference in the emphasis on the continuation of the action.

1) The following sentences have the same meaning:

- I have worked in this company for 20 years.
- I *have been working* in this company for 20 years. (Cat. Porto 20 anys treballant en aquesta empresa)

But we can only use the present perfect simple in:

• I have been a firefighter since 1998.

It is wrong to say: *Have been being a firefighter since 1998*. Remember that there are some verbs that are not used in the continuous forms.

2) In the following sentences, the difference is in the emphasis on the duration of the action:

- The street is wet because it *has rained* all night.
- The street is wet because it *has been raining* all night (Cat. El carrer està mullat perquè *ha estat plovent* tota la nit)

In the present perfect simple, we explain what has happened to explain why the street is wet, the action is finished and it has given a certain result. In the present perfect continuous, we emphasize the duration, not the action itself. With the present perfect continuous, the idea is that it has been raining all night and it is still raining at present.

2.1.2 Prepositions of time (II)

Apart from the prepositions *in*, *on* and *at*, other common prepositions of time are the following:

1) Before (Cat. Abans de):

- Before 1980
- Before Christmas
- Before going to work / Before you go to work

2) After (Cat. Després de):

- After the meeting
- After the holidays
- After listening to him / After you listen to him

3) During (Cat. Durant)

- During the week
- During the holidays
- During the meal

4) Until (Cat. Fins a)

- Until 8:30 this evening
- Until next Winter
- Until you finish your work

5) From...to/until (Cat. Des de...fins a...)

- From 2003 to 2006
- From the morning until the evening
- From May to July

6) For (Cat. Durant [tot el període])

- For ten days
- For more than one year
- For one moment

7) Since (Cat. Des de)

- Since yesterday
- Since last week

• Since I was younger

The prepositions of time generally go before a noun, but notice that some prepositions:

1) can go before a clause:

- Before you leave (Cat. Abans de marxar)
- After you meet Mr Smith (Cat. Després de conèixer el Sr Smith)
- Until you see the new office (Cat. Fins que vegis el nou despatx)
- *Since I met you* (Cat. Des de que et conec)

2) can go before a verb (always in the V-ing form):

- Before speaking (Cat. Abans de parlar)
- After talking to Mr Smith (Cat. Després de parlar amb el Sr. Smith)

Some differences between the prepositions of time During/For

1) **During** expresses something that happened in the middle of a period of time:

• *I wrote the article during the holidays* (Cat. Vaig escriure l'article durant les vacances)

2) **For** expresses something that happened throughout the whole period of time:

• *Yesterday I worked for 10 hours* (Cat. Ahir vaig treballar durant 10 hores/Ahir vaig treballar 10 hores seguides)

For/Since (with the present perfect tense):

1) **For** indicates that an action has happened throught the whole period of time indicated:

• *I have lived in the country for only three weeks* (Cat. Fa només tres setmanes que visc al camp).

2) Since indicates the moment in the past when the action started:

• *I have lived in the country since 4th November* (Cat. Visc al camp des del 4 de novembre)

2.1.3 The passive voice

The passive voice is a form of the verb that we can sometimes use instead of the active voice. Catalan and Spanish, as most languages, also have a passive voice. Compare these two sentences:

- Active sentence: *Mary organized the party* (Cat. Mary va organitzar la festa).
- Passive sentence: *The party was organized by Mary* (Cat. La festa va ser organitzada per la Mary).

Structure of the passive sentence

Let's see the structure of the passive sentences. Here is our example:

• The party was organized by Mary

The basic elements are:

1) The subject: *The party...*: it **does not do** the action of the verb, as in the active sentences. In the passive sentences, the subject **receives** the action of the verb.

2) The verb: ...*was organized*...: the verb must be in the passive form, which is composed of two elements: BE (in the appropriate verb tense) + PAST PARTICIPLE (invariable)

3) The agent: ...*by Mary*: the agent is the person who does the action of the verb. It is introduced by the preposition *by* (Cat. per). It is very often omitted from the sentence.

Negative and interrogative passive sentences

To express a passive sentence in the negative or the interrogative, we must apply the same rules as for the verb 'be':

- Negative: *The party was not organized by Mary* (Cat. La festa no va ser organitzada per la Mary)
- Interrogative: *Was the party organized by Mary?* (Cat. Va ser la festa organitzada per la Mary?)

Use of the passive voice

We use the passive voice in these cases:

1) When we don't know who did the action or when it is very obvious:

• *English is required to work in an international team* (Cat. Per a treballar en un equip internacional, es requereix l'anglès)

Like the past simple, the past participle of the regular verbs ends in -ed. For the irregular verbs, see the forms in a list of irregular verbs.

- *The fire has not been extinguished yet* (Cat. El foc encara no s'ha apagat)
- English is spoken in many countries (Cat. L'anglès es parla a molts països)

Notice that in all these examples, Catalan and Spanish do not generally use the passive voice. Instead, they use the impersonal form of the verb: *es requereix*, *no s'ha apagat*, *es parla*

2) When we want to give more importance to the action than to the person who did the action:

- *The company was founded in 1986* (Cat. L'empresa es va fundar/va ser fundada l'any 1986)
- The victim was taken to hospital (Cat. La víctima va ser portada a l'hospital)

Changing from an active sentence to a passive sentence

The change from the active voice to the passive voice will help you understand the differences between these two types of sentences. Here is an example to illustrate the changes:

FIGURA 2.1. Changes from the active to the passive voice



Notice the following:

1) The *subject* in the active sentence becomes the *agent* in the passive sentence.

2) The *direct object* in the active sentence becomes the *subject* in the passive sentence.

3) The verb changes from the *active voice* to the *passive voice*.

Notes:

- When the subject of the active sentence has an impersonal meaning like *people* (Cat. la gent), *someone/somebody* (Cat, algú) or *no one/nobody* (Cat. ningú), we do not usually express the agent in the passive voice.
- When the subject of the active sentence is a subject pronoun (*I*, *you*, *he*, etc.), we must express the agent with the corresponding object pronoun: *by me*, *by you*, *by him*, etc.

The table shows the passive voice of some common tenses of an irregular verb (*do*, in the 3rd person singular):

TAULA 2.4.	The verb tenses i	n the passive voice	(verb: do)
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Verb tense	Active voice	Passive voice
Present simple	does	is done
Present continuous	is doing	is being done
Past simple	did	was done
Past continuous	was doing	was being done
Present perfect	has done	has been done
Future	will do	will be done
Infinitive	(to) do	(to) be done

Passive sentences with two objects

Some sentences have an indirect object and a direct object. When this happens, the two objects can become the subject of the passive sentence. For example:

- Active: Mary asked me(=indirect object) two questions(=direct object)
- Passive: I was asked two questions by Mary
- Passive: Two questions were asked to me by Mary

2.2 Communication

Translations and summaries are two important activities that will help you improve your reading and writing skills.

Translating a text means to express the same ideas in your own language (direct translation) or from your own language into another language (indirect translation). Nowadays, there are many automatic translators that can be very useful to understand a text in English, but if you must submit your translation to other people, it will be necessary to make some corrections because an automatic translator will inevitably generate lexical and syntactical mistakes.

On the other hand, summarizing a text means to express the same ideas, but in fewer and usually different words. Summaries will help you improve your reading skills because you will learn to distinguish the most important ideas of a text.

2.2.1 Translations

When we learn a foreign language (Cat. llengua estrangera), we translate from one language to the other all the time. For example, when we read in English, we mentally translate the language into our mother tongue (Cat. llengua materna) in order to understand the text. When we write in English, first we think in our mother tongue and then we mentally translate it into English. Similarly, when we speak English, we think in Catalan or Spanish and then we translate our thoughts into English. This is the normal process when you learn English outside an English speaking context. However, as you advance in the study of the language, you must 'learn' to think in English. This means that your thoughts will come naturally in the foreign language.

You should be aware that nowadays many professional documents, like manuals and correspondence, are written in English. As some people do not speak English yet, you should learn how to make a good translation so that other people can understand a text in English. Apart from this practical reason, translating a text will also help you understand the foreign language better and practise your reading and writing skills.

To make a translation, you can use the following tools:

- A bilingual dictionary (paper or online).
- An automatic translator.

The most important thing in a translation is to transmit the same idea of the original language as well as possible, but using the most common structures of the language into which you are translating the text. However, sometimes it is inevitable to lose some information when translating from a language into another.

Bilingual dictionaries

Paper dictionaries are little used nowadays. However, it may be useful to have a pocket dictionary at home or at work for looking up (Cat. consultar) the meaning of unknown words. Online dictionaries are more widely used because they offer many advantages. For example, with an online dictionary it is quicker to find a word (you don't have to turn the pages), it is constantly updated, you can access to lots of extra information, you can always carry it with you in your mobile devices and very often you can also listen to the pronunciation of the word. You can find hundreds of free dictionaries in the web.

Here are some instructions to use a dictionary appropriately (paper or online):

• If the word is inflected, look for the base form (although many online dictionaries include inflected forms). For example, do not look for the meaning of *did*, look for *do*; do no look for *easier*, look for *easy*.

See the 'Interesting links' section for a list of online dictionaries.

- Do not take the first meaning of the word that you find. Very often, a word has several meanings. You must consider the context and choose the meaning that has more sense in that context. For example, we cannot translate the verb *work* in the same way in: *The computer doesn't work* (Cat. L'ordinador no funciona) as in: *He doesn't work on Mondays* (Cat. No treballa els dilluns).
- Consider the part of speech (it's a verb, a noun, an adjective?). Sometimes they have the same form, but the meanings are different. For example, the word *working* is not the same in *a working day* (adj.) (Cat. un dia laborable) as in *I'm working* (v.) (Cat. Estic treballant).

Automatic translators

Automatic translators are very much used nowadays for translating words, sentences and whole texts. They are very useful for understanding the meaning of an email in English or a short text from a manual, for example. Automatic translators are more and more accurate everyday. However, a text generated by an automatic translator is usually full of syntactical and lexical mistakes. For this reason, it is necessary to read the resulting text carefully and correct the mistakes, especially if the translation is destined to other people.

Here is a translation of a technical text from English into Catalan. Compare both texts and notice the different syntactical structures:

Translations

English version

As with many computer-related devices, mice are being combined with other gadgets and technologies to create improved and multipurpose devices. Examples include multi-media mice, combination mice/remote controls, gaming mice, biometric mice, tilting wheel mice and motion-based mice.

(from the website www.howstuffworks.com)

Translation into Catalan:

Com és el cas en molts aparells informàtics, els ratolins es combinen amb altres aparells i tecnologies per tal de crear dispositius millorats i polivalents. Alguns exemples són els ratolins multimèdia, la combinació de ratolins i comandaments a distància, els ratolins utilitzats en els jocs, els ratolins biomètrics, els ratolins amb la roda inclinada i els ratolins basats en el moviment.

The process is the same in the case of what is generally called a 'reversed translation', that is, a translation from the mother tongue into a foreign language. When we write in English, we usually make a reversed translation because we tend to think in our own language and then translate our thoughts into English.

The use of automatic translators for writing in English is not recommended for several reasons:

• The text that you introduce must be very well written and have absolutely no mistakes. If you miss a comma, a graphical accent or mispell a word, the text will be full of mistakes. For example, the translator may interpret the

words anglès and angles differently.

- An automatic translator does not generally distinguish the context or the language style required, so we must make sure that it translates exactly what we mean.
- If the objective of writing is practising your skills, you will miss the effort that you need to make for learning because the translator will do all the work for you.

2.2.2 Summaries

Writing a summary means to express the most important ideas of a text in a few words. A summary often means to change the words and sentences of the original text, but sometimes you can simply cut down the text by eliminating all the superfluous information and keep only the main ideas. From the point of view of learning, writing a summary is an excellent means of practising your writing and reading skills.

To write a summary, you must follow these instructions:

- Include only the main ideas.
- Do not include superfluous information. This includes: examples, words and sentences to reinforce the main point, repetitions of the main idea to give emphasis, etc.
- Try to use more simple sentences and your own words as much as possible. Where it says: *I was astonished to hear that you had resigned your post* you could say, for example: *I was surprised to know about your resignation*.
- Do not change the information of the original text. You must say the same, but in fewer sentences.
- Do not express your own opinion in a summary or add information that is not in the original text.

Writing a summary requires some practice and some knowledge of the basic vocabulary and syntactical structures of the language, in this case, of the English language. Here are some tips for writing a good summary:

- First of all, read the whole text to have a general idea of the contents.
- Write down what you remember of the text without looking at it.
- Read the text again and underline or highlight the main ideas: see if they coincide with the ideas that you have written down.

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- Write down the summary carefully. When possible, choose more simple sentences; you can also use the same sentences, but make sure that you eliminate all the unnecessary information.
- Read your summary. If you think that it is still too long, cut out all the unnecessary details or try to change the sentences for more simple ones. A summary should be as short as possible without losing any important information.

Here is an example of a summary:

Summaries

Text:

The Island

In recent years, we have seen significant developments in cloning. Sheep, cows, cats and, more recently, dogs that have been cloned in the name of scientific progress. One of the potential use of cloning is to 'grow' replacement organs for people who are ill in human clones. It is this subject that is portrayed in a new film released this week in the USA called 'The Island'.

The film features Ewan McGregor and Scarlett Johanssen and it raises awareness of this highly controversial moral issue. However, in spite of excellent performances from both main actors and spectacular special effects, the film received a disappointing reaction from American audiences. It is possible that the subject is too difficult and that some audiences prefer thrillers without the moral dilemmas. The film opens in the UK next week and it will be interesting to see how the British audiences react.

Summary:

The Island

The new film 'The Island', which deals with the controversial subject of cloning people, has not been received well in the USA. Although the acting and effects are very good, some audiences may have been disappointed by the moral message of the film.

3. Accidents

Accidents can sometimes happen when you are *on duty*, and you may have to *report* them. You might have to fill in *a form* with the necessary information for the health professionals. Here you can see an example:

This is what happened to Mr Brent:

Mr Brent is 89 years old. He seemed a little *forgetful*, but he didn't worry much about it. He enjoyed *making jokes* about his *memory loss*. He lived alone for almost 15 years and was used to being very independent.

His family never thought his forgetfulness was anything more than just a process of aging until the day his neighbour saw smoke coming from the kitchen window and called the fire department. Mr Brent had forgotten *to turn the stove off*, and had burned throught the bottom of a *pot* and nearly set the house on fire.

When the family went to his home to see the *extend of the damages*, they noticed a lot of *unopened mail, unpaid bills* and medication that was *outdated* and not taken. They were very alarmed about the situation and took Mr Brent to the doctor, who diagnosed early to mid-stage Alzheimer's disease.

Mr Brent's family decided that his grandson George *would move in*, and be the caregiver for night duty. During the day, they *hired* our service to go into the home and help Mr Brent with light *housekeeping*, personal care and *fixing meals*.

Christine works for the company "Our Elders", which offers senior care service. She has started her job taking care of Mr Brent, and she has to fill in a form for the company reporting about the incident.

TAULA 3.1.	Incident report
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Our Elders		Non clinical incic report	lent
1. What type of incident are you reporting?			
Near miss x		Vehicle accident	
Security incident		Violent incident	
2. Where and when did the accident occur?			
Address:			
Date of incident:			
Time of incident:			
3. Who was affected by the incident?			
Full name: Joseph Brent	Sex:	Male x	Female
Date of birth:			

TAULA 3.1 (continuació)

Our Elders	Non cli report	nical incident	
Home Address:			
Telephone:			
4. Please give details of incident/near miss			
(What happened?)			
5. Did the person suffer <i>injury</i> ?	Yes	No x	
What was the type of injury?			
Which part of the body was affected?			
What was the person doing at the time of the incident?			
6. Give details of any attention the person received and from whom			
(e.g. Treatment, advice, referral)			
What measures have been taken to prevent reocurrence?			

Language notes

On duty: (Cat. de servei) At work.

Report: (Cat. informar) Give a written or spoken account of something that one has done or investigated.

A form: (Cat. un formulari) A printed or typed document with blank spaces for insertion of required information.

Forgetful: (Cat. oblidadís) that tends to forget things easily.

Making jokes: (Cat. fer broma) Making fun.

Memory loss: (Cat. pèrdua de memòria) Unusual forgetfulness.

To turn the stove off: (Cat. tancar el foc) To turn off an apparatus for cooking.

Extend of the damages: (Cat. danys) the point or degree of physical harm on something.

Unopened mail: (Cat. correu sense obrir) Letters which have not been opened.

Unpaid bills: (Cat. factures no pagades) Bills pending, which have not been paid.

Outdated: (Cat. caducats) Expired, out of date.

Move in: (Cat. mudar-se a un lloc) To occupy a house or a place of work.

Hired: (Cat. llogat, contractat) To be taken on.

Housekeeping: (Cat. feines de la llar) The management of household affairs.

Fixing meals: (Cat. preparar el menjar) To prepare meals, such as lunch or dinner.

Storyline

Unexpected events

Belien: "Mina, what should I wear, the red or the blue scarf?"

Linda: "Please, Belien, my name's Linda, not Mina. And *you'd better wear* the blue scarf. It combines with your bag."

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Belien: "You're right, thanks."

Linda: "Dad called from the hospital *before coming home*. He said he would arrive *at a quarter past three*, and now *it's half past four* and he hasn't arrived yet. I know that he always comes late *on* Tuesdays, but today we have the interview with the caregiver.

The telephone rings.

Linda: "Good afternoon, Linda speaking."

Thomas: "Good afternoon. Linda, sorry, there was an accident. I had to stay back at the hospital. There were a lot of injured: A man broke his leg and I had to put plaster on it. A girl twisted her ankle, she had an X-ray and I had to make a compression wrap. She also had a cut **under** her knee and I had to stitch the wound."

Linda: "Ok, Thomas, but remember we had the interview with Céline, the new caregiver. I have to call her *before* she comes. Where is her phone number?"

Thomas: "I kept it in the box, near the TV."

Linda: "The box is not there. I have checked *behind* the TV, *next to* the TV, and *on* the shelf *above* the TV, but I cannot see it."

Thomas: "I don't understand, it could be the dog. Yesterday, I put my keys *on* the table, and the dog took them and jumped *over* the fence. The neighbour gave me the keys, which were *in front of* the gate."

3.1 Grammar

The *modal verbs* (Cat. verbs modals) form a special type of verbs in English. They do not express actions, but ideas like ability, obligation and possibility. They are also used to ask for permission, make requests or express the future, for example.

The modal verbs are: can, could, must, should, may, might, will and would

The main characteristics of the modal verbs are these:

- They have no verb tenses: the modal verbs generally refer to the present or the future time, but they have no tenses like the past tenses, the continuous and perfect tenses, or the infinitive. To express a modal verb in any of these forms, we must use an alternative expression with the same meaning.
- The 3rd person singular does not add an -s: *he can, she must, he may*, etc. It is wrong to say: *he cans*.
- They form the negative by adding *not* to the verb, as in the verb *be*: *I cannot*, *he must not*, etc. It is wrong to say: *I don't can*, *he doesn't must*.
- They form the interrogative by inverting the order of the subject and the verb, as in the verb *be*: *Can you...?*, *May I...?*, etc. It is wrong to say: *Do you can...?*, *Do I may...?*.
- They must always be accompanied by another verb in the infinitive form: *I can speak English* (Cat. Sé parlar anglès). The sentence *I can English* makes no sense.

3.1.1 Modal verbs: can / could

The modal verb **can** is used to express:

- **Present ability**: *He can cook very well* (Cat. [Ell] sap cuinar molt bé/[Ell] cuina molt bé).
- Certain possibility: *It can rain* (Cat. Pot ser que plogui / És possible que plogui).
- Informal permission: Can I go please? (Cat. Puc marxar, si us plau?).
- Informal request: Can you come please? (Cat. pots venir, si us plau?).
- A suggestion: We can have a coffee (Cat. Podem prendre un cafè).

The modal verb **could** is used to express:

- **Past ability**: *I couldn't speak English some years ago* (Cat. Fa alguns anys [jo] no sabia parlar anglès).
- Uncertain possibility: It could rain (Cat. Podria ser que plogués).
- Formal permission: Could I go please? (Cat. Podria marxar si us plau?).
- **Formal/polite request**: *Could you come please*? (Cat. Podries venir si us plau?).
- A suggestion: We could have a coffee (Cat. podríem prendre un cafè).

These are the **conjugations** of *can* and *could*:

Can

TAULA 3.2. Conjugation of 'can'

	Affirmative	Negative Long form	Negative Short form	Interrogative
I	can	cannot*	can't	can I?
you	can	cannot*	can't	can you?
he, she, it	can	cannot*	can't	can he / she / it?
we	can	cannot*	can't	can we?
you	can	cannot*	can't	can you?
they	can	cannot*	can't	can they?

* The long form of the negative is spelt as one word (*cannot*). This form is only used in formal written texts. When speaking, we always say *can't*.

Could

TAULA 3.3. Conjugation of 'could'

	Affirmative	Negative Long form	Negative Short form	Interrogative
1	could	could not	couldn't	could I?
you	could	could not	couldn't	could you?
he, she, it	could	could not	couldn't	could he / she / it?
we	could	could not	couldn't	could we?
you	could	could not	couldn't	could you?
they	could	could not	couldn't	could they?

Alternative forms

The modal verbs *can* and *could* only have one form each. To express the idea of ability, we use *can* in the present and *could* in the past. In other tenses, we can use the expression:

• Be able to (Cat. Ser capaç de)

For example:

- I *haven't been able to* find a solution (present perfect) (Cat. No he estat capaç de trobar una solució).
- I *will be able to* speak English one day (future) (Cat. Un dia sabré parlar anglès).

3.1.2 Modal verbs: must / should

The modal verb **must** is used to express:

- **Obligation**: *I must go* (Cat. Haig de marxar).
- **Prohibition** (in the negative form): *We mustn't smoke here* (Cat. Aquí no podem fumar / Aquí està prohibit fumar).
- **Predictions**: *You've got a call. That must be James* (Cat. Tens una trucada. Deu ser James).

The modal verb should is used to express:

- Moral obligation: *I should talk to Mrs Smith* (Cat. Hauria de parlar amb la Sra Smith).
- Advice: *You should practise the oral skills* (Cat. Hauries de practicar les abilitats orals).

Obligation and moral obligation

The difference between an *obligation* and a *moral obligation* is not very clear because it often depends of the person's point of view.

An *obligation* is something that we must do because it is established by the regulations (for example, *we must wear a jacket to go to a formal meal*) or because we think that it is necessary or very important (for example, *you must go if you want to take that flight*).

On the other hand, a *moral obligation* is something which is not obligatory, but we feel that it is important for us or in a given context (for example, *I think I should practise more if I want to improve my oral skills*).

In Catalan and Spanish, we make the distinction with different forms of the verb. Notice these examples:

- *We must wear a jacket*: Cat. Hem de portar jaqueta / Sp. Tenemos que llevar chaqueta.
- *I should practise more*: Cat. Hauria de practicar més / Sp. Debería practicar más.

Must

TAULA 3.4. Conjugation of 'must'

	Affirmative	Negative Long form	Negative Short form	Interrogative
I	must	must not	mustn't	must I?
you	must	must not	mustn't	must you?
he, she, it	must	must not	mustn't	must he / she / it?
we	must	must not	mustn't	must we?
you	must	must not	mustn't	must you?
they	must	must not	mustn't	must they?

Should

TAULA 3.5. Conjugation of 'should'

	Affirmative	Negative Long form	Negative Short form	Interrogative
I	should	should not	shouldn't	should I?
you	should	should not	shouldn't	should you?
he, she, it	should	should not	shouldn't	should he / she / it?
we	should	should not	shouldn't	should we?
you	should	should not	shouldn't	should you?
they	should	should not	shouldn't	should they?

Alternative forms

The modal verb *must* expresses an obligation in the present. To express an obligation in other tenses, we can use the expression:

• Have to (Cat. Haver de)

For example:

- We *had to* wait for three hours in the rain (passat simple) (Cat. Vam haver d'esperar tres hores sota la pluja).
- You *will have* to give an explanation (future) (Cat. hauràs de donar una explicació)
- They *have had to* go immediately (present perfect) (Cat. Han hagut de marxar de seguida).

The verb *should* usually refers to the present (as in: *I should go now*) or to the future (as in: *I should go tomorrow*). To speak about a moral obligation in the past, we can use this expression:

• **Should have** + past participle: I *should have* called him (Cat. L'hauria d'haver trucat).

3.1.3 Modal verbs: may / might

The modal verb **may** is used to:

- Express possibility: *You may have an accident* (Cat. Podries tenir un accident / És possible que tinguis un accident).
- Ask for formal permission: *May I ask you a favour?* (Cat. Li puc demanar un favor?).
- Give formal permission: You may sit down now (Cat. Ara podeu seure).

The modal verb **might** is to:

- Express a remote possibility: *You might have an accident* (Cat. Podria ser que tinguessis un accident).
- Ask for very formal permission: *Might I ask you a question?* (Cat. Podría fer-li una pregunta?)
- Give very formal permission: *You might tell me all you think* (Cat. Pot dir-me tot el que vostè pensa).

These are the conjugations of may and might:

May

TAULA 3.6. Conjugation of 'may'

	Affirmative	Negative Long form	Negative Short form	Interrogative
I	may	may not	-	may I?
you	may	may not		may you?
he, she, it	may	may not		may he / she / it?
we	may	may not		may we?
you	may	may not	-	may you?
they	may	may not	-	may they?

Might

TAULA 3.7. Conjugation of 'might'

	Affirmative	Negative Long form	Negative Short form	Interrogative
I	might	might not	-	might I?

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TAULA 3.7 (continuació)

	Affirmative	Negative Long form	Negative Short form	Interrogative
you	might	might not	-	might you?
he, she, it	might	might not	-	might he / she / it?
we	might	might not	-	might we?
you	might	might not		might you?
they	might	might not	-	might they?

Alternative forms

When we express a possibility with *may* or *might*, we always refer to future possibilities. To speak of possibilities in the past, we can use these forms:

- **May have** + past participle: It *may have* rained (Cat. És possible que hagi plogut / Pot haver plogut).
- **Might have** + past participle: He *might have* gone (Cat. Podria ser que hagués marxat / Podria haver marxat).

Other ways of expressing possibility are:

- with the expression **be possible that** + clause: It *is possible that* it rains tonight (Cat. És possible que plogui aquesta nit).
- with the adverb **probably** and the future tense: It *will* probably rain tonight (Cat. Probablement plourà aquesta nit).

3.1.4 modal verbs: will / would

The modal werb **will** is used to:

- Express the future: *The shop will close down next week* (Cat. La botiga tancarà la setmana que ve).
- Make requests: *Will you help me please?* (Cat. Em pots ajudar si us plau? / M'ajudes si us plau?).

The modal verb **would** is used to:

- Express the conditional form: *I would go if I had time* (Cat. Jo hi aniria si tingués temps).
- **Make formal requests**: *Would you please send me the application*? (Cat. Em podria enviar la sol·licitud si us plau?).

• Make invitations (with *like*): *Would you like a coffee?* (Cat. Vols un cafè?).

These are the conjugations of *will* and *would*:

Will

TAULA 3.8. Conjugation of 'will'

	Affirmative	Negative Long form	Negative Short form	Interrogative
I	will	will not	won't*	will I?
you	will	will not	won't*	will you?
he, she, it	will	will not	won't*	will he / she / it?
we	will	will not	won't*	will we?
you	will	will not	won't*	will you?
they	will	will not	won't*	will they?

* Notice that the short form of the negative is *won't*. This form is used in speech and informal written texts.

Would

TAULA 3.9. Conjugation of 'would'

	Affirmative	Negative Long form	Negative Short form	Interrogative
I	would	would not	wouldn't	would I?
you	would	would not	wouldn't	would you?
he, she, it	would	would not	wouldn't	would he / she / it?
we	would	would not	wouldn't	would we?
you	would	would not	wouldn't	would you?
they	would	would not	wouldn't	would they?

See Unit 3, section 1.1. Grammar to see another way of expressing the future.

Alternative forms

The modal verbs will and would have no alternative forms.

3.2 Communication

Both in our daily lives and in our working environments, asking for and expressing opinions is a very common activity. During a conversation, we express or listen to opinions most of the time. Sometimes we also include our opinions in emails or business letters. When we listen to an opinion, we can do two things: we can agree with that opinion or we can disagree. Opinions are so common that it is necessary to learn how to ask other people about their opinions, how to express them ourselves and how to respond to them.

3.2.1 Asking for opinions: question tags

The most common ways of asking for other people's opinions are:

- General opinions: what do you think of ...?
- Specific opinion: do you think (that)...?

When we speak, we normally omit the word *that*.

Here are some examples of questions asking for opinions:

- What do you think of the new iPhone? (Cat. Què opines del nou iPhone?).
- *What do you think of the company's policy?* (Cat. Què en penses de la política de l'empresa?).
- *Do you think that the new CEO is competent?* (Cat. Creus que el nou director general és competent?).
- *Do you think Mr Smith will help you?* (Cat. Et penses que el Sr Smith t'ajudarà?).

When we speak in informal situations, we can also ask for other people's opinions with a *question tag*. For example:

- *The new iPhone is too expensive, isn't it?* (Cat. El nou iPhone és massa car, no creus?)
- *Mr Smith will help you, won't he?* (Cat. El Sr Smith t'ajudarà, no?)

Let's learn more things about the question tags.

Question tags

A *question tag* is a short question that we add at the end of a statement. We normally use question tags to see if the other person agrees or disagrees with our statement or to check if the other person has heard or undestood our words. We form the questions tags like this:

• Modal/auxiliary verb of the statement (in the opposite form) + corresponding subject pronoun.

'In the opposite form' means that we must say the question tag in the negative if the statement is affirmative and we must say the question tag in affirmative if the statement is negative.

Here are some examples of questions tags:

- It's very cold today, isn't it? (Cat. Avui fa molt de fred, oi que sí?).
- *You will be 50 next week, won't you?* (Cat. Faràs 50 anys la setmana que ve, no?).
- I should wait, shouldn't I? (Cat. M'hauria d'esperar, no creus?).
- *She speaks good English, doesn't she?* (Cat. Parla un bon anglès, no és veritat?).
- You went out last night, didn't you? (Cat. Anit vas sortir, oi?)
- John has worked in the bak for 10 years, hasn't he? (Cat. John porta 10 anys treballant al banc, no?)
- *You didn't like the trade fair, did you?* (Cat. No et va agradar la fira, oi que no?)
- *Mr Smith shouldn't talk like this, should he?* (Cat. El Sr Smith no hauria de parlar d'aquesta manera, no creus?

Questions tags in Catalan and Spanish

Question tags also exist in Catalan and Spanish. In these languages, there is a great variety of ways of expressing a question tag (see the examples in Catalan). In Catalan and Spanish, the question tag does not depend on the statement, as in English. Here are some ways of expressing question tags in those two languages:

- Catalan: oi?, oi que sí/no?, no?, no creus?, no és veritat?, a que sí/no?
- Spanish: ¿verdad?, ¿no es cierto?, ¿no crees?, ¿a que sí/no?, ¿no?

A very easy way of using a question tag is by adding **right?** to all the statements. For example:

- It's very cold today, right? (Cat. Avui fa molt de fred, no és cert?)
- *You didn't like the trade fair, right?* (Cat. No et va agradar la fira, no és cert?)

3.2.2 Expressing opinions

When we speak, people will generally understand when we are expressing an opinion and when we are stating a fact. However, sometimes it is necessary to make sure that the other person understands that we are expressing an opinion. To do this, we can use different expressions:

• I think (that)...

- In my opinion, ...
- From my point of view,...

We can also show that we are expressing a strong opinion. For this, we can say:

- I believe (that)...
- I'm sure (that)...
- I'm convinced (that)...

The word *that* is very often omitted in speech.

Here are some examples of opinions:

- I think we should call a doctor (Cat. Crec que hauríem de cridar a un metge).
- *In my opinion, your boss is too demanding* (Cat. En la meva opinió, el teu cap és massa exigent).
- *From my point of view, this restaurant is excellent* (Cat. Des del meu punt de vista, aquest restaurant és excel·lent).
- *I believe we must go on strike right now* (Cat. Crec que hem de fer vaga ara mateix).
- *I'm sure Anne is the best candidate* (Cat. Estic segur que Anne és la millor candidata).
- *I'm convinced that you will like the idea* (Cat. Estic convençut que li agradarà la idea).

To express negative opinions, we simply say the statement in the negative. For example:

- *I think we shouldn't call a doctor* (Cat. Crec que no hauríem de cridar a un metge).
- *In my opinion, your boss is not too demanding* (Cat. En la meva opinió, el teu cap no és massa exigent).

With the expressions *I think*... and *I believe*..., we can also express the verbs in negative and the statment in affirmative, like this:

- *I don't think we should call a doctor* (Cat. No crec que haguem de cridar a un metge).
- *I don't believe that we must go on strike right now* (Cat. No crec que haguem de fer vaga ara mateix).

3.2.3 Responding to opinions

During a conversation, we will probably have to respond to other people's opinions. When this happens, we can agree or disagree with the other person. To agree or disagree, we can use these expressions:

Agree

- I agree (with you).
- Yes, I think so too.
- Yes, that's right.

Disagree

- I don't agree (with you).
- I disagree (with you).
- No, I don't think so.

When we disagree with somebody's opinions, it is proper social etiquette to express your own opinion on the subject. For example:

• It's very cold, isn't it? - *I disagree*. *I think it's too warm* (Cat. No estic d'acord. Crec que fa massa calor).

Another way (informal) of responding to an opinion is by saying *yes* or *no* and then adding the subject pronoun and the auxiliary verb or modal of the statement. It is like answering a 'yes/no question'. Here are some examples:

- It's very cold Yes, it is (Cat. Fa molt fred Sí, que en fa).
- He speaks too low Yes, he does (Cat. Parla molt baixet Doncs sí).
- We can do it *No, we can't. It's too difficult* (Cat. Ho podem fer No, no podem. És massa difícil).
- We were in Japan last year *No, we weren't. That was Korea* (Cat. Vam estar al Japó l'any passat No, allò era Corea).

See Unit 1, section 3.1.3. Asking questions for checking the way of answering 'yes/no questions'

Please notice that in English we must say: I agree, I don't agree and I disagree. It is wrong to say: I am agree, I am not agree and I am disagree.

At work

Carles Mora i Núria Terradellas

Índex

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Introduction

This unit is called "At work" because it is centered on the work of a caregiver. You will see different aspects of a caregiver's working life as illustrated by the three texts that compose the unit.

The text in the first section deals with the tasks that caregivers usually do. You will also see the reports of two cases of people with disorders associated to aging. Finally, there is a list of the contents of a first aid kit. The second text describes the working conditions of caregivers and also the example of an old lady who suffers from arthritis; we can see the consequences of the disease and the treatment required. The third text includes some hints on how to write a curriculum in English in case you need it to look for a job in another country.

As far as the grammar is concerned, in the first section of this unit you will learn about a category of verbs called 'modal verbs'. These form a group of verbs that have no independent meaning, but depend on the meaning of other verbsto make sense. Modals do not express actions, but indicate things like obligation, ability or possibility. In this section you will learn which are the modal verbs and their use and meaning. The first section also introduces the different ways of expressing the future, with their corresponding adverbials of time, and a verb form called 'imperative', which we use to give orders and instructions. The second grammar section describes some basic sentence structures, as for example, those of the statements, the questions, the imperative, and the passive. The passive voice is very important in English because it is more widely used than in Catalan or Spanish, so you will learn how to form and use the passive voice, and how to distinguish it from the active voice. The third section introduces two other types of sentences. On one hand, you will learn about the conditional sentences, which include a condition and the result if the condition is accomplished; on the other hand, we will introduce the relative clauses, which are always introduced by a relative pronoun and are mostly used to define a noun or explain some characteristic of that noun. Before this grammar section, you will see the storyline, where you can see some examples of the grammar points in context.

The 'everyday language' sections introduce more social language. In the first sections, you will find different ways of giving and responding to instructions. You do this when you must indicate other people what they must do. They are very similar to orders, and in fact, both functions use the imperative form of the verb. The first section is devoted to making and responding to requests. A request is an expression in which we ask other people to do something. It is like giving orders or instructions, but using more indirect, polite means. The emphasis will be on using the appropriate expression in each context. Finally, the third section is about making and responding to suggestions. We make suggestions when we think that other people should do something. We may also be included in the suggestion, as when we plan to do something together with other people. You

will see the different possibilities to make suggestions, with their corresponding sentence structure, and the ways of responding to a suggestion.

Learning objectives

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

1. Understand oral messages in standard language related to the education, the health, and the working and social environments of people working in the field of support to people with special needs and to analize the general meaning of a message relating it to the corresponding language resources.

- Identify the context of the message.
- Identify the main idea of the mesage.
- Identify the purpose of a face-to-face or telephone message or any other oral message received through any means of communication.
- Get specific information from oral messages common in the professional and daily lives in the field of support to people with special needs.
- Organize the elements of a message.
- Identify the main ideas in a speech about the professional field transmitted through the mass media in standard language.
- Recognize oral instructions and follow instructions.
- Be aware of the importance of understanding the general meaning of a message even if you don't understand everything.

2. Understand and make a comprehensive analysis of simple written texts related to the education, the health, and the working and social environments of people working in the field of support to people with special needs.

- Read and understand written texts in standard language about the professional field of support to people with special needs.
- Interpret the global meaning of a written message.
- Relate a written text to the professional field of support to people with special needs.
- Identify the specific information used in the professional field of support to people with special needs.
- Interpret the most common documents used in the professional field of support to people with special needs.
- Translate textsfrom the professional field of support to people with special needs by using the necessary reference material.

- Understand a written text received through different means: post, fax, and e-mail, among others.
- Choose the appropriate reference material such as technical dictionaries and automatic translators.

3. Produce clear, well-organized oral messages and take an active part in conversations frequently used in companies in the fields of the education, the health, and the working and social environments of people working in the field of support to people with special needs.

- Identify and apply the correct style, formal or informal, in oral speech.
- Express an oral message by using a variety of communicative resources.
- Use the appropriate conventions in the production or oral messages in the professional field of support to people with special needs.
- Describe the events that normally occur in the professional field of support to people with special needs.
- Use the appropriate terminology as commonly used in the professional field of support to people with special needs.
- Express feelings, ideas or opinions.
- Express the basic activities in the professional field, such as giving support to people, meeting professionals of related fields and describing common documents.
- Describe the job of a professional in the field of support to people with special needs.
- Accept or reject other people's proposals.
- Justify a decision taken.
- Ask other people to repeat or explain an oral message to make it more clear.
- Apply the appropriate conventions in oral communication within the professional field of support to people with special needs.

4. Fill in basic documents in the field of support to people with special needs and/or write simple texts in standard language related to the education, the health, and the working and social environments of workers in that field.

- Write short texts about the professional and daily lives in the field of support to people with special needs.
- Organize a text in a coherent way.
- Summarize texts in the professional field of support to people with special needs.

- Fill in documents related to the professional field of support to people with special needs.
- Apply the appropriate conventions and vocabulary in documents related to the professional field of support to people with special needs.
- Summarize the main ideas in written texts by using your own words.
- Use the appropriate protocol in documents.

5. Show the appropriate attitude and behaviour in communicative situations as established by international conventions.

- Define the most distinctive aspects of the customs of English-speaking communities in the professional field of support to people with special needs.
- Describe the social conventions of your country.
- Identify the values and beliefs which are characteristic of English-speaking communities.
- Identify the social and professional aspects of the professional field of support to people with special needs in all types of oral and written messages.
- Apply the social conventions in English-speaking communities.

"The best way to find yourself is to lose yourself in the service of others.", Mahatma Gandhi

The term "home health care" refers to the custodial care provided by professionals who are not licensed medical personnel. They are called healthcarers, personal care assistants (PCA), caregivers, or carers.

The advantatges of home care are primarily psychological, as the patients prefer to stay in a familiar setting where they feel more comfortable.

Caregivers help with clients with mobility restrictions to get out of bed, bathe and dress. They may provide some basic health-related services. They check the patient's pulse rate, temperature, and breathing rate, they help with simple prescribed exercises, and they assist with the administration of medicines.

Caregivers may also advice families and patients on nutrition, cleanliness, and household tasks. Depending on the patients' needs, they may change simple dressings, provide skin care, or give other kinds of assistance. Some accompany clients to doctors' appointments or go on errands, and may also provide light housekeeping tasks.

Reports

As a caregiver you may have to write reports of the cases you are following up. Here you can see two examples:

1. Mr Holmes has a limited use of his right hand. He stands at the toilet to urinate and causes a real mess. He prefers to stand because he is used to it and because sitting and rising are difficult. He uses a walker frame.

I recommend installing a handicap toilet, which is higher, and a grab bar, which will make it easier to pull himself up off the toilet when he is done. He can keep a urine bottle next to his bed.

2. Mr Orange is 79 years old. He has multiple sclerosis (MS), which causes slowed motility, constipation, and potential fecal impaction. The doctor recommended a diet with high fiber content, plenty of daytime water drinking, keeping as physically active as possible, avoiding some medication such as narcotics and taking the prescribed medicines (stool softeners.)

First aid kit

Caregivers should always check that the first aid kit contains all the elements and that the medications are not expired.

At work

Language notes

bathe: (Cat. banyar-se) To wash yourself.

Dress: (Cat. vestir-se) To put on clothes.

Pulse rate: (Cat. el pols) The rate at which the heart beats.

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Go on errands: (Cat. fer encarrecs) A short journey to get or do something.

Mess: (Cat. desordre) A disorderly or dirty accumulation.

To stand: (Cat. estar dret) To rise to an upright position on the feet.

Rising: (Cat. aixecar-se) To get up from a lying or sitting situation.

Walker frame: (Cat. caminador) Tool for disabled or elderly people who need additional support to maintain balance.

Handicap toilet: (Cat. lavabo adaptat) A toilet adapted for disabled.

Grab bar: (Cat. barra de suport) Safety device designed to enable a person to maintain balance. It is usually attached to a wall in the bathroom or the toilet.

Pull himself up off the toilet: (Cat. aixecar-se del lavabo) To rise from the toilet.

He is done: (Cat. quan ja ha acabat) When someone finishes to do something.

Constipation: (Cat. restrenyiment) A condition of the bowels in which feces are dry and hardened and evacuation is difficult and infrequent.

High fiber content: (Cat. alt contingut en fibra) Food that contains a lot of fiber.

Prescribed medicines: (Cat. medicaments receptats) Medicines that a doctor has adviced to take.

Stool softeners: (Cat. laxant) Medication to relieve constipation.

Triangular bandage: (Cat. bena triangular) Bandage for wrapping an injury and making an arm sling.

Sterile pad: (Cat. gassa esterilitzada) Piece of thin cloth that is used to protect open wounds from bacteria and other contaminants.

Gauze roller bandage: (Cat. bena elàstica) Roll of gauze for wrapping or binding a body part.

Tweezers: (Cat. pinces) Small pincers, usually of metal used for picking small objects.

Storyline

The family welcomes Céline

Céline (on the phone): ... "Sorry, Mr Marble, I've lost my way. *Could* you *tell* me how to get to your house?"

Thomas: "Where are you?"

Céline: "When I arrived with the bus, I walked *straight on* Hospital Avenue, and *then* I *turned left into* London Road. I walked *past* Starbucks, and I don't know if I *should turn* left or right."

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Thomas: "*Continue straight until* you arrive to Barklays Bank, *then turn right into* Bonnie Street. You *'II see* a park, walk *across* the park and you *'II get* to East Anglia Street. It's number 21."

•••

The doorbell rings.

Thomas: "Hello, Céline. Welcome to our house."

Céline: "Thank you, Mr. Marble. I'm sorry for the inconvenience."

Thomas: "No problem. Please, *come* and *meet* my parents. This is my mum, Belien, and this is my dad, John."

Céline: "Pleased to meet you, Mr and Mrs Marble."

Thomas: "Mum, dad... This is Céline. She's *going to stay* with us for some time, and she's *going to take* care of you. You *must follow* her instructions.

John: "We will, Thomas. You don't have to worry about that."

Belien: "Can I ask a question?"

John: "Yes, mum, you can."

Belien: "Céline, are you going to sleep in the guest room?"

Céline: "Well, madam. I *might not sleep* here, though if I *have to stay* I *may sleep* in the guest room. We 'II discuss about it *tomorrow*."

Thomas: "Ok, Céline, come and meet my wife."

1.1 Grammar

In English there is not a specific verb tense to express the future (like the *present simple* or the *past simple*). We can speak about the future with the modal verb *will* or with the expression *be going to*. There is a clear difference between the future with *will* and the future with *be going to*. In general, *will* is used to express something that we know, or think, that will happen in the future and *be going to* is used to express something that we have already planned or decided to do. Sometimes, we can also speak about the future with the *present continuous* or the *present simple*.

1.1.1 Future actions: 'will'

A very common way of expressing the future is with the modal verb *will*. The table shows the forms and uses of the future with *will*.

TAULA 1.1. Conjugation of the future with //will// (//work//)

	Affirmative	Affirmative Short form	Negative		Interrogative
	Long form		Long form	Negative Short form	
I	will work	'll work	will not work	won't work	Will I work?
You	will work	'll work	will not work	won't work	Will you work?
He/She/It	will work	ʻll work	will not work	won't work	Will he work?
We	will work	ʻll work	will not work	won't work	Will we work?
You	will work	ʻll work	will not work	won't work	Will you work?
They	will work	ʻll work	will not work	won't work	Will they work?

We use will:

1) To speak about future actions which do not depend on our will (Cat. voluntat):

- It will rain all the week (Cat. Plourà tota la setmana).
- Mrs Green *will give* a speech during tomorrow's meal (Cat. La Sra Green farà un discurs durant el dinar de demà).
- *Will* you *come* to work at the weekend? (Cat. Vindràs a treballar el cap de setmana?).
- I will be 65 next year (Cat. Faré 65 anys l'any que ve).

2) To make predictions for the future:

See grammar section in Unit 2 section 3 for the conjugation of *will* and further information about the modal verbs.

- One day, we *will work* from home (Cat. Un dia treballarem des de casa).
- The offices will close down (Cat. Les oficines es tancaran).
- I think that I will talk to Mr Harris (Cat. Crec que parlaré amb el Sr Harris).
- I'm sure that you *will get* well very soon (Cat. Estic segur que et recuperaràs molt aviat).

Predictions

To make a prediction means to say what you think will happen in the future. For this reason, many predictions begin with expressions like:

- *I think that...* (Cat. Crec que...)
- I'm sure that... (Cat. Estic segur que...)
- *I'm convinced that...* (Cat. Estic convençut que...)
- *I believe that...* (Cat. Crec que...)
- I guess that... (Cat. M'imagino/Suposo que...)

When we use any of these expressions, we must use will. For example:

- *I think that I will stay at home tonight* (Cat. Crec que em quedaré a casa aquesta nit).
- *I'm convinced that everything will get better* (Cat. Estic convençut que tot anirà millor).
- *I guess I will have to go, won't I?* (Cat. Suposo que hauré de marxar, oi que sí?).

3) To make requests, offers and promises:

- *Will* you please *come* immediately? (a request) (Cat. Pots venir de seguida si us plau?).
- Don't worry your English. I *will speak* to Mr Thomson (an offer) (Cat. No et preocupis pel teu anglès. Ja parlaré jo amb el Sr Thomas).
- I won't help you again (a promise) (Cat. No et tornaré a ajudar).

4) To express a conditional sentence:

- If you write a good CV, you *will find* a job (Cat. Si redactes un bon currículum, trobaràs una feina).
- If you learn English, you *will have* more opportunities (Cat. Si aprens anglès, tindràs més oportiunitats).
- If we have a meeting this evening, I *won't be able to* go (Cat. Si tenim una reunió aquest vespre, jo no podré anar-hi).

See grammar section in section 3 of this unit for further information about the conditional sentences.

1.1.2 Plans and intentions: 'be going to'

Here are the forms of the future with *be going to*:

TAULA 1.2. Conjugation of the past continuous (//work//)

	Affirmative Long form	Affirmative Short form	Negative Long form	Negative Short form	Interrogative
I	am going to work	'm going to work	am not going to work	'm not going to work	am I going to work?
you	are going to work	're going to work	are not going to work	aren't going to work	are you going to work?
he/she/it	is going to work	's going to work	is not going to work	isn't going to work	is he going to work?
we	are going to work	're going to work	are not going to work	aren't going to work	are we going to work?
you	are going to work	're going to work	are not going to work	aren't going to work	are you going to work?
they	are going to work	're going to work	are not going to work	aren't going to work	are they going to work?

We use *be going to* in these cases:

- 1) To express a future event which is planned or decided:
 - I *am going to join* an international organization (Cat. M'apuntaré a una organització internacional).
 - He is going to look for a job (Cat. Buscarà feina).
 - We *are going to take* this woman to hospital (Cat. Anem a portar aquesta dona a l'hospital).
 - They *are going to (go to)* France next year (Cat. L'any que ve aniran a França).

2) To express an event in the near future based on a present evidence:

- Look at his face! He *is going to explode* (Cat. Fixa't en la seva cara! Està a punt d'explotar).
- You're working too much. You *are going to fall* ill (Cat. Treballes massa. Et posaràs malalt).

1.1.3 Other ways of expressing the future

Sometimes, we can express plans and intentions with the **present continuous** tense. In this case, the context must clearly indicate that we are speaking about the future. For example:

When we conjugate the verb go in the be going to-form, we usually eliminate the infinitive. We can say: I'm going to go to work, but we usually say: I'm going to work.

- I *am attending* an international fair next year (Cat. L'any que ve aniré a una fira internacional).
- He is working until 11 tonight (Cat. Aquesta nit treballa fins a les 11).
- We must go. We *are taking* a bus in three minutes (Cat. Hem de marxar. D'aquí a tres minuts agafem un autobús).

When we speak of events in timetables, schedules, etc., we can use the **present simple** to speak about future events, just as we do in Spanish or Catalan. Again, it is necessary to include a time adverbial referring to the future. For example:

- My train *leaves* at four tomorrow (Cat. El meu tren surt a les quatre demà).
- We *start* at 10 next Monday, don't we? (Cat. El dilluns que ve comencem a les 10, no?).

Adverbs and adverbials of time used with the future forms

Some adverbs and time expressions that we normally use with the future tenses are:

- Tomorrow (Cat. demà)
- The day after tomorrow (Cat. demà passat)
- Next week/month/year, etc. (Cat. la setmana que ve, el mes que ve, l'any que ve, etc.)
- In the future (Cat. en el futur)
- Tonight (Cat. aquesta nit)
- This evening, etc. (Cat. aquest vespre, etc.)
- One day (Cat. un dia)
- In a moment (Cat. d'aquí a un moment)

We can place these adverbs and adverbials at the end or at the beginning of the sentence, so we can say:

- I will tell you *tomorrow*.
- Tomorrow I will tell you.

When we place the adverb at the beginning, we emphasize the time; when we place it at the end, we emphasize the action.

1.2 Communication

In our daily and working lives, we very often need to follow instructions to do some specific things. Many products come with a manual, which contains the instructions to operate, instal or assemble (Cat. muntar) a product or a device. Sometimes we may also need to give instructions. For example, we can give instructions to teach how to operate a machine, when we give someone a recipe (Cat. recepta de cuina) or when we need someone to behave in a specific way.

Giving directions (Cat. donar indicacions) is a very common example of instructions. We give directions when we want someone to find or go to a specific place. To give directions, we need to use specific words and expressions.

1.2.1 Giving instructions

The most common way of giving instructions is with the *imperative* (Cat. imperatiu) form of the verb.

The imperative

The imperative is used to give orders and instructions. These are the characteristics of this form:

- It is the same as the base form of the verb (*work!*).
- The imperative sentences do not have a subject (the implicit subject is *you*, but we never say it).
- The negative form is with *do not* (*don't*) in front of the verb (*don't work*).
- In writing, we normally write an exclamation mark (!) at the end of the sentence.

Here are some examples with the imperative form::

- Go! (Cat. vés-te'n! / aneu-vos-en / vagi-se'n! / vagin-se'n!).
- Don't smoke! (Cat. no fumis! / no fumeu! / no fumi! / no fumin!).

In the following example, we give instructions to write and send an e-mail. The imperative forms are in bold type (Cat. negreta).

Giving instructions (verbs)

First of all, **locate** your e-mail program (Outlook, G-Mail, Thunderbird, etc.) in your computer. **Click** on the icon to run the program and a text editor will appear. **Type** the receiver's address in the word field called "To..." and next **type** the subject of your message in the

In oral instructions, we should also use the appropriate connectors, especially the connectors that are used to list ideas. Notice the connectors in the text (in bold type):

Giving instructions (connectors)

First of all, locate your e-mail program (Outlook, G-Mail, Thunderbird, etc.) in your computer. Click on the icon to run the program and a text editor will appear. Type the receiver's address in the word field called 'To...' and **next** type the subject of your message in the corresponding field. **After this**, write the text of your message in the text editor. **When you finish**, review the spelling and check the text for possible mistakes. **Finally**, click on the button 'Send' and the message will reach its destination in a few seconds.

In written instructions, we can write the sentences in a list:

Written instructions

To write and send an e-mail:

- 1. Locate your e-mail program (Outlook, G-Mail, Thunderbird, etc.) in your computer.
- 2. Click on the icon to run the program and a text editor will appear.
- 3. Type the receiver's address in the word field called 'To...'.
- 4. Type the subject of your message in the corresponding field.
- 5. Write the text of your message in the text editor.
- 6. Review the spelling and check the text for possible mistakes.
- 7. Click on the button 'Send'.

Sometimes, the other person may interpret the instructions as orders, especially if we use the wrong tone of voice (remember that the imperative is used to give orders and instructions). To avoid misinterpretations, we can use the modal verbs *should* or *can* to give instructions.

In the following text, we have used modal verbs to give instructions (modal verbs are in bold type):

Giving instructions (with modal verbs)

First of all, you **should** locate your e-mail program (Outlook, G-Mail, Thunderbird, etc.) in your computer. Then you **should** click on the icon to run the program and a text editor will appear. Now you **can** type the receiver's address in the word field called 'To...' and the subject of your message in the corresponding field. After this, you **can** write the text of your message in the text editor. When you finish, you **should** review the spelling and check the text for possible mistakes. Finally, you **should** click on the button 'Send' and the message will reach its destination in a few seconds.

The use of the modal verb must is not appropriate to give instructions. This verb expresses 'obligation' and instructions are not obligatory. However, we can use *must* to give orders because orders are obligatory.

See Unit 1, section 2 'Communication' for more information about connectors.

1.2.2 Giving directions

Giving directions means to explain someone the way to a certain place. We can ask for directions with these questions:

- *How can I go to...?* (Cat. Com puc anar a...?)
- Can you tell me the way to ...? (Cat. Em pot indicar el camí per anar a...?)

Directions, direction and address

These three words are sometimes confusing, especially for a Spanish speaker. Mistakes in their use are common. Here is the difference:

- **Directions** (Cat. orientacions, indicacions): always in plural; a synonym of 'instructions' (for example: *I'll give you directions to do the exam*).
- **Direction** (Cat. direcció): the term refers to a course taken in relation to a reference point (for example: *We're going in the wrong direction*).
- Address (Cat. adreça): the place where a building is located (for example: *my address is 23, Green St.*).

Some verbs commonly used to give directions are:

- Walk (Cat. caminar)
- Turn (Cat. girar)
- Take (Cat. prendre, agafar)
- Go along (Cat. anar per)
- Go across (Cat. travessar)
- Go past (Cat. passa per davant de)

Here are some expressions for giving directions:

- *Turn (first/second...) left/right* (Cat. Gira pel [primer/segon...] carrer a l'esquerra/dreta).
- *Turn left/right at the traffic lights* (Cat. Gira a l'esquerra/dreta quan arribis al semàfor).
- Turn left/right into Green St. (Cat. Gira a l'esquerra/dreta per Green St.).
- Go straight ahead/on (Cat. Ves recte).
- Go along this street (Cat. Ves per aquest carrer).

- You will go past a bank (Cat. Passaràs per un banc).
- *Take the (first/second...) street on the left/right* (Cat. Agafa el [primer/segon...] carrer a l'esquerra/dreta).

The expressions go straight ahead and go along are often confused:

- *Straight ahead* is an adverb that indicates the direction of the movement: we must not say the name of the street with this expression. It is wrong to say: *Go straight ahead Green St. and turn left*. We must say: *Go straight ahead and turn left*.
- *Along* is a preposition, so we must use a noun. It is wrong to say: *Go along and turn left*. We must say: *Go along Green St. and turn left*.

To give directions, we must be as clear as possible. The sentences must be short and very simple, so do not give long and detailed information. The words and expressions must be appropriate to the context. The normal pattern is: first, explain the way to the place; next, say the exact location by using the appropriate prepositions and reference points (for example: *opposite a park*). We generally use the imperative form or the modal verb *should* (but not *must*, for the reason explained in the side note in this section). We can combine the imperative with the future form (with *will*): *you will go past a bank*, *you will see a park*, etc.

A frequent mistake when giving directions is the wrong use of the preposition *until* (Cat. fins a). This is a preposition of time, so it is wrong to say: *until the traffic lights*. We must say: *until you come to the traffic lights*.

Indicating the location

To give directions, it is sometimes useful to indicate the location of buildings and other reference points. To indicate the location, we must use the appropriate prepositions of place. Here are some useful expressions:

- On the left/right (Cat. A l'esquerra/dreta)
- In Green St. (Cat. A Green St.)
- *On the corner of Green St. and Oak St.* (Cat. A la cantonada de Green St. i Oak St.)
- Next to a hotel (Cat. Al costat d'un hotel)
- *Opposite the park* (Cat. Davant del park)
- Across the street (Cat. A l'altra banda del carrer)
- Between the bookshop and a bank (Cat. Entre la llibreria i un banc)
- Around the corner (Cat. al girar la cantonada)

When we say the name of the street, we do not include the article *the*. It is wrong to say: Go along the Green St. or It is in the Green St., but we can use the article when the name is 'Main St.': Go along the Main St., It is in the Main St.

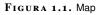
The names of the streets

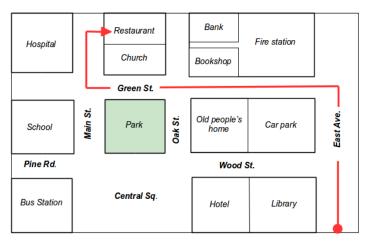
In the written form (for example, in maps and addresses), we may find the following abbreviations:

- St. : street
- Rd. : road
- Sq. : square
- Ave. : avenue
- Blvd. : boulevard

These abbreviations are always placed after the proper name: *Green St.*, *Central Sq.*, etc.

In the following dialogue, one person is giving directions (see map for reference):





Giving directions:

A: Excuse me, how can I go to the restaurant?

B: The restaurant? Well, go along this street and turn second left. That's Green Street. Go straight ahead, cross Oak Street and then turn right into the Main Street. Go past a church on the right and the restaurant is right there, next to the church.

2. Caregivers

"We are all here to be a service to those who can't be a service to themselves. We can give people hope and more reasons for being human.", Dionne Warwick

In some countries, caregivers must receive formal training and pass a competency test in areas such as personal hygiene, safe transfer techniques, reading and recording vital signs, infection control, and basic nutrition in order to qualify to work for certified personal care service agencies.

Caregivers sometimes work on a freelance basis, taken on directly by the family that needs assistance. They can also work for a larger staff network of care providers, or they are employed by a private, government-operated or communitybased organization. They can have only one patient or a group of them. Some will work with patients with long-term care needs, while others may help hospital patients who have relatively shor-term needs.

In some countries, a careers right movement has developed asking for better conditions. They claim that there is not a program to offer them the adequate wages for the often very intense and physically demanding work. The truth is that nowadays most home care is still informal, provided by family and friends.

Case studies

When you take care of a patient, you should write comments on the state of the patient and the personal care that the person requires. Here you can see a case study:

1. Name: Mrs Globe

2. Date: 30 June 20xx

3. Mobility

Disabilities: she has arthritis in the knees

Aids: walking frame

Remarks: Needs to be encouraged to move around the house

4. Communication

Disabilities: has difficulty hearing

Aids: hearing aid

Remarks: encourage to wear hearing aid, and check if the volume is set correctly.

5. Medical issues

History: has high blood pressure

Medication: blood pressure tablets

Continence: has some problems with continence.

6. Diet and weight

Special diet: low cholesterol, low sodium

Food preferences: doesn't like vegetables

Remarks: she should be encouraged to eat a more varied diet.

Language notes

Formal training: (Cat. formació reglada) Education in the formal learning system.

safe transfer techniques: (Cat. tècniques de transferència segures) Methods to transfer people, for example from bed to wheelchair.

On a freelance basis: (Cat. com a autònom) Working as a freelance, self-employed.

Network: (Cat. xarxa) Structure of group of people in an organization.

Wages: (Cat. salary) Payment for labour or services to a worker.

Needs to be encouraged: (Cat. cal fomentar) Someone that needs someone to tell him/her to do something because it is better for him/her.

Blood pressure tablets: (Cat. pastilles per la pressió) Medication against high blood pressure.

Storyline

Thomas: "Céline, this is my wife, Linda."

Céline: "Pleased to meet you."

Linda: "Pleased to meet you too. Thank you for coming to the interview-"

Céline: "You're welcome."

Thomas: "Céline, you have already met my parents. My mum has Alzheimer, and my dad is affected by dementia. They both have memory losses and they need assistance."

Céline: "How old are they?"

Thomas: "My mum is 71 and my dad is 76."

Linda: "In your CV you say that you have experience taking care of elders. Could you tell me more about it?"

Céline: "Certainly. I worked in Badalona for six months. I took care of an old lady. She had restricted mobility. She was on a wheelchair and I had to assist her in her daily routines. I helped her to bathe and to dress. She had an adapted chair and a grab bar in the bath. She was a bit shy, and she wanted to do everything alone. She wanted to be independent."

Thomas: "I see, she's like my dad. He loves being independent."

Linda: "I can see that you are from Barcelona. How long are you going to stay in UK?

Céline: "I haven't decided it yet."

Thomas: "How much do you expect to get paid?"

Céline: "Well, I've done research, and caregivers get a salary of about 1600 pounds, but I can be flexible. What is your budget?

Thomas: 1600 pounds is ok. You're hired!"

A subornidate clause (Cat. oració subordinada) is a part of the sentence that has no meaning of its own. Its meaning depends on the main clause (Cat. oració principal).

2.1 Grammar

The comparative and superlative sentences are those which are used to compare two or more things. To make comparisons, we must use an adjective (a word which tells a quality or characteristic of a noun) or an adverb (a word which tells how an action is done). In comparative and superlative sentences, both adjectives and adverbs sometimes take a special form, which is called the *comparative form*.

On the other hand, the relative clauses are subordinate clauses that we can add to a sentence to speak about the characteristics of a noun. In this sense, they are similar to adjectives. All the relative clauses are introduced by a *relative pronoun*. This pronoun refers to a noun, called the *antecedent*, of which we say or explain something. The relative clauses are often used to describe things.

2.1.1 The comparative sentences

The comparative sentences are used to compare two things. There are three types of comparative sentences: *comparative sentences of superiority, comparative sentences of equality* and *comparative sentences of inferiority*.

Comparative sentences of superiority

In these sentences, we say that one thing is more than another. To express the comparison, the adjective and the adverb take the comparative form, which depends on the type of adjective or adverb. The following tables show the comparative forms of superiority for adjectives and adverbs:

Adjectives:

TAULA 2.1. comparative forms of superiority (adjectives)

Type of word	Comparative form	Examples
One-syllable adjectives	-ER	<i>big > bigger</i> (Cat. gran > més gran)
Two-syllable adjectives ending in -y	-IER	<i>happy > happier</i> (Cat. feliç > més feliç)
Other adjectives	MORE + adjective	intelligent > more intelligent (Cat. intel·ligent > més intel·ligent)
Irregular adjectives		<i>good > better</i> (Cat. bo > millor)
		<i>bad > worse</i> (Cat. dolent > pitjor)

Adverbs:

TAULA	2.2.	comparative	forms of	superiority	(adverbs)
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Type of word	Comparative form	Examples
Adverbs ending in -ly	MORE + adverb	<i>easily > more easily</i> (Cat. fàcilment > més fàcilment)
Other adverbs	-ER	late > later (Cat. tard > més tard)
Irregular adverbs		well > better (Cat. bé > millor)
		<i>badly > worse</i> (Cat. malament > pitjor)
		<i>far > further</i> (Cat. lluny > més lluny)

In the comparative sentences of superiority, the two elements of the comparison are separated by the conjunction *than* (Cat. que). Here are some comparative sentences:

- The English grammar is *easier than* the French grammar (Cat. La gramàtica anglesa és més fàcil que la gramàtica francesa)
- But the English pronunciation is usually *more difficult than* the French pronunciation (Cat. Però la pronunciació anglesa és normalment més difícil que la pronunciació francesa)
- Running is certainly *better than* smoking (Cat. Córrer és certament millor que fumar)
- Nowadays we can send a message much *more quickly than* before (Cat. Avui en dia podem enviar un missatge molt més ràpidament que abans)
- Cats usually run *faster than* dogs, don't they? (Cat. Els gats normalment córren més de presa que els gossos, no?)

Sometimes it is not necessary to include the two terms of the comparison in the same sentence. For example:

- Which is *better* -the red one or the blue one? (Cat. Quin és millor el vermell o el blau?)
- I think I'll take a beefsteak although it's *more expensive* (Cat. Em sembla que em prendré el filet encara que sigui més car)
- If you ask for somebody's help, you will can do the job *more easily* (Cat, Si demanes que algú t'ajudi, podràs fer la feina amb més facilitat)

Comparative sentences of equality

The comparative sentences of equality are used to indicate that two things are on equal terms. We express the comparison of equality like this:

• Affirmative statements: ...AS + adjective/adverb + AS...

• Negative statements: ...(NOT) SO + adjective/adverb + AS...

Here are a few examples:

- The son is *as nice as* the father (Cat. El fill és tan agradable com el pare)
- You can do it *as easily as* a child (Cat. Ho pots fer tan fàcilment com un nen)
- Working too much is *as bad as* doing nothin (Cat. Treballar massa és tan dolent com no fer res)
- The speech was *not so good as* I expected (Cat. El discurs no va ser tan bo com jo esperava)
- We did*n't* finish *so early as* you had promised (Cat. No vam acabar tan d'hora com m'havies promès)

Comparative sentences of inferiority

This type of comparative sentence is used to say that one thing is less than another. To separate the two terms of the comparison, we use *than*, like in the comparatives of superiority. We form the comparative sentences of inferiority like this:

• ...LESS + adjective/adverb + (THAN)...

Examples:

- This programme is *less difficult than* I thought (Cat. Aquest programa és menys difícil del que em pensava)
- With the economical crisis, we are *less rich* everyday (Cat. Amb la crisi econòmica, cada vegada som menys rics)
- I think the new CEO is *less intelligent than* the previous one (Cat. Crec que el nou president és menys intel·ligent que l'anterior)
- I would invest in a developed country. It's *less risky than* investing in developing countries (Cat. Jo invertiria en un pais desenvolupat. És menys arriscat que invertir en països en vies de desenvolupament)

Note: the comparative of inferiority is not very much used; when we need to establish a comparison, we tend to use the comparative of superiority.

2.1.2 The superlative sentences

The superlative sentences are used to compare one thing with all the others. As in the comparative forms of superiority, the adjectives and adverbs take a special form called the *superlative form*. The following tables show the superlative forms of adjectives and adverbs:

Adjectives:

TAULA 2.3. superlative forms (adjectives)

Type of word	Superlative form	Examples
One-syllable adjectives	THE -EST	<i>big > the biggest</i> (Cat. gran > el més gran)
Two-syllable adjectives ending in -y	THE -IEST	<i>happy > the happiest</i> (Cat. feliç > el més feliç)
Other adjectives	THE MOST + adjective	intelligent > the most intelligent (Cat. intel·ligent > el més intel·ligent)
Irregular adjectives		<i>good > the best</i> (Cat. bo > el millor)
		<i>bad > the worst</i> (Cat. dolent > el pitjor)

Note: one-syllable adjectives with a vowel + a consonant double the consonant when we add the ending -est: *big > the biggest, thin > the thinnest, fat > the fattest, mad > the maddest, red > the reddest,* etc

Adverbs:

 $T_{AULA} \text{ 2.4. superlative forms (adverbs)}$

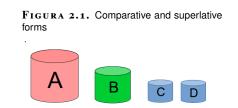
Type of word	Superlative form	Examples
Adverbs ending in -ly	THE MOST + adverb	<i>easily > most easily</i> (Cat. fàcilment > el més fàcilment)
Other adverbs	THE -EST	<i>late > the latest</i> (Cat. tard > el més tard)
Irregular adverbs		well > the best (Cat. bé > el millor)
		<i>badly > the worst</i> (Cat. malament > el pitjor)
		<i>far > the furthest</i> (Cat. lluny > el més lluny)

Here are some examples of superlative sentences:

- Microsoft is one of *the most important* companies in the world (Cat. Apple és una de les empreses més importants del món)
- And Bill Gates is one of *the richest* people (Cat. I Bill Gates és una de les persones més riques)
- Talking to the manager was *the worst thing* you could do (Cat. Parlar amb el director és el pitjor que podies fer)
- Do it *the best* you can (Cat. Fes-ho el millor que puguis)
- She went *the furthest* she could go (Cat. Va anar el més lluny que va poder anar)

Summary of the comparative and the superlative sentences

We are going to compare the four boxes in the picture below in terms of size. To speak about the size of an object, we can use the adjectives *big* and *small*:



Now read these comparative and superlative sentences:

- Box A is bigger than boxes B, C and D.
- Box A is the biggest of the four.
- Box B is smaller than box A, but it's bigger than boxes C and D.
- Box C is as big/small as box D
- Box D is as big/small as box C
- Boxes C and D are smaller than boxes A and B
- Boxes C and D are the smallest of the four.

2.1.3 The relative clauses

The relative clauses are used to explain the characteristics of a noun. This noun is called the *antecedent* and it usually appears immediately before the relative clause. Here are some examples of relative sentences (the relative clause is in italics):

- I haven't sent the mail *that I've written in the morning* (Cat. No he enviat el mail que he escrit aquest matí)
- The restaurant *where we met is no longer there* (Cat. El restaurant on ens vam conèixer ja no hi és)
- Where's the person *who was waiting for me?* (Cat. On és la persona que m'estava esperant?)
- A job interview is the moment *in which you can explain your skills* (Cat. L'entrevista és el moment en el qual pots explicar les teves habilitats)

Now let's see the elements of a relative sentence. The following sentence will serve as an example: *We need a person who speaks English and German*.

• The main clause: We need a person...

- The relative clause: ... who speaks English and German.
- The relative pronoun: ...*who*...

The relative pronouns

The relative pronouns depend both on the noun it refers to (the antecedent) and on its function in the relative clause. Here is a list of the relative pronouns and their use:

 $T_{\rm AULA}$ 2.5. The relative pronouns

Relative pronoun	It is used when
that	the antecedent is a person or a thing and it is the subject or an object of the relative clause
who	the antecedent is a person and it is the subject of the relative clause
whom	the antecedent is a person and it is an object of the relative clause
which	the antecedent is a thing and it is the subject or an object of the relative clause
whose	the antecedent is a person or a thing and it has the function of a possessive adjective
where	the antecedent is a thing denoting a place and it is an adverbial of place in the relative sentence
when	the antecedent is a thing denoting time and it is an adverbial of time in the relative sentence
why	the antecedent is the word <i>reason</i> (Cat. raó) and the relative sentence explains the reason of the main clause

As you can see, all the relative pronouns (except *that*) are the same as the interrogative pronouns.

You should know the following things about the relative pronouns:

- 1. The pronoun *that* can be used instead of *who* and *which*. It is mostly used in the spoken language.
- 2. *Whom* is only used in the formal written language. In speech, we normally say *that* or *who*.
- 3. Which can have a preposition (in which, for which, about which, etc.).
- 4. As *whose* has the function of a possessive adjective, it must go before a noun.
- 5. The antecedent *reason* is often omitted from the main clause: *This is (the reason) why I didn't go*

Omission of the relative pronoun

In speech, we often omit the relative pronouns *that*, *whom* (*who* in informal style) and *which*, but only when they are the object of the relative clause. For example:

- This is the book that I bought or This is the book I bought
- Sarah is the girl whom I called last night or Sarah is the girl I called last night
- The video which we recorded has been lost or The video we recorded has been lost

However, we cannot omit the relative pronoun in these sentences because it is the subject of the relative clause:

- That's the book that became so famous last season
- Sarah is the girl who called last night
- Here's the video which explains how to deal with conflicts at work

Types of relative clauses

We can distinguish two types of relative clauses:

1) Defining relative clauses: these clauses define or identify a noun. For example:

- The people who live next door are the Simpsons (Cat. La gent que viu a la porta del costat son els Simpson)
- Paris is a city which lies on the river Seine (Cat. París és una ciutat que està a la vora del riu Sena)
- That was the summer when we travelled to Austria (Cat. Aquest va ser l'estiu en que van anar a Àustria)

2) *Non-defining relative clauses*: these clauses do not define or classify, but only add some extra information about the noun. It is mostly used in the written language, always between commas (or in brackets). Here are some examples:

- Mr Branson, who has no experience, made many mistakes (Cat. Mr Branson, que no té gens d'experiència, va cometre molts errors)
- They say that sake, which I've never tasted, is quite a strong drink (Cat. Diuen que el sake, que jo no he provat mai, és una beguda bastant forta)
- Toronto, where I was in 1984, has grown a lot (Cat. Toronto, on jo vaig estar l'any 1984, ha crescut molt)

2.2 Communication

When looking for a job, it is essential to write a good curriculum vitae (or CV). The CV is called *resumé* (with the graphical accent) in American English. As part of the job searching procedure, it will also be necessary to write a cover letter, which usually accompanies the CV. Both the CV and the cover letter say a lot of things about the writer, so in order to cause a good impression on your potential employer, it is necessary to be very accurate and follow the conventions of this type of texts.

The final and most important stage in the job search is the interview, where you must show your oral skills and control your body language. The job interviews are often carried out in English, even if you are applying for a job in your own country, because a knowledge of English is one of the most important skills for many jobs.

2.2.1 Writing a curriculum vitae

You have probably learned that we must not judge people on first impressions. However, when an employer looks at a curriculm vitae (CV), he does precisely that: to judge a person on the first impression produced by the CV, without even knowing the candidate personally.

This is the reason why you should be very careful when you write a CV. It must convince the employer that you are the appropriate candidate for the job. With hundreds of other CVs waiting for an opportunity, the most important thing is that your own CV attracts the employer's attention. However, to attract the employer's attention does not mean to write your CV in a variety of colours and/or spectacular font types. This will only distract the reader from the important information. Instead, you should use a conventional format and organize your information clearly.

There are many different models, but the basic elements of all the CVs are:

- **Contact information:** your name and surnames should be prominent (usually centered and in bold type). Add your telephone number, your address and your e-mail address.
- Work experience: your relevant job experience should be listed chronologically, starting with your most recent job. For each job, you should mention the company and your job position.
- **Skills:** this section summarizes your personal skills and relevant achievements for the job. Here you should include your language and computer skills.

Curriculum vitae vs. resumé

The term *curriculum vitae* (or CV) is mostly used in BrE whereas AmE prefers the term *resumé* (spelt with the graphical accent).

• Education: you must list your degrees, the school where you obtained them and the years you were in that school in reverse chronological order.

You may also include any additional information that you think is important for the job (for example, courses you have attended). Except for the contact information, you must include the title of each section, in bold type or capital letters.

Here is a list of things that should not appear in a CV:

- Errors: making grammatical and/or spelling mistakes in a CV is the worst thing that can happen to a candidate for a job. The employer will immediately relate the mistakes to the candidate's carelessness and he/she will be obviously discarded.
- **Salary:** do not include your current salary or that which you expect to earn. Salary negotiations usually take place during the interview.
- **Irrelevant information:** you should only include the information that is relevant for the job and that can benefit your interests. For example, do not include an average mark in a course if it is not a good one or hobbies that have nothing to do with the job.

If you have little or no work experience, you can list your school and social activities and link them to the job you are applying for.

2.2.2 Writing a cover letter

A CV should always go with a cover letter. A cover letter is a formal letter where you explain why you are the ideal candidate for the job. Cover letters have no special format. They follow standards applied to all the other formal letters.

In a cover letter, you should include the most relevant aspects of your experience and education for the post. To do that, you must select the aspects from the CV that can contribute to raise the company's interest in your application.

Here are some useful expressions which you can use in a cover letter:

- *I am writing to you in response to your advertisement for the post of...* (Cat. Li escric en resposta al seu anunci per a la feina de...)
- As you can see from my enclosed CV, my experience and qualifications match this position's requirements (Cat. Com pot veure al currículum que adjunto, la meva experiència i qualificacions es corresponen amb els requisits de la feina).
- I would like to point out that... (Cat. Voldria indicar que...)
- *I look forward to an opportunity to speak with you in person* (Cat. Espero tenir l'oportunitat de parlar amb vosté personalment).

Equivalence between the academic degrees in the Spanish and the British school systems

The Spanish and the British academic degrees belong to different school systems. Therefore, it is not possible to make a literal translation of your degrees. We must find the equivalent degree in the foreign school system.

The following table shows the equivalence between the Spanish and the British academic degrees.

TAULA 2.6. Academic degrees

Spanish school system	Brititsh school system
Educació Primària / Educació General Bàsica (EGB)	Primary Education
Educació Secundària Obligatoria (ESO) / Batxillerat Unificat Polivalent (BUP)	General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE)
Batxillerat / Curs d'Orientació Universitària (COU)	General Certificate of Education (GCE)
Cicle Formatiu de Grau Mitjà (CFGM) / Formació Professional de Primer Grau (FPI)	Vocational Education and Training (VET)
Cicle Formatiu de Grau Superior (CFGS) / Formació Professional de Segon Grau (FPII)	Certificate of Higher Education (HNC)
Diplomatura (3 anys)	Bachelor's Degree (B)
Llicenciatura / Grau	University Degree
Enginyeria Tècnica	Diploma of Higher Education (DipHE)
Enginyeria Superior	Engineer's Degree / Engineer Diploma (DI)
Postgrau (de 30 a 60 crèdits ECTS)	Graduate Certificate (PGCert)
Màster (de 60 a 120 crèdits ECTS)	Master's Degree (M)
Doctorat	Doctorate (PhD)

You can use a general term to describe the vocational studies. For example:

- Business Administration and Finance (Cat. Administració i finances)
- Secretarial Studies (Cat. Secretariat / Assistència a la direcció)
- Commerce (Cat. Gestió Comercial / Gestió de vendes)
- · International Commerce (Cat. Comerç Internacional)

2.2.3 Preparing your job interview

If the employer has considered your CV, he/she will call you for the job interview. This is the time when you meet the employer so he/she can find out more things about you. The interview may take place in a face to face meeting or online via Skype or any other videoconference program. In any case, the interviewer will ask you about your experience and qualifications, and you will also need to show your skills for the job.

Here are some tips to help you before going to a job interview.

At work

1. Prepare your answers in advance. Think about the questions they employers frequently ask in a job interview and prepare your answers in advance.

Some frequent questions in job interviews

These are commonly-asked questions in job interviews:

- What can you say about yourself?
- Why do you think you are good for this job?
- What are your weaknesses?
- Why do you want to work in our company?
- What salary do you expect to earn?
- What are your motivations?
- What makes a good team, according to you?
- Have you got any questions?

2. Make some research. Before going to the interview, look at the potential employer's website and check the company's details. Having the information will help you in the interview.

3. Have a good appearance. First impressions are very important, so make sure that you wear smart clothes and have a nice appearance.

4. Be ready. Try to get to the interview with plenty of time. If you get late, you will be doubly stressed and, besides, it will cause a very bad impression. Make sure that you have everything that you need: notebook, pen and a copy of your CV.

5. Show your good character. Although you will probably feel nervous, try to smile all the time. This will help you feel more relaxed and will give a good impression. Make sure that you look your interviewer directly in the eye, and concentrate on what he/she is saying.

6. Ask questions. Do not tell the interviewer that you do not have any questions. You should prepare some questions in advance and be ready to ask them if they tell you so.

Here are some questions that you may safely ask in a job interview:

- Why do you need to fulfill this position?
- What are the objectives of this position?
- How do you expect to meet the objectives?
- What can I expect from you in terms of development and support?
- What do you do to create a good atmosphere at work?
- Are there any plans for expansion?
- What does the company expect from the employees?

7. Take notes. Taking notes will give the impression that you are paying attention and that you are very interested in what the interviewer is saying.

3. Looking for a job

"If you love the job, the job will love you."

Society has changed a lot over the last few years. Nowadays unemployment is a big problem, and some people decide to move to other countries in order to find a job. It is not easy, and it is necessary to do a lot of research.

There are three main steps to take when looking for a job: writing your CV or resume, writing a cover letter, and going to the job interview.

These are some hints to prepare your resume: Start your resume with a good objective statement that indicates your key competencies. Mention your qualifications which will be helpful to perform this job efficiently. List your work experience in reverse chronological order. If you do not have any relevant experience, include any position you occupied (internship or summer job, etc.) which might have some relevance to this position.

Here is an example:

Curriculum Vitae Name and surnames: Céline Garcia Torres Address: Av. Paral·lel, 71 08004 Barcelona Telephone Number: 666 222 333 Objective

To work in a position that will allow me to use my caregiving experience

Experience

· Elderly caregiver:

February-August 2014, Barcelona

- · Transferring patient from bed to wheelchair, to shower, to pool, etc., including lift transfers
- · Driving and wheelchair transportation
- · Dressing, bathing, finding solutions to problems caused by incontinence
- · Administering oral medication according to the doctor's prescription
- Assisting with the paperwork
- · Caregiver for Alzheimer patient:

January 2008-September 2012, Badalona

In the "Interesting links" section you will find some webpages with information about jobs in the UK.

- · Supported walking, monitoring symptoms of the disease
- · Following exercise programme
- · Administration of medication under direction of nurse
- · Household duties and maintenance, preparing meals
- · Care assistant at retirement home:

June 2002-November 2007, "Llar d'Avis" (retirement home), Barcelona

- · Took part in an innovative programme to helping older adults to remain independent
- · Recreational activities
- Performing duties for patients, such as changing bed linen, assisting in and out of bed, bathing, dressing and grooming
- · Administering oral medications under doctor's orders

Education

- · Certificate of Secondary Education (CSE) at "Institut Emperador Carles", Barcelona
- Certificate of vocational studies on social and health assistance ("Tècnic en assistència a les persones dependents"), at "Institut Obert de Catalunya" (IOC), (distance learning)

Skills

- · Driving license and reliable vehicle
- · Outstanding communication and interpersonal skills
- · Able to handle elderly and people with disabilities

Language notes

Unemployment: (Cat. atur) Situation in which a person does not have a job.

Hints: (Cat. consells, suggerències) Helpful suggestion.

Wheelchair: (Cat. cadira de rodes) A chair mounted on wheels for use by those who cannot walk.

Lift transfers: (Cat. aixecament (per exemple de malalts o persones amb discapacitat)) Transferring a patient from one place to the other (for example from bed to wheelchair).

Paperwork: (Cat. gestions de tràmits, papers) Dealing with official documents that are needed for something.

Disease: (Cat. malaltia) Sickness.

Household duties: (Cat. feines de la llar) Everyday work at a house.

Bed linen: (Cat. llençols) Cotton articles of a bed.

Storyline

Thomas: "I would like to propose you something."

Céline: "Tell me, Mr Marble."

Thomas: "Linda and me have decided to take some holidays in Costa Brava. We are very happy that you are here with us, and my parents and Annie are used to you. So, my question is... *Will you join* us *if we go* there?"

Céline: "Oh, that's a good idea! Of course I will come. I can tell you the places *where* you can rest and enjoy the weather."

Thomas: "That will be amazing! *If I had* time, I *would study* Catalan, but I only know some Spanish words."

Céline: "Don't worry, in Costa Brava there are a lot of people *who* speak English. And I can help you with the words *that* you don't understand.

Thomas: "And can you advise us on a place to stay?"

Céline: "There are good offers which include hotel and meals. We'll plan it.

Thomas: "Great! I'm looking forward to our holidays!"

3.1 Grammar

The conditional sentence is a type of complex sentence composed of a main clause and a subordinate clause. It expresses the action that takes place if a condition is fulfilled. The characteristics of the conditional sentences are these:

- The subordinate clause expresses the condition and the main clause describes the action that takes if the condition is fulfilled (the result).
- The subordinate clause (or conditional clause) is normally introduced by the word 'if' (Cat. si).

There are four types of conditional sentences:

- Zero-conditional: for example, *if you drop a stone, it falls* (Cat. si deixes anar una pedra, aquesta cau a terra).
- First conditional: for example, *if he comes, I will call you* (Cat. si ve, et trucaré).
- Second conditional: for example, *if he came, I would call you* (Cat. si vingués, et trucaria).
- Third conditional: for example, *if he had come, I would have called you* (Cat. si hagués vingut, t'hauria trucat).

In the present course, we are only going to study the first and the second conditionals, which are the most widely used forms. The first and the second conditionals have the same syntactical structure (because they are both conditional sentences), but there is a difference in the verb tenses and, obviously, in the meaning.

3.1.1 The first conditional

We use the first conditional to express real conditions. This means that, in the speaker's opinion, the situation will probably happen.

The structure of the first conditional sentences is the following:

• IF + SUBJECT + VERB (in present simple), SUBJECT + WILL + VERB (in the base form) + ...

Here are some examples of first conditional sentences:

- If you *don't save* your files, you *will lose* all your work (Cat. si no guardes als arxius, perdràs tota la feina).
- If you *practise* a lot, you *will speak* English fluently (Cat. si practiques molt, parlaràs anglès amb fluïdesa).
- If you *do* all the activities, you *will pass* the exam with no problems (Cat. si feu totes les activitats, aprovareu l'examen sense problemes).

Notes:

1) We can change the order of the main clause and the conditional clause without any change in the meaning, but we must write a comma if we put the conditional clause in the first place:

- If you practise a lot, you will speak English fluently.
- You will speak English fluently if you practise a lot.

2) Apart from 'will', we can use other modal verbs in the main clause of the first conditional sentences. For example:

- If you practise a lot, you *may* speak English fluently (Cat. si practiques molt, *és possible que* parlis anglès amb fluïdesa).
- If you *can* do it, I will be very grateful (Cat. si ho *pots* fer, estaré molt agraït).
- If he says anything, you *shouldn't* respond (Cat. si diu alguna cosa, tu *no hauries* de respondre).

3) In the main clause, we can also use the imperative form:

- If you notice a fire, *go out* immediately (Cat. si detectes foc, *surt* de seguida).
- If you have problems, please *tell* me (Cat. si tens problemes, si us plau *digues*-m'ho).

3.1.2 The second conditional

We use the second conditional to refer to unreal or hypothetical situations, or about conditions that are impossible that are fulfilled (for example: *if I were you..., if I were you..., if I were a dog...,* etc.), we must also use the second conditional.

The structure of the second conditional sentences is the following:

• IF + SUBJECT + VERB (in past simple), SUBJECT + WOULD + VERB (in the base form) + ...

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- If I *had* enough time, I *would go out* more (Cat. si tingués prou temps, sortiria més).
- If I *were* the director in this company, I *would raise* the workers' salaries (Cat. si jo fos el director d'aquesta empresa, apujaria el sou dels treballadors).
- If I *were* you, I *would be* more polite to customers (Cat. jo en el teu lloc seria més amable amb els clients).

Notes:

1) In the second conditional clauses, the form of the verb 'to be' is 'were'for all persons (*if I were you* ...). The form 'was' is not generally accepted, except in the informal spoken language, where it is possible to say: *If I was you* In most situations, however, the form is 'were'.

2) Apart from the verb is the past simple tense and the modal verb 'would', in the second conditional we can use some modal verbs, but they must refer to the past when the modal verb has time distinction:

- If I had enough time, I *could* go out more (Cat. si tingués prou temps, *podria* sortir més).
- If I were the director, I *might* rise the salaries (Cat. si fos el director, *podria ser que* pugés els salaris).
- If I *could* be you, I would be more polite (Cat. si jo *pogués* estar en el teu lloc, seria més amable).

The use of the first or second conditional sentence very often depends on the context or on the subjective perception of the speaker. Compare these sentences:

- First conditional: *if it rains tonight, I will stay at home* (Cat. si plou aquesta nit, em quedaré a casa). The meaning is: it is very cloudy, so it is very probable that it rains.
- Second conditional: *If it rained tonight, I would stay at home* (Cat. si plogués aquesta nit, em quedaria a casa). The meaning is: It is sunny now, so it is not probable that it rains, but there is a possibility.

3.2 Communication

In this section, we are going to study three common communicative situations: suggestions (Cat. suggeriments), advice (Cat. consells) and requests (Cat.

requeriments, peticions, demandes). Suggestions and advice are very similar and we can generally use them in the same situations. The speaker can be included in a suggestion *we*), for example, when you suggest doing something with other people; however, a piece of advice is always addressed to a second person (*you*). A request is a little different. In a request you ask other people to take specific actions.

We may need to use these three communicative tools in our daily and working lives because they are very common, so we should learn when and especially how to use them.

3.2.1 Making suggestions

Here are some ways of making and responding to suggestions

Making suggestions

There are different ways of making suggestions. They are all valid, but sometimes we may need to use a specific one rather than another. Here is a list of the verbs and expressions used to make suggestions, with their corresponding syntactical structures:

1) Suggest (Cat. suggerir). This verb has three different syntactical structures:

- SUGGEST + VERB in -ING: *I suggest speaking in English* (Cat. suggereixo parlar en anglès).
- SUGGEST + THAT-CLAUSE: *I suggest that we speak in English* (Cat. suggereixo que parlem en anglès).
- SUGGEST + NOUN: *I suggest a Japanese restaurant* (Cat. suggereixo un restaurant japonès).

suggest with indirect object

If you want to indicate the person whom the suggestion is addressed, you must use the structure to + object pronoun or the *that-clause*, and not the object pronoun. For example:

- I suggest a Japanese restaurant to you (Incorrect: I suggest you a Japanese restaurant)
- I suggest that you speak in English (Incorrect: I suggest you to speak in English)

2) Recommend (Cat. recomanar). We can use this verb in four ways:

• RECOMMEND + VERB IN -ING: *The doctors recommend walking one hour every day* (Cat. Els metges recomanen caminar una hora cada dia).

- RECOMMEND + INDIRECT OBJECT + TO + INFINITIVE: *I recommend you to go home* (Cat. Et recomano que vagis a casa).
- RECOMMEND + THAT-CLAUSE: *I recommend that you speak in English* (Cat. Et recomano que intentis parlar en anglès).
- RECOMMEND + NOUN: *She recommended a private teacher* (Cat. Ella va recomanar un professor particular).

3) Let's:

• LET'S + VERB (in the base form): *let's speak in English!* (Cat. anem a parlar en anglès!).

The form *let's* (=let us) is always written in the contracted form. It is used informally to make a suggestion the includes the speaker + one or more people.

4) What about...?:

• WHAT ABOUT + VERB in -ING...?: *what about speaking in English?* (Cat. què tal si parlem en anglès?).

5) Why don't you/we...?:

• WHY DON'T YOU/WE + VERB (in the base form)...?: *why dont we speak in English*? (Cat: per què no parlem en anglès?).

6) You/We can...:

• YOU/WE CAN + VERB (in the base form): *you can speak in English* (Cat. pots parlar en anglès).

7) You/We could...:

• YOU/WE COULD + VERB (in the base form): *you could speak in English* (Cat. podries parlar en anglès).

Responding to suggestions

We can respond to suggestions in different ways, which usually depend on whether we agree or disagree with the suggestion.

The following table shows different ways of responding to a suggestion.

When you disagree with a suggestion, the social etiquette requires to explain the reason of your disagreement:

- A: Why don't we go to a restaurant?
- B: No, we can't do that. We have no time and no money.

I'm afraid ...

If we disagree with a suggestion, we should use this expression. It is used to soften the negative idea and show that you are not angry.

TAULA 3.1. Responding to s	To agree	To disagree
	Yes, we could do that	at I'm afraid it's not a good idea
	Yes, that's a good id	lea I'm afraid we can't do that
	Ok, let's do that	I'd rather not
	Yes, why not?	No, we can't do that, I'm afraid
	Ok, that's great!	No, we shouldn't do that

3.2.2 Giving advice

As when making suggestions, we can give other people advice with a variety of verbs and expressions.

Giving advice

The noun 'advice' is uncountable in English. This means that it has no plural form and we cannot say the indeterminate article 'an' or the numeral 'one'. It's wrong to say: *I'll give you an advice*. We must say: *I'll give you advice*, *I'll give you some advice* or *I'll give you a piece or advice*.

The verb "advise" (Cat. aconsellar, donar consell). There are two different syntactical structures with this verb:

- ADVISE + GERUND
- ADVISE + INDIRECT OBJECT + TO + INFINITIVE

Examples:

- He advised getting up earlier (Cat. Va aconsellar llevar-se més d'hora).
- We advise you to see a doctor (Cat. T'aconsellem que vagis al metge).

Should. The modal verb 'should' is the most common way of giving advice in English. The correct structure is:

• SHOULD + INFINITIVE (without 'to')

Examples:

- You should work hard (Cat. Hauries de treballar molt).
- You should save money (Cat. Hauries d'estalviar diners).
- *He should go back to school* (Cat. Ell hauria de tornar a estudiar).

When we use 'should' to give advice, it is very common to add: I think (that) ...:

There is a difference in spelling between the noun (advice) (Cat. consell) and the verb (advise) (Cat. aconsellar). The pronunciation is also different: -*c*- sounds like /s/ and -*s*- sounds like /z/. See Annex 'Phonetic Alphabet' for a description of the sounds /s/ and /z/.

• I think that you should work hard (Cat. Crec que hauries de treballar molt).

Had better. The expression 'had better' is used when we want to give advice in a stronger way. The structure of this type of sentence is:

• HAD BETTER (NOT) + INFINITIVE

Examples:

- You had better work harder (Cat. És millor que treballis molt).
- We had better go (Cat. El millor és que marxem).
- He had better speak (Cat. El millor és que ell parli).

This expression is mostly used in informal spoken English, where 'had' is often contracted or is omitted:

- You'd better work harder or You better work harder
- We'd better go or We better go

'If I were you, ...'. This is a second conditional clause, so the correct structure is:

• IF I WERE YOU, + I + WOULD + INFINITIVE

Examples:

- *If I were you, I would work hard* (Cat. Si jo estigués en el teu lloc, treballaria molt).
- If I were you, I would save money (Cat. Jo, en el teu lloc, estalviaria diners).

Responding to advice

When responding to advice, we can decide to take the advice or we can reject it. In both cases, it is customary to thank the other person for his/her advice. If we decide to reject it, we should add some type of 'excuse'. Here is a short list of possible ways of responding to advice:

TAULA 3.2. Respon- ding to advice	To accept	To reject
-	Thank you, I'll do that	I'd rather not do that. Thanks anyway
	Good idea! Thank you	Thank you. but I'm afraid I can't do that
	Excellent! Thanks for your advice	Oh, no. That's not possible, I'm afraid

Here is an example of how to reject a piece of advice appropriately:

- A: If you want to improve your English, you should go to England
- B: Thank you, but I'm afraid I can't do that. Going to England is too expensive for me right now

3.2.3 Making requests

A request is very much like an order or command. In fact, an order is the strongest way of making a request. We make requests with a variety of modal verbs. Their choice depends on the degree of formality.

Making requests

In all these sentences, we make the same request (to open the window), but we use an increasing degree of formality:

- 1. Open the window! (Cat: Obre la finestra!)
- 2. Can you open the window? (Cat: Pots obrir la finestra [si us plau]?)
- 3. Could you open the window? (Cat: Podries obrir la finestra [si us plau]?)
- 4. Will you open the window? (Cat: Obriràs la finestra [si us plau]?)
- 5. Would you open the window? (Cat: Obriries la finestra [si us plau]?)
- 6. *Do you mind opening the window?* (Cat: T'importa obrir la finestra [si us plau]?)
- 7. *Would you mind opening the window?* (Cat: T'importaria obrir la finestra [si us plau]?)

Notes:

- Example 1 is made with the imperative form (*open!*). This is actually an order.
- Most of the sentences are made with a modal verb (*can, could, will* and *would*). This means that the verb must go in infinitive (*open*)(examples 2-5).
- The verb *mind* is always followed by a gerund (*opening*) (examples 6 and 7).
- Very often, we add the word *please* to soften a request.
- All the examples, except 1, take the form of a question. In writing, we must not forget to write the question mark (?) at the end.

The position of *please*

If we use the word *please* to soften our request, we can place it in different positions. Here are examples with the most common positions of the word *please*:

- Please, open the window! or Open the window, please!
- Can you please open the window? or Can you open the window please?

Responding to requests

There are different ways of responding to requests. Here are some examples:

- Accepting the request:
- Yes, of course
- Ok, no problem
- *Yes, of course I (can)* (the modal verb in the reply must be the same as that in the request)
- Of course I don't mind
- Certainly
- Sure
- Rejecting the request:
- I'm sorry, but I can't (I'm on the phone right now)
- I'm afraid I can't (it's too cold in here)

As when responding to a suggestion or a piece of advice, we should explain why we reject a request by giving some 'excuse'.