# Anglès tècnic

CFGM.SMX.M11/0.14

## Introduction

This is the course *Anglès tècnic* corresponding to the studies of the CFGM of 'Sistemes microinformàtics i xarxes'. 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 'Sistemes microinformàtics i xarxes'? 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 especially designed for students who study Computer Science or work in the field of computing. 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. These students will find 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); a section called 'Everyday language', which explains different functions of the language, like greetings, making requests, making suggestions, etc., a vocabulary section with a list of words and expressions frequently used in your professional field and sections devoted to text management. 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. Next, you will find information about several aspects of the English language, mostly grammatical explanations, but also the functional language and some useful information for online students. Each section ends with a list of common words and expressions in your professional field, and some of

them have an extra section with information about different aspects of a text, like translating, summarizing and rewriting.

The contents of the written material phocus their attention on three main aspects: hardware components, software components and computer networks. The units are therefore called 'Hardware', 'Software' and 'Networks'.

It is very important to understand that the written material is conceived as a manual of the English language. 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 in this course. Good luck!

## Learning objectives

1. Understand oral messages in standard language and 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.

3. Produce clear, well-organized oral messages and take an active part in conversations frequently used in the professional field.

4. Fill in basic documents in standard language by using the appropriate register in each case.

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

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# Hardware

Carles Mora Queralt

# Índex

## Introduction

Each unit is composed of three separate sections, and each section includes a reading text about a relevant topic, a grammar reference, a section about the use of the language and finally a vocabulary section with a list of words and expressions used in the context of computing.

In the unit called "Hardware", there is a text about different aspects related to the learning of a language online. We explain the characteristics of this type of learning, which is relatively new, and we also give some ideas to deal with an online English course. You can use it as a guide in your studies, but the main objective is to provide some reading practice. Next, there is a text which describes the main components of a computer hardware . The text includes language notes that explain some words. The last text has the same format. In this case, you will read about the internal components of a computer.

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.

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.

There is also a vocabulary section in each part of the unit. In the first part, you will find a list of general terms related to computers. In the second section, there is a list of words related to the input and output devices, which agrees with the topic of the text in this section. The last section includes a list of terms to describe the internal components of a computer system.

Finally, the first section in this unit also includes information about translating a text, with an example of a translation and some tips to make a good translation and avoid syntactical and lexical mistakes.

## Learning objectives

At the end of this unit, the student should:

**1.** Understand oral messages in standard language and 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.

- 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.

- Read and understand written texts in standard language.

- Interpret the global meaning of a written message.

- Relate a written text to the corresponding professional field.

- 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 the professional field.

- 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 of oral messages.

- Describe the events that normally occur in the professional field

- Use the appropriate terminology as commonly used in the professional field.

- Express feelings, ideas or opinions.

- Express the basic activities in the professional field.

- 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 in a variety of situations.

**4.** Fill in basic documents in standard language by using the appropriate register in each case.

- Write short texts about the professional and daily lives.

- Organize a text in a coherent way.

- Fill in documents related to the professional field.

- 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 other countries.

- Identify the values and beliefs which are characteristic of English-speaking communities.

- Identify the social and professional aspects of the professional field in all types of oral and written messages.

- Apply the social conventions in English-speaking communities.

# 1. Learning a language

Learning a foreign language is very important because we live in a globalized society. This means that there are no frontiers, and that products and ideas circulate freely throughout the world. Globalization is not a new phenomenon, but the term has become popular only since the mid 1990s, when the Internet arrived at our homes. Globalization has changed many things in our jobs. For example, *nowadays* it is difficult to find a job near your home. In fact, it is difficult to find a job anywhere, so many people must move to other countries. If you are lucky enough to have a job, however, you will do better if you can interact and share experiences with people from other countries. This will open your mind and improve the quality of your work, but *to do so*, you must speak at least one foreign language.

The most important language in the world is English because it is the language used in our international relationships. Learning English is now a very important aspect in the education of children and adults. You must know English to improve at work, or even to do certain jobs. A person is not prepared for today's world if he or she cannot speak that language. This is the reason why today English is in the curriculums of the majority of the *vocational studies*.

At this point, the obvious question is this: what can I do to learn English? The answer is also obvious: you should go and live in an English-speaking country for a time. So the next question is: what can I do if I cannot go to another country? The answer: *take up* English classes with a teacher! But, what can I do if I have no time to go to class? Well, there is also an answer to that question. Today we are lucky enough to have an alternative. This alternative is called online learning.

Learning a language online is a relatively new option, so many students still have the idea that it is very difficult to learn without a teacher who monitors your study. In fact, it is not so difficult, but you need to have the necessary qualities to be a good online student. Here is a summary of these qualities:

- First of all, **you must be familiar with the use of computers**. You will have to do all your learning activities online. You will *carry out* all your communication with the teacher and other students in a virtual classroom. You will have to write and read online messages, and upload and download files, among other things.

- **You must have a lot of learning autonomy**. The virtual classroom cannot cover everything that you need to learn English. This means that you should look for information and *practice* outside the course. When you learn a language, you must *practise* a lot, especially the four skills (reading, writing, listening and speaking). Of these, speaking is the most difficult to practise online, so you will have to find someone to speak to you. You can also look

The terms *schedule* (Cat: calendari) and *deadline* (Cat: termini) are very important in an online course. You will find the learning activities distributed throughout the course. It is necessary to do and submit the activities before the deadline.

for internet websites that offer extra practice on other aspects of English, like grammar and vocabulary.

- **You must be very well organized**. These are good qualities in all the aspects of life, but they are especially important in online studies. Your study time will be very flexible. This means that you can study any day of the week and at any time of day and night, but it is very important that you organize your work so you can do everything progressively, and not everything at the same time. You should remember that in online studies the schedule is very strict.

- **You must have a strong will**. Your objectives must be clear and you must work hard to achieve those objectives. You will sometimes have the feeling that you cannot do it. You may probably have the same feeling in many other aspects of your life, but you must be aware that you can do everything. You will often find that things are not easy, but you must try hard to do them anyway.

- **You must contact the teacher and the other students when you need anything**. In online studies, you might have the impression that you are alone, but this is not true. The teacher can follow your progress all the time. You can contact him or her to explain your problems or ask questions and doubts. You can also contact the other students and share your experience with them and collaborate in your studies. Online communication can be very effective, but you must get used to 'speaking' online.

- **You must have a lot of patience**. Learning a language means practising a lot. The results will be obvious only with time, but not immediately. You will probably have the impression that you do not advance in your learning, but you must persevere and continue studying after the end of the present course if you want to improve your English.

The conclusion is that learning online is a very good option for the students who have no time to go to school, but if you want to be successful in your studies, it is necessary to change your traditional points of view on education and adapt yourself to online learning.

**Language notes**

- **Nowadays** (Cat. avui en dia, actualment): this adverbial is used to speak about the present time. Other adverbials with the same meaning are: *now*, *today* and *at present*. Do not confuse with the word *actually* (Cat. de fet, realment), which has a totally different meaning. This is an example of a 'false friend'.

- **To do so** (Cat. per fer això): in this context, *so* refers back to the statement in the previous sentence (*open your mind and improve the quality of your work*). Here we use *so* to avoid repeating the whole sentence.

- **Vocational studies** (Cat. estudis de formació professional). Also called *vocational training* or *career training*. The term refers to the education based on employment. It is equivalent to the *FP* in the Spanish school system.

- **Take up** (Cat. fer, iniciar, començar a fer una activitat). This is an example of a phrasal verb (a verb composed of verb + adverb). Other examples of phrasal verbs are: *get up*, *turn on/off*, *break up*, etc.

- **Carry out** (Cat. portar a terme, realitzar). Another example of phrasal verb.

- **Practice** (Cat. pràctica). This is a noun. We always spell this word with a *c*.

- **Practise** (Cat. practicar). This word is a verb. In British English, we always spell the verb with an *s*, but in American English, it is spelt with a *c*, as the noun. The pronunciation of *practice* and *practise*, however, is the same.

## 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).

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**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***.

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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:

**Taula 1.1.** The subject pronouns

|  | Singular | | Plural | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **First person:** | I | *jo* | 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)

|  | Singular | | Plural | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Second person:** | you | *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):

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

*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):

**TAULA 1.3.** The verb 'to be' (present)

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

**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.

## 1.2.1 Formal and informal style

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:

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

- 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.

See annex 'The Phonetic Alphabet' for a list of the sounds of the English language.

- 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.

### 1.2.3 The speaking skills

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:

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

- 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?)

**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)

## 1.3 Vocabulary: general terminology

**computer** (n): ordinador.

**computer data** (n): dades

**computer expert** (n): expert en ordinadors, informàtic

**computer geek** (n): geni dels ordinadors, friqui

**computer lab** (n): sala d'ordinadors

**computer programmer** (n): programador

**computer science** (n): informàtica **computer skills** (n): coneixements informàtics

**computer-illiterate** (n): persona sense nocions d'informàtica

**computer-literate** (n): persona amb nocions d'informàtica

**computing** (n): v. *computer science*

**desktop computer** (n): ordinador de sobretaula

**hardware** (n): hardware

**laptop** (n): ordinador portàtil

**on/off button** (n): botó d'engegar i apagar

**PC** (n): v. *personal computer*

**personal computer** (n): ordinador personal

**smartphone** (n): smartphone, telèfon intel·ligent

**software** (n): software

**tablet** (n): tablet, tauleta

**to crash** (v): caure el sistema

**to reboot** (v): reiniciar

**to run** (v): executar (un programa)

**to switch off** (v): desendollar

**to switch on** (v): endollar

**to turn off** (v): apagar

**to turn on** (v): engegar

**to upgrade** (v): actualitzar

**upgraded** (adj): actualitzat/da

**upgrading** (n): actualització

**web page** (n): pàgina web

**website** (n): lloc web

## 1.4 Translating a text

At the early stages in the learning of a language, we translate all the time from our own language into the target language. When we read a text in English, we mentally translate it into the mother tongue in order to understand it. When we write a text, first we think what we want to say in our language and then we translate it into English. When we try to speak, first we think in Catalan or Spanish and then we translate our thoughts into English. This is the normal process when you study the language outside an English speaking context. As you advance in the study of the language, you 'learn' to think in English. Then you do not need to translate because the thoughts come naturally in the target language.

> The target language refers to the language that we are learning. It is the opposite of the mother tongue.

But apart from the personal use of translation that we may make in our learning process, we should also learn how to make a good translation of written texts. Considering that the greatest part of professional documents, manuals and correspondence is in English, it is important to learn how to translate a text for the benefit of others.

The most basic tool for translation is a bilingual dictionary to look up the meaning of unknown words. It is also very important to have a good knowledge of the grammar structures of both the mother tongue and the foreign language because we must not only translate the words, but also the sentence structures. As Catalan and English belong to different linguistic families (Romanic and Germanic, respectively), their syntactical structures are often very different. For example, imagine that we must translate the English sentence 'I'm 25 years old' into Catalan. Here we do not need a dictionary because we know all the words. But if we translate only the words, the result is 'Jo sóc 25 anys vell', which makes little sense in Catalan. We must also translate the syntactical structure and think which is the correct way of transmitting the same idea in Catalan. In this case, it is not difficult to understand the idea and translate that sentence as 'Tinc 25 anys'. The example is very simple, but it illustrates very well how both languages express the same idea with two different syntactical structures.

Automatic translators, like the Google Translator, are increasingly popular nowadays. They are very useful at work for understanding the meaning of short texts, like emails or instructions, but we should not use them systematically to understand written texts in English. If you want to learn English, you must work on the vocabulary and the syntactical structures of the language. Do not let an automatic translator to do all the work for you!

A good translation should transmit the original idea as well as possible. The resulting text should adjust to the syntactical rules of the language into which you translate.

Here is an example of translation of a technical text from English into Catalan. As you compare both texts, notice the different syntactical structures and how this difference has been solved:

**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)

**Catalan version:**
Com és el cas en molts aparells relacionats amb els ordinadors, 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.

In the example above, we can see that the most important thing in a translation is to transmit the same idea of the original language as approximately as possible, but using the structures of the language into which you are translating the text.

The process is the same in the case of what is called a 'reversed translation', a translation from the mother tongue into a forein language. We normally use a 'reverse translation' when we have to write a text in English because we tend to think in our own language and then translate into the foreign language.

## 2. Computer hardware

The *hardware* is composed of the physical elements that form a computer system. According to their function, these elements can be divided into input devices and output devices. All the units which are connected to the computer are generally called peripherals.

Input devices are the pieces of hardware that allow us to introduce *information* into the computer. Two of the most most important input devices are the keyboard and the mouse. The keyboard is a set of keys that are used to introduce characters to write texts, much in the same way as the old typewriters used to do. Apart from the keys that are used for writing, a keyboard also has a set of other keys (called function keys) that give access to different options of the programmes.

The mouse is a hand device that allows you to move a pointer (also called 'cursor') and select elements on the screen. A mouse normally has two buttons (the left button and the right button) to communicate with the computer, and a wheel to move through web pages or documents. With a mouse you can perform different actions. You can click (press the left button), double-click (press the left button twice), drag (hold down the button, move the pointer and then release it) to change the position of certain elements, like files or images, and right-click (press the right button) to display a list of options. Both the keyboard and the mouse are usually connected to the computer through cables, but they can also be wireless (or cordless), which means that they have no cable. These send *data* to the computer *by using* infrared signals.

A wireless mouse, an example of an input device

Other examples of input devices are the joystick, which is used to interact with video games; the microphone, which introduces sound into the system; the webcam, which allows us to send and receive video pictures through the Internet, and the scanner. The scanner is a peripheral used to capture and introduce images into the computer. We can also connect digital cameras to introduce photos and video into the system, where we can manipulate them with the appropriate software.

On the other hand, the output devices are those pieces of hardware that display the results obtained by the computer. The most obvious of these is the monitor (or screen), which sometimes is also called VDU (Visual Display Unit). The monitor is the place where we can visualize all the results sent out by the computer.

Another example of an output device is the printer, which prints text or images on paper. There are different types of printers: the dot-matrix printers create a group (matrix) of dots to make letters or images; the ink-jet printer creates the text and the images by spraying dots of ink onto the paper; the laser printer uses a laser to fix the ink on the paper, *in the same way as a photocopier does*. The plotter is a special type of printer with some fine pens that draw detailed designs. Plotters are normally used by designers and illustrators to print their work.

Speakers and headphones are two examples of audio output systems. Speakers are used to display sound; the speakers can be connected to a computer or they can be built-in speakers. Headphones have the same function, but they are used to display sound directly into our ears.

**Language notes**

- **Hardware**. This is an uncountable noun, so we cannot say, for example, *a hardware*; we must say *a piece of hardware*, as you can see in the text.

- **Information**. Another example of uncountable noun. Do not say *I've got an information*; you must say: *I've got a piece of information*. Uncountable nouns are not used in plural, so you must not say: *important informations*, but *important information*.

- **Data** (Cat. dades). This word is always plural (the singular form *datum* is hardly used nowadays), so we must use the plural forms of the verbs to agree with that word: *The data displayed are very important*).

- **By using** (Cat. utilitzant). The structure *by* + V-ing is very much used to say how we do something. For example, *we introduce data into the computer by using the input devices*.

- **In the same way as a photocopier does** (Cat. igual que ho fa una fotocpiadora). In this case, we use the auxiliary *does* to substitute a whole sentence (*the laser printer uses a laser to fix the ink on the paper*).

## 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 100ºC (Cat. L'aigua *bull* als 100ºC).

**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)

After a preposition, we can say:

- a noun: in *the garden*

- an object pronoun: for *him*

- a verb in -ing: without *saying* anything

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:

FIGURA 2.1. The prepositions of place (position)
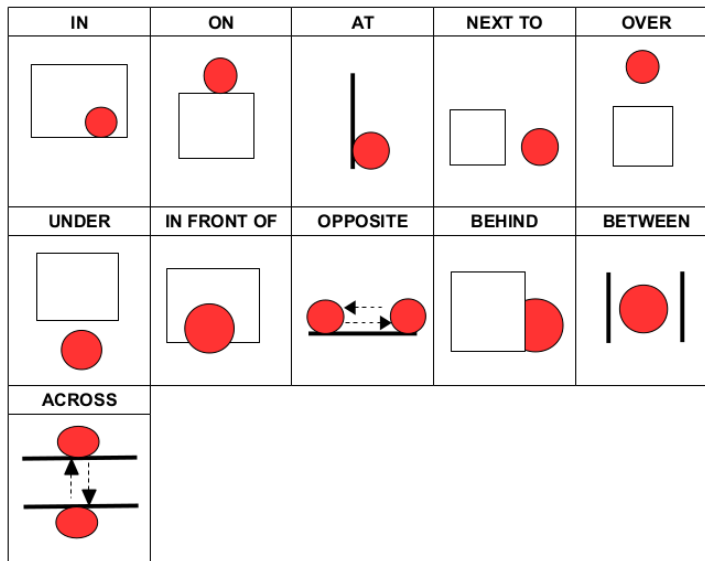


Some common expressions with these prepositions are:

- **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)
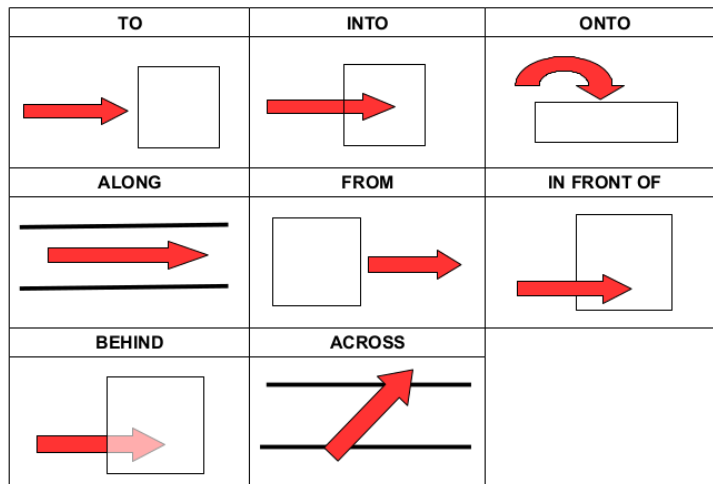


We use all these prepositions with verbs that indicate movement, for example: *go* (Cat. anar), *drive* (Cat. conduir), *walk* (Cat. caminar), *run* (Cat. córrer), *fly* (Cat. volar), etc. Here are some examples:

- 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.

### 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:

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

- *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.

## 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:

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

- **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.

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

- **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
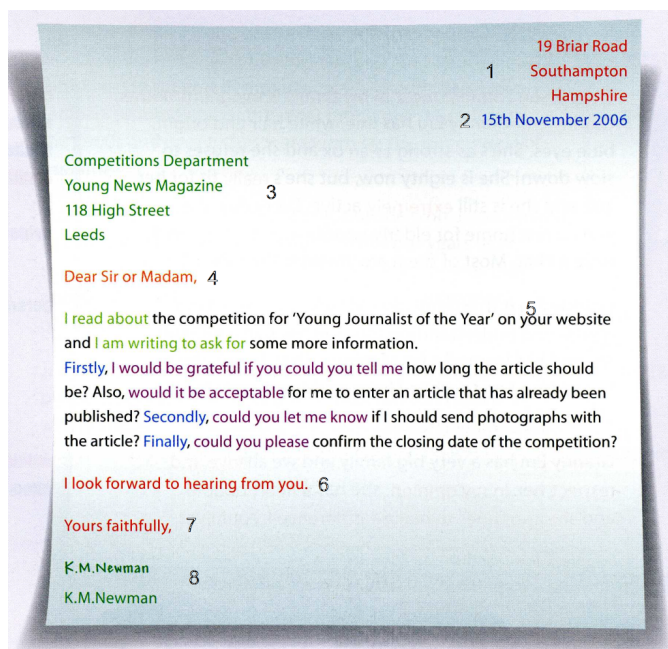
Notice the position and characteristics of the different elements:

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

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.

## 2.3 Vocabulary: input and output devices

**built-in** (adj): integrat/da

**cursor** (n): cursor

**function key** (n): tecla de funció

**headphones** (n): auriculars

**ink-jet printer** (n): impressora d'injecció de tinta

**key** (n): tecla

**keyboard** (n): teclat

**laser printer** (n): impressora laser

**monitor** (n): monitor

**mouse** (n): ratolí

**peripheral** (n): perifèric

**plotter** (n): plotter

**pointer** (n): v. *cursor*

**printer** (n): impressora

**scanner** (n): escàner

**screen** (n): pantalla

**speaker** (n): altaveu

**to click** (v): clicar, fer clic

**to display** (v): mostrar

**to double-click** (v): fer doble clic

**to drag** (v): arrossegar

**to press** (v): prémer

**to print** (v): imprimir

**to right-click** (v): fer clic amb el botó dret

**to scan** (v): escanejar

**webcam** (n): webcam, càmera web

## 3. Inside a computer

The most important element in a computer is the processor, which is generally called the CPU (Central Processing Unit). The processor is like the brain of the computer. It has got three parts:

- The 'control unit' interprets the instructions in a *program* and activates the different components of the computer to execute the functions which are specified in that program.

- The arithmetic logic unit' (ALU) makes mathematical calculations and logical operations.

- The 'registers' are high-speed units of memory which store information. There are two types of registers: the program counter, which controls the next instruction to be executed, and the instruction register, which holds the instruction that is being executed in that moment.

The CPU is built into a microprocessor chip. A chip is a small piece of silicon which includes a complex circuit called 'integrated circuit'. The chip executes instructions and coordinates all the other units. The microprocessors are different, depending on the quantity of data that they can manage at the same time. There are 16, 32 and 64-bit processors.



A CPU, the brain of the computer

The main circuit board is called 'motherboard', which contains the CPU, the memory chips, the expansion slots, where you can fit the expansion cards, and the controllers for the peripherals. All these elements are connected by internal *buses*, also called paths, that carry the electronic signals.

The data which arrive at the CPU are loaded into the internal memory, where they are processed. The internal memory is divided into the RAM and the ROM areas. RAM means Random Access Memory and ROM means Read Only Memory. When the user *runs* an application, the microprocessor sends a copy of that application to the RAM area, where it is executed. The RAM memory is temporary, so the information is lost when you turn off the computer. On the other hand, the ROM memory is permanent . It is used to store the instructions that the CPU needs to work.

The electronic circuits can detect the difference between two states: 'on' (the current passes through the circuit) and 'off' (the current does not pass through). These states are represented with the digits 1 and 0, which are called 'bits'. Bits are grouped into eight-digit codes that represent letters, numbers and symbols. The groups of eight bits are called 'bytes'. For example, 01000001 is used to represent the letter 'A'. To make calculations easier, we normally use bigger units than bytes: a kilobyte (KB) is *1,024* bytes; a megabyte (MB) is 1,024 KB; a gigabyte (GB) is

1,024 MB and finally a terabyte (TB) is 1,024 GB. These units are used to describe the RAM memory, the capacity of the disks and the size of a program or document.

The power of a computer depends on the speed of the microprocessor. The speed is measured in MHz (megahertz) or GHz (gigahertz). When the speed is high (for example, 1,600 MHz), the computer can work with very demanding applications, but if the speed is too low, some applications will not be executed or will not work properly.

**Language notes**

- **Program**. This is the common spelling in American English. In British English, you can also find the alternative spelling *programme*, but in the context of computers the word is generally spelt *program*.

- **Bus** (Cat. bus, canal) / **Run** (Cat. executar). Notice the technical meaning of these two words in this context. In standard English, they have very different meanings.

- **1,024** (Cat. 1.024). Remember that in English we separate the thousands from the hundreds with a comma (,) and not with a dot (.).

## 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]*).

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

**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).

- *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:

**TAULA 3.3.** The English quantifiers

|  | Affirmative | Negative | Interrogative |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Countable nouns** | no, a/an, some<br>a lot of, many<br>few, a few | any<br>many<br>few, a few | any<br>many<br>few, a few |
| **Uncountable nouns** | no, some<br>a lot of<br>little, a little | any<br>much<br>little, a little | any<br>much<br>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.

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'.

**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?)

- *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?)

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).

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:

- *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

| English | Catalan | Observations |
|---------|---------|--------------|
| **Who?** | Qui? | |
| **Whose?** | De qui? | |
| **Whom?** | Qui? | Only in formal written texts when the pronoun is the object |
| **What?** | Què? | It can be followed by a noun: *what year...?* |
| **Which?** | Quin/a? | It can be followed by a noun: *which year...?* |

**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: *how much money...?* |
| **How many?** | Quants/es? | With countable nouns; it can be followed by a noun: *how many people...?* |
| **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

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.

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**

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.

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)

- 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.

## 3.3 Vocabulary: internal components

**ALU** (n): v. *arithmetical logic unit*

**arithmetical logic unit** (n): unitat aritmètica lògica, UAL

**bit** (n): bit

**byte** (n): byte

**central processing unit**(n): unitat central de processament, CPU

**chip** (n): xip

**CPU** (n): v. *central processing unit*

**driver** (n): controlador, driver

**expansion card** (n): targeta d'expansió

**expansion slot** (n): ranura d'expansió

**gigabyte** (n): gigabyte, giga

**gigahertz (Ghz)** (n): gigahertz

**graphics card** (n): targeta gràfica, targeta de video

**integrated circuit** (n): circuit integrat

**kilobyte** (n): kilobyte

**megabyte** (n): megabyte, mega

**megahertz (Mhz)** (n): megahertz

**memory card** (n): targeta de memòria

**motherboard** (n): placa mare, placa base

**processor** (n): processador

**RAM memory** (n): memòria RAM (Random Access Memory)

**register** (n): registre

**ROM memory** (n): memòria ROM (Read Only Memory)

**terabyte** (n): terabyte

**to execute** (v): executar (un programa)

# Software

Carles Mora Queralt

# Índex

**Introduction**

The second unit is called "Software" because the emphasis now is on this particular aspect of computers. However, the first section of the unit is again devoted to the linguistic aspects of learning. The main objective is that you learn the grammar and vocabulary of the English language and that you can apply them to develop the four skills through practice, but it is also very important that you learn how to learn a language.

The first section of the unit, then, includes a text devoted to non-verbal communication. This is an aspect that we often forget when we learn a foreign language, although it is sometimes even more important than the use of words (or 'verbal language'). Most body language tends to be common to different cultures, but some gestures may have different meanings for different people. The second section is centered again on the world of computers. In this case, you will read about the system and the application software, with the corresponding language notes to explain some difficult points or give advice about the use of language. The reading text in the third section includes information about the office automation, which is the set of programs that help in the management of office information, as for example word processors, spreadsheets and databases.

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 as well as 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 will 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.

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.

The vocabulary sections introduce more vocabulary related to computers. In the first section, you will find a list of different types of software and some related words. The second section includes several terms related to the operating systems. The last section in the unit introduces the vocabulary frequently used when we work with word processors, spreadsheets and databases.

Finally, the first section includes a subsection devoted to text summaries, where you will learn how to summarize a text. This will help you understand the most important ideas in a text.

## Learning objectives

At the end of this unit, the student should:

**1.** Understand oral messages in standard language and 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.

- 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.

- Read and understand written texts in standard language.

- Interpret the global meaning of a written message.

- Relate a written text to the corresponding professional field.

- 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 the professional field.

- 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 of oral messages.

- Describe the events that normally occur in the professional field

- Use the appropriate terminology as commonly used in the professional field.

- Express feelings, ideas or opinions.

- Express the basic activities in the professional field.

- 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 in a variety of situations.

**4.** Fill in basic documents in standard language by using the appropriate register in each case.

- Write short texts about the professional and daily lives.

- Organize a text in a coherent way.

- Fill in documents related to the professional field.

- 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 other countries.

- Identify the values and beliefs which are characteristic of English-speaking communities.

- Identify the social and professional aspects of the professional field in all types of oral and written messages.

- Apply the social conventions in English-speaking communities.

# 1. Non-verbal communication

Verbal communication is the process in which we exchange information by using sounds. We organize these sounds to form words, and these words are organized in sentences according to syntactical (or grammatical) rules. This is what we normally call a language, like English, Spanish, French, etc. But not all the forms of communication are verbal. There is also the non-verbal communication, which is the communicative process in which we transmit the information by means different from sounds. An example is the written language, which is the representation of sounds with conventional signs ('letters'). But there are some non-linguistic aspects which we should also consider. An example is what we normally call 'body language', which includes gestures, body position, face expressions and some specific behaviour. In our daily life, we normally use a combination of verbal and non-verbal communication.

When we speak of communication, we normally think of a language, *that is*, we think of verbal communication. However, non-verbal communication is sometimes more important than language itself because our body language can add a lot of important information to our words, especially when we cannot use words properly. This may happen, for example, when we do not speak a language correctly, or when there is some type of physical obstacle in oral communication (distance, *deafness*, etc.). When we speak with another person, body language can say many more things than words alone can express because non-verbal communication can emphasize our message or hide the messages that we do not want to transmit. Apart from body language (gestures and facial expressions), non-verbal communication can also include other aspects like the tone of the voice (which may indicate if a person is nervous, angry, etc.), the appearance (for example, when we dress *smartly* to go to a job interview) or the physical surroundings (for example, when we prepare the room with candles and a soft light for a romantic dinner).

When we learn a foreign language, we concentrate all our attention on the grammar rules that organize the oral and the written language. This must be so because we learn a language especially to speak with other people and read and understand texts, but we should also learn to observe and interpret the body language of our interlocutors in order to understand their non-verbal signals. Some behaviours are considered positive because they are generally used to encourage communication, whereas others show anxiety, aggression, boredom and other negative feelings. Direct eye contact, scratching your nose, arms crossed on chest, standing with hands on hips, sitting with your legs apart, placing your hand on your cheek, open palms, drumming fingers, tilted head... these are all examples of negative and positive feelings transmitted by body language. For this reason, it is very important to control such language and use it consciously to transmit or hide the appropriate message in each specific situation.

Many examples of body language are universal, but there are also many examples of cultural gestures. This means that they have different meanings in different cultural backgrounds. For example, bringing your thumb and index finger together means 'Ok, I agree' in the US and Great Britain (and in general in all the western world), but in Japan it is a sign for money, in Russia it means the number zero, and in Brazil it is an insult. To transmit the right message, therefore, we not only need to learn the words of a language, but also the meaning of the gestures in a particular culture.

Another example of non-verbal communication that may affect our communication with foreigners is the management of personal space. When two people are talking to each other, they tend to stand at a specific distance apart. The average personal distance may be different from one culture to another, and it also depends on the relationship between the people who are speaking. In general, in the Anglo-Saxon and Nordic cultures, people require more personal space, whereas in Latin cultures the distance is smaller and people feel more comfortable standing close to each other.

Another important aspect when we want to communicate effectively is trying to avoid physical contact during a conversation because contact may cause discomfort to the other person. In Anglo-Saxon cultures, touching the other person while speaking is considered too intimate for casual acquaintances, but in Latin cultures there is a greater tendency to touching. In some countries like Spain, Italy or France, it is common to kiss a woman on her cheeks when we are introduced for the first time, but we should avoid this type of greeting in countries like England, Germany, the US and the Scandinavian countries, where kissing would be considered an intolerable act of intimacy. Instead, we should shake hands, as we do with men.

In conclusion, learning a language does not only mean to learn the grammar rules and the vocabulary, and practise the different skills. Learning a language also means to control the body language and understand the different customs that apply to that particular language. Like all cultural aspects, the best way of learning other people's customs is with experience. If you ever live in a foreign country, or live among foreigners, you may feel embarrased a few times, but you will *eventually* learn their non-verbal communication.

**Language notes**

- **That is** (Cat. és a dir). The complete expression is: *that is to say*. We use it to explain the meaning of our words. We normally use it in the oral language. In the written language, it goes between commas. An equivalent expression is: *in other words*.

- **Deafness** (Cat. sordera). A noun. The corresponding adjective is *deaf* (Cat. sord/a). The suffix *-ness* is very common to change adjectives into nouns, as in: *good/goodness* (Cat. bo/bondat) or *dark/darkness* (Cat. fosc/foscor).

- **Smartly** (Cat. amb elegància). The suffix *-ly* is normally used to form adverbs of manner, that is, the adverbs that indicate how we do an action. This one comes from the adjective *smart* (Cat. elegant). Other examples are: *open/openly* (Cat. obert/obertament) or *quick/quickly* (Cat. ràpid/ràpidament).

- **Eventually** (Cat. al final, finalment). Be careful with this word: it does not have the meaning of Catalan 'eventualment'. This is *occasionally* in English. It is an example of a 'false friend'.

## 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*).

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

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*):

**TAULA 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*):

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

|          | Affirmative | Negative Long form | Negative Short form | Interrogative |
|----------|-------------|--------------------|---------------------|---------------|
| I        | 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...? |

*Notes*:

- 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 preseent 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 |
|---|---|
| 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.

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

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:

**FIGURA 1.1.** Clock times
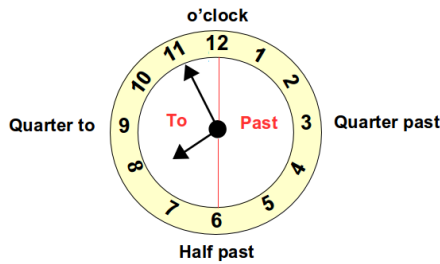


Here are some examples of clock times in English:

**TAULA 1.5.** The clock times in English

| Time | In timetables | Normal use |
|---|---|---|
| 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.

**FIGURA 1.2.** Parts of the day
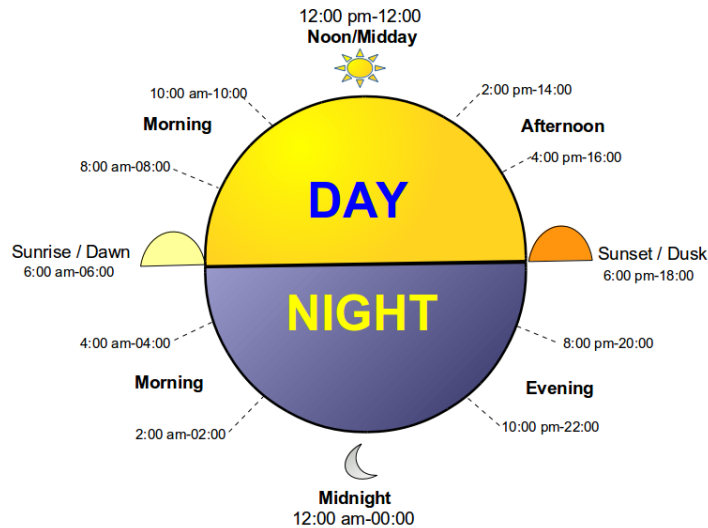


Here are some expressions related to clock times. They are placed in a sentence:

- *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*.

## 1.3 Vocabulary: software

**application** (n): v. *application software*

**adware** (n): adware

**application software** (n): aplicació

**browser** (n): v. *web browser*

**database** (n): base de dades

**DB** (n): v. *database*

**desktop publishing** (n): autoedició

**file format** (n): format de l'arxiu

**HTML code** (n): codi HTML

**layout application** (n): aplicació de disseny de pàgines

**malicious software** (n): software maliciós

**malware** (n): v. *malicious software*

**multimedia application** (n): aplicació multimèdia

**presentation software** (n): software de presentacions

**programming software** (n): software de programació

**screensaver** (n): salvapantalles

**spreadsheet** (n): full de càlcul

**system software** (n): software del sistema

**text editor** (n): editor de text

**to run** (v): executar (un programa)

**video game** (n): videojoc

**wallpaper** (n): fons de pantalla

**web browser** (n): navegador

**web design** (n): disseny web

**web editor** (n): editor de pàgines web

## 1.4 Summarizing a text

We write a summary to explain the main ideas of a text in a few sentences. It is also an excellent exercise to check the comprehension of a reading text.

When writing a summary, we should remember the following:

- Only include the most important information.

- Do not include information that is not important, as for example, details, direct speech, examples to illustrate the ideas, etc.

- Try to use your own words.

- Do not express your own opinion or add information that is not in the text.

See the unit called "Networks", section 1 "Varieties of English" for ideas on how to rewrite a text in your own words.

As in everything else, writing a good summary requires some practice. Here are some tips:

- First of all, read the text to get a general idea of its contents.

- Read the text again and underline the three or four most important ideas.

- Write down what you remember from the text without looking at it: these will probably be the main ideas.

- Read the text again and check your summary. Make sure that you have included all the important information.

- If you think that the summary is too long, cut out the unnecessary details to reduce the text to the most important ideas.

Here is an example of a summary.

*Original 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.

## 2. System and application software

In contrast with the hardware, which is composed of the physical elements of the computer, the *software* refers to all the intangible elements. Hardware and software need each other to operate, *as* one cannot function without the other. There are two types of software:

- **System software**, which controls the basic functions of the computer.

- **Application software**, which allows the user to perform a variety of tasks.

An example of system software is the operating system (OS), which is undoubtly the most important type of software in a computer system. An operating system controls the basic interaction between the hardware and the application software. It allows the user, for example, to handle input and output operations, run programs and organize files. Some examples of operating systems are Microsoft Windows; OS X, created and sold by Apple; Google Chromium, which has been developed by Google; and Linux, which is an open-source operating system. A common characteristic to all the *present-day* operating systems is that they use a Graphical User Interface (GUI), which means that you can have access to the different options simply by clicking on icons or drop-down menus displayed on the screen.

The operating systems usually include some small programs which contribute to the improvement of the system and give access to the different capabilities of the computer. These programs are called 'utilities'. Some examples are the anti-virus, the screensavers, the wallpapers, the sound and video players (like Windows Media Player) or the small games included in some operating systems.

Another example of system software is the programming language software, which is the language used to create the computer programs, like MS-DOS, COBOL, Pascal or BASIC. As in all the languages, programming languages have a syntax, that is, a set of rules that indicate how we must write the language so that it makes sense and the programs can work.

The application software has a great variety of uses. Some *applications* are used to give access to different types of content, like the web browsers (or simply, browsers) like Internet Explorer, Firefox, Chrome, Safari and Opera, which allow the users to access the *World Wide Web*. On the other hand, the Media Players allow the users to access multimedia files, like videos, sound files and images.

Other applications are used for managing data, like spreadsheets or databases; others are used for documentation purposes, like word processors, presentation software or email programs; others are used for entertainment, like video games; or for educational purposes, as for example, the classroom management software like Moodle and Odissea, or the reference software, as for example, online dictionaries or encyclopaedias.

Some of these applications often come together in applications suites, like Microsoft Office and LibreOffice, which includes text editors, spreadsheets, databases and presentation software.

**Language notes**

- **Software**. This is an uncountable noun, as the term *hardware*. We cannot use in plural or with the article *a*. To make it countable, we can use the expression *a type of software*.

- **As** (Cat. ja que). This word is equivalent to *because*. We can say: *...as one cannot function without the other* or *...because one cannot function without the other*.

- **Present-day** (Cat. actual). This is an adjective. Do not confuse with the English word *actual* (Cat. real), which has a toitally different meaning. Notice that compound words used as adjectives are separated by a hyphen (-).

- **Applications**. This noun is equivalent to *application software*, where *application* is an adjective. You can use the term to change the concept *application software* into a countable noun.

- **World Wide Web**. Notice the use of capital letters in this case. The reason is that this is a proper name. Similarly, *the Internet* is also spelt with a capital letter.

## 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 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*

> 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.

- 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//)

|  | 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...? |

Here are the forms of the present perfect simple of an irregular verb (*go*).

**TAULA 2.2.** Conjugation of the present perfect simple (irregular verb: //go//)

|  | 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...? |

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*:

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

|  | 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 been 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** (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: ~~I 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)

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.

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)

- *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

**Active voice:**

| MARY | ORGANIZED | THE PARTY | LAST YEAR |
|------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| Subject | verb | direct object | Adverb of time |

**Passive voice:**

| THE PARTY | WAS ORGANIZED | BY MARY | LAST YEAR |
|-----------|---------------|---------|-----------|
| Subject | verb | direct object | Adverb of time |

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 in the passive voice (verb: do)

| 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.

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

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*.

- 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 recomended 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.

- 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.

## 2.3 Vocabulary: operating systems

**desktop** (n): escriptori

**drop-down menu** (n): menú desplegable

**folder** (n): carpeta

**graphical user interface** (n): interfície gràfica de l'usuari

**GUI** (n): v. *graphical user interface*

**icon** (n): icona

**interface** (n): interfície

**menu bar** (n): barra del menú

**operating system** (n): sistema operatiu

**OS** (n): v. *operating system*

**player** (n): reproductor

**pop-up window** (n): finestra emergent

**scroll bar** (n): barra de desplaçament

**sound player** (n): reproductor de so

**sound recorder** (n): gravador de so

**system utility** (n): utilitat del sistema

**toolbar** (n): barra d'eines

**version** (n): versió

**video player** (n): reproductor de video

**window** (n): finestra

## 3. Office automation

The term 'office automation' refers to the computer software used to digitally create, store and manipulate office information. Three examples of this type of software are the words processors, the spreadsheets and the databases.

A word processor is a program that performs word processing functions. It is mostly used to write texts, as we used to do with the old typewriters. With the functionalities of a word processor, you can create a document, store it on your hard disk, modify it by using the different options available and print the final result on a piece of paper.

A word processor offers a great flexibility *when manipulating* a text. For example, you can make changes *without retyping* the whole document. If you make a spelling mistake or want to change the text, you simply back up the cursor and make the necessary corrections. You can remove a whole paragraph without leaving a trace. It is also very easy to insert a word, a sentence or a paragraph in the middle of the text because the characters move automatically to leave space for the insertions. You can also move entire sections of a text to other places in the same document or to other documents.

The word processors that only have these basic features are called 'word editors', as for example the WordPad. However, most of the word processors have additional features that allow the user to perform many more tasks, like choosing font colours, insert tables, or search and replace functions. This type of word processors are called 'full-featured word processors'. Examples are Word, which is included in the Microsoft Office suite, and Writer, included in the LibreOffice suite.

Spreadsheet applications are normally used to make calculations with a great number of data. A spreadsheet is a table of values with rows and columns *forming* a grid. Each value is placed in a box called 'cell'. You can define the type of data in each cell (number, text, percentatge, etc.), and you can also establish the relationship between each cell by introducing formulas. When you introduce data in cells which are linked by a formula, the cell which has the formula fills automatically with the corresponding value. Examples of spreadsheet applications are Microsoft Excel and LibreOffice Calc. The most powerful spreadsheets support graphic features that enable you to generate charts and graphs from the data.

Other software applications are the databases, which are often abbreviated to DB. A database is a collection of information which is organized in such a way that the program can quickly select specific data. Traditionally, databases are organized in single pieces of information called 'fields'; a complete set of fields is called a 'record' and a whole collection of records is a 'file'.

A special type of database is the hypertext. In a hypertext database, a piece of

text, a picture or a video is linked to another object. Hypertexts are very *useful for organizing* a great amount of different types of information, but they cannot operate with numerical data. Some examples of database applications are Access and Base, included in the Microsoft Office and LibreOffice suits, respectively.

**Language notes**

- **When manipulating**. This expression, composed of an adverb of time + a verb in -ing, is equivalent to: *when we manipulate*. We can use the option with the verb in the -ing form when we do not refer to a specific person. Similarly, we can say: *before going to work* and *before we go to work*; *after running the program* or *after we run the program*.

- **Without retyping** (Cat. sense tornar a escriure). In English, all the verbs placed after a preposition (like *without*) must go in the -ing form. In Catalan and Spanish, however, we use the infinitive form of the verb.

- **Rows and columns forming a grid**. An alternative way of expressing this idea is: *Rows and columns that form a grid*. Very often, we can change relative clauses with the verb in the -ing form, but only when the relative pronoun is the subject.

- **Useful for organizing**. To express finality, we can say: *useful for organizing* or *useful to organize*. Both are correct, but we cannot say: *\*useful for to organize*.

## 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 3.1. 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 3.2. Conjugation of 'could'

|  | Affirmative | Negative Long form | Negative Short form | Interrogative |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| I | 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).

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**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.

These are the **conjugations** of *must* and *should*:

## Must

**TAULA 3.3.** 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 3.4.** 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 3.5. 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 3.6. Conjugation of 'might'

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

**TAULA 3.6** (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 3.7.** 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 3.8.** 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...? |

## Alternative forms

The modal verbs *will* and *would* have no alternative forms.

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

## 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.

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 <del>~~I am disagree~~</del>.

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:

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

- 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).

### 3.3 Vocabulary: word processors, spreadsheets and databases

**cell** (n): cel·la

**column** (n): columna

**data** (n): dades

**database** (n): base de dades

**feature** (n): característica

**field** (n): camp

**file** (n): arxiu

**font** (n): font, tipus de lletra

**formula** (n): fórmula

**grammar checker** (n): corrector de gramàtica

**office automation** (n): ofimàtica

**page** (n): pàgina

**record** (n): resgistre

**row** (n): fila

**spell checker** (n): corrector ortogràfic

**spreadsheet** (n): full de càlcul

**tab** (n): pestanya

**text editor** (n): editor de text

**text file** (n): arxiu de text, document

**to close** (v): tancar

**to copy** (v): copiar

**to delete** (v): esborrar, eliminar

**to download** (v): descarregar, baixar

**to insert** (v): insertar

**to minimize** (v): minimitzar

**to open** (v): obrir

**to paste** (v): enganxar

**to replace** (v): substituir

**to restore** (v): restaurar

**to save** (v): guardar

**to search** (v): buscar

**to store** (v): guardar, emmagatzemar

**to type** (v): escriure

**to upload** (v): carregar, pujar

**word processor** (n): processador de text

# Networks

Carles Mora Queralt

# Índex

## Introduction

This unit is called "Networks" because it is centered on this important topic of a computer system. You will see how the computers are connected to each other and how they can share information.

The text in the first section deals with the different varieties of the English language, especially with the differences between British and American English. . The second text in this unit describes the types of computer networks and the elements that compose a network. The third text is devoted to the largest network of all, the Internet, which covers practically all the world with billions of computers and thousands of servers connected to one another.

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.

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

The vocabulary section in the first section of the unit lists the types of networks and some other words related to the topic. The second section includes a list of the different elements that compose a computer network. Finally, you will find a list of terms related to the Internet and especially to internet security.

The first section of the unit also includes information about rewriting a text, which means to express the ideas in a text, but using different words and syntactical structures. The third section also includes a text called "Further reading" where you can get some ideas in case you want to continue studying English after the present course. You are probably taking this course because you need to complete the curriculum of your vocational studies on computing, but nowadays a good knowledge of English is part of the basic knowledge of anyone who wants to improve in life, so it is a good idea to do everything possible to learn as much English as you can.

## Learning objectives

At the end of this unit, the student should:

**1.** Understand oral messages in standard language and 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.

- 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.

- Read and understand written texts in standard language.

- Interpret the global meaning of a written message.

- Relate a written text to the corresponding professional field.

- 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 the professional field.

- 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 of oral messages.

- Describe the events that normally occur in the professional field

- Use the appropriate terminology as commonly used in the professional field.

- Express feelings, ideas or opinions.

- Express the basic activities in the professional field.

- 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 in a variety of situations.

**4.** Fill in basic documents in standard language by using the appropriate register in each case.

- Write short texts about the professional and daily lives.

- Organize a text in a coherent way.

- Fill in documents related to the professional field.

- 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 other countries.

- Identify the values and beliefs which are characteristic of English-speaking communities.

- Identify the social and professional aspects of the professional field in all types of oral and written messages.

- Apply the social conventions in English-speaking communities.

# 1. Varieties of English

English does not have the highest number of speakers in the world (it *stands* in the second place, after *Chinese*), but it *is spoken* in more places than any other language. This is mostly the result of the colonial expansion of Britain in the 19th century. In that process, the English language spread beyond its original boundaries to such distant places as North America, India, Australia, New Zealand and the greatest part of Africa. In these new places, the language began to change, originating the different varieties of English. This phenomenon, however, is not restricted to *far-away* countries. We can also find different varieties within the *British Isles*: Southern English, Cockney (which is spoken in certain parts of London), Scottish and Irish are all varieties of the English language spoken in the British Isles.

The language that we learn in Europe is usually a variety called Standard British English. It is not the best or the easiest. All the varieties enjoy the same status independently of the size of the territory or the number of speakers. However, American English is becoming more and more important because of the great influence of *the USA*, especially in the mass media. For this reason, it is convenient to consider the differences between British and American English,so we can avoid misunderstandings in everyday situations and, most importantly, we can avoid mixing British and American English in the same context, which has a negative effect on the style of the language.

British and American English differ in grammar, spelling, pronunciation and, most of all, vocabulary. The grammatical differences between both varieties are very few.

The most important are:

- In BrE, the verb 'have' meaning 'possess' is used with the particle 'got', especially in the colloquial style. In the negative and interrogative forms, it is used as an auxiliary verb (I have got, I haven't got, have you got?); in AmE, the verb 'have' is used without 'got' and the negative and interrogative are formed with the auxiliary 'do' (I have, I don't have, do you have?)

- AmE uses the past simple form of the verb in situations when BrE would use the present perfect (BrE: has he gone yet?; AmE: did he go yet?)

On the other hand, the differences in the vocabulary are numerous. An American word is usually accepted in British English, and vice versa, but the context usually marks the use of a term. The following table shows a list of a few words which are different in both varieties of English:

**TAULA 1.1.** British and American English

| British English | American English | Catalan |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Biscuit | Cookie | Galeta |
| Lift | Elevator | Ascensor |
| Lorry | Truck | Camió |
| Queue | Line | Cua (de gent) |
| Gasoline/Petrol | Gas | Gasolina |
| Pavement | Sidewalk | Vorera |
| Autumm | Fall | Tardor |
| Traffic circle | Roundabout | Rotonda |
| Motorway | Freeway | Autopista |
| Railway | Railroad | Ferrocarril |
| Tap | Faucet | Aixeta |
| Bill | Check | Compte (d'un restaurant) |
| Trousers | Pants | Pantalons |
| Dinner jacket | Tuxedo | Smoking (prenda de vestir) |

As far as spelling is concerned, the main differences are the following:

- BrE ending -our (colour, flavour); AmE ending -or (color, flavor)

- BrE ending -re (theatre, centre); AmE ending -er (theater, center)

- In verb ending in -l, BrE doubles the 'l' when adding the endings -ing, -ed or -er (travelling, travelled, traveller); AmE does not double the 'l' (traveling, traveled, traveler)

The phonetic differences are mostly found in the pronunciation of vowels. Apart from this, Americans do not pronounce the letter -r when it comes at the end of the word, as in 'teacher', ' car' or 'year', or when it is in front of a consonant, as in 'carpet', 'effort' or 'north'. In some words, there is a change in the stress. For example, the word 'laboratory' is stressed on the first syllable in AmE (laboratory) and on the second syllable in BrE (laboratory).

**Language notes**

- **Stand** (Cat. trobar-se, estar situat). The usual meaning of this verb is Catalan 'estar dret, estar de peu', but here it is used in the sense of *be situated*.

- **Chinese**. Remember that the adjectives denoting a nationality (including the names of a language) must be written with a capital letter: *Chinese*, *English*, *British*, *American*, *Catalan*, etc.

- **Is spoken** (Cat. es parla). Here is a good example of a passive form used in an impersonal sense.

- **Far-away** (Cat. llunyà/ana). This word is an adjective, so it must be placed before a noun. Do not confuse with the adverb *far* (Cat. lluny).

- **British Isles** (Cat. Illes Britàniques). This is a geographical term which refers to the islands of Ireland and Great Britain. *Great Britain* is the island which includes the political units of

*England*, *Wales* and *Scotland*, whereas the political term *United Kingdom (UK)* includes these and *Northern Ireland*.

- **The USA** (=the United States of America). This is the most common way of referring to the country. Other alternatives are: *the US*, *the United States* or simply *America*. 'EEUU' is the Catalan or Spanish abbreviation and it is never used in English.

## 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'

See grammar section in Unit 2 section 3 for the conjugation of *will* and further information about the modal verbs.

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 1.2.** Conjugation of the future with //will// (//work//)

|          | Affirmative Long form | Affirmative Short form | Negative Long form | Negative Short form | Interrogative |
|----------|-----------------------|------------------------|--------------------|--------------------|---------------|
| 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            | 'll work               | will not work      | won't work         | Will he work...? |
| We       | will work             | 'll work               | will not work      | won't work         | Will we work...? |
| You      | will work             | 'll work               | will not work      | won't work         | Will you work...? |
| They     | will work             | 'll 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:

- 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).

### 1.1.2 Plans and intentions: 'be going to'

Here are the forms of the future with *be going to*:

**TAULA 1.3.** 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:

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 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:

- 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

corresponding field. After this, **write** the text of your message in the text editor. When you finish, **review** the spelling and **check** any mistakes. Finally, **click** on the button "Send" and the message will reach its destination in a few seconds.

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.

### 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).

- *Go across Green St.* (Cat. Travessa Green St.).

- *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:

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.*.

- *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)
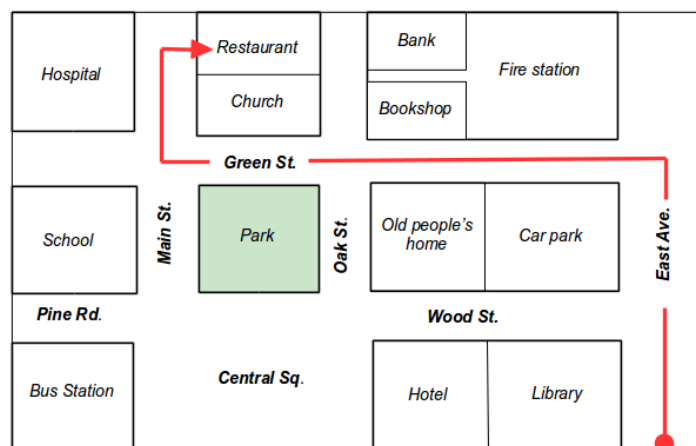
**The names of the streets**

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):

FIGURA 1.1. Map



**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.

## 1.3 Vocabulary: types of networks

**cabled** (adj): amb fils, amb cables

**CAN (Campus Area Network)** (n): xarxa del campus

**client-server network** (n): xarxa client-servidor

**hotspot** (n): àrea de connexió inalàmbrica

**Internet** (n): internet

**LAN (Local Area Network)** (n): xarxa d'àrea local

**MAN (Metropolitan Area Network)** (n): xarxa d'àrea metropolitana

**net** (n): v. *network*

**network** (n): xarxa

**P2P** (n): v. *peer-to-peer network*

**PAN (Personal Area Network)** (n): xarxa d'àrea personal

**peer-to-peer network** (n): xarxa d'igual a igual

**to be online** (v): estar en línia, estar connectat

**to connect** (v): connectar-se

**WAN (Wide Area Network)** (n): xarxa d'àrea estesa

**web** (n): v. *network*

**WiFi** (n): v. *wireless network*

**wireless** (adj): sense fils, inalàmbric/a

**wireless network** (n): xarxa inalàmbrica, xarxa sense fils

**WLAN (Wireless Local Area Network)** (n): xarxa d'area local sense fils

**World Wide Web** (n): v. *Internet*

**WWAN (Wireless Wide Area Network)** (n): xarxa d'àrea estesa sense fils

**www** (n): v. *Internet*

## 1.4 Rewriting a text

Sometimes we must explain things to other people and look up the information in a written text. Then we must transmit that information in our own words, either to make it more clear or just because we cannot copy literally from the text for copyright reasons.

On the other hand, if you must write an article or develop a website, you need to develop methods of rewriting texts or you might be accused of plagiarism.

> Re-writing a text is not the same as summarizing. When you rewrite a text, you express the same ideas, but in other words. When you summarize a text, you only express the main ideas.

The usual way of writing an article or a text for a website is to look for the material in different websites, books or magazines, combine all the information and then write everything down in your own words. Essentially, you start with the ideas and expressions of the reference material and then you rewrite the text. To do so, you must express the same idea as the original, but using different words and even a different text structure. This does not mean, however, that you cannot introduce new ideas or develop existing ones.

For rewriting a text, you should know synonyms or look them up in a thesaurus. The more synonyms you know, the easier it will be to change a text whithout changing the ideas. The aim should be to replace about half of the original words, but you must be careful to choose words that can be exchanged without altering the fundamental meaning of the phrases and sentences. It is also very important to know how to express an idea with different syntactical structures

Here is an example of a text and its rewritten version. The objective is to make the original text more comprehensible to people with a lower level of English:

> *Original text:*
>
> **Can the government see what websites I visit?**
>
> Imagine you're shopping at a mall. You browse different stores, make a few purchases and move on. Then, you notice that a man you don't know seems to be following you. You even catch a glimpse of him taking notes on what you're looking at and buying. The entire time you've been shopping, you've been spied on!
>
> Many people fear that a similar thing is happening on the Web. They're worried that someone, usually the government, is recording and analyzing their Web browsing activity. They argue that these acts are an invasion of privacy. Are they right to be worried? Can the government keep track of all the Web sites everyone visits, and would it be able to act on that information?

> *Rewritten version:*
>
> **Can the government see what websites I visit?**
>
> Imagine you are in a shopping-mall. You look in different shops, buy a few things and move on. Then, you have the impression that an unkown man is watching you. He is even taking notes about the things you look at and buy. You have been spied all the time!
>
> Many people are afraid that the same thing is happening on the web. They are worried that someone, usually the government, is checking all the webpages that you visit. They think that they are invading their private lives. But are they right to be worried? Is it true that the government can see all the webpages that everyone visits? Could they do anything with all the information they get?

Notice that in order to make the original text more comprehensible, we have used more common synonyms for certain words and expressions and we have also changed some complicated structures to more simple ones. For example: *browse > look, store > shop, make a few purchases > buy a few things*, etc. We have also rewritten the sentence *They argue that these acts are an invasion of privacy* to the easier sentence *They think that they are invading their private lives*.

## 2. Computer networks

Computers are usually connected together to form a network. Therefore, a computer network is an interconnection of different computers. Networks have obvious advantages: for example, they allow computers to communicate with each other by sharing hardware and software, so the computers can exchange information and share several resources and peripherals. This *enables* all the users of a network to work faster and more flexibly. On the other hand, networks are more complex and expensive to set up and maintain, and they also allow viruses to spread quickly. Moreover, most networks have at least one central computer, called the server. If the server fails, all the other computers cannot work on the network.

According to the area covered by the network, we can distinguihs two basic types of computer networks:

- LAN (Local Area Network): a localised network that connects computers over a small distance, as for example, a room, a company department or a building. When the connection is wireless, it is called WLAN (Wireless Local Area Network).

- WAN (Wide Area Netweork): a collection of networks that forms a wider network that operates over a large area, such as different buildings, different cities or different countries and continents. If the connection is wireless, it is called WWAN (Wireless Wide Area Network). The largest WAN in existence today in the Internet, which covers most of the planet.

A network is composed of different hardware and software elements. The most important ones are: the **Network Interface Card (NIC)**, which is used to connect a computer to a network; **workstations**, which are the computers connected to a network; a **server**, the central computer on a network to which all the other networked computers are connected. It stores the data files and application software programs that the users need on a network; the **backbone**, that is, the main cabling that connects all the segments in a network. It is the main transmission path, and handles the major data traffic; a **hub**, which is a connection point of the elements of a network and it is used to redistribute the data; a **firewall**, which prevents *unauthorized* users from connecting to a specific machine on the network; a **protocol**, a set of formal rules which describe how to transmit data across a network. The most common suite of networking protocols is the TCP/IP; finally, the **router**, a device that links different networks or parts of networks, mostly used to connect users to the Internet.



Workstations: computers connected to the network

The components of a network can be linked in different ways, either with cables or using wireless technologies (WiFi). The shape of a network is called 'network topology'. There are four common network topologies:
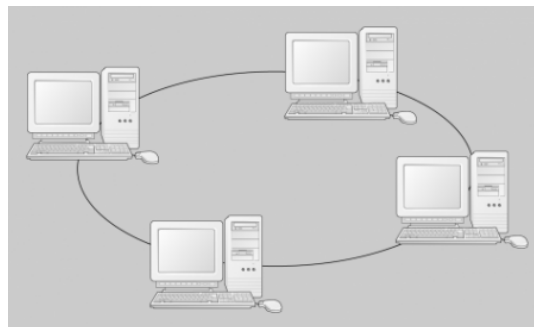
- **A star topology** has each device (computers, printers, etc.) individually connected to a server or central hub (central station). See the figure below:
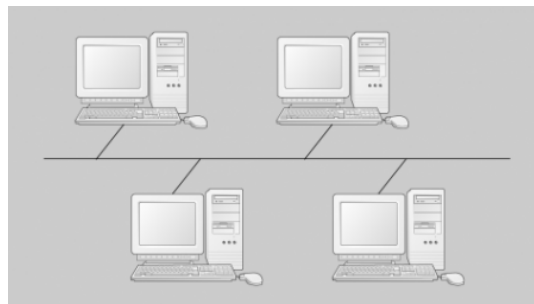


FIGURA 2.1. Star topology
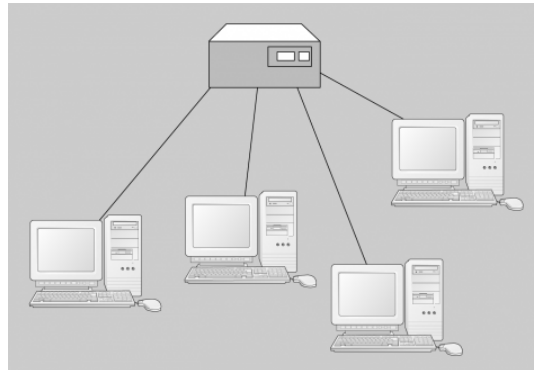
- **A ring topology** has all the devices connected to the same circuit, forming a closed loop or ring. See the figure below:
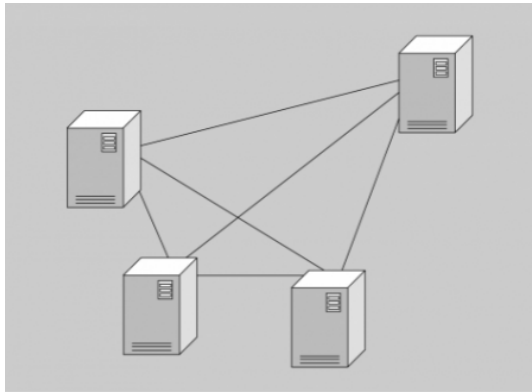


FIGURA 2.2. Ring topology

- **A bus topology** has all the devices connected to a main cable (called 'backbone') which is terminated at each end, so the two ends of the cable are not joined. See below:



FIGURA 2.3. Bus topology

- **A mesh topology** has all the devices connected to all the other ones in the network by means of their own cable. See the figure below:

**FIGURA 2.4.** Mesh topology



**Language notes**

- **Enable** (Cat. permetre). This verb is very formal. Other common alternatives are *allow* (*this allows users to work faster*) and *let* (*this lets users work faster*). Notice that the verbal complement of *allow* and *enable* is the infinitive with *to*, whereas the complement of *let* is the base form (without *to*).

- **Unauthorized**. (Cat. no autoritzat). The prefix *un-* added to an adjectives indicates the opposite characteristic. Other examples: *friendly / unfriendly* (Cat. simpàtic / antipàtic); *happy / unhappy* (Cat. feliç / infeliç)

## 2.1 Grammar

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).

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 | *big > bigger* (Cat. gran > més gran) |
| Two-syllable adjectives ending in -y | -IER | *happy > happier* (Cat. feliç > més feliç) |
| Other adjectives | MORE + adjective | *intelligent > more intelligent* (Cat. intel·ligent > més intel·ligent) |
| Irregular adjectives | | *good > better* (Cat. bo > millor) |
| | | *bad > worse* (Cat. dolent > pitjor) |

*Adverbs*:

TAULA 2.2. comparative forms of superiority (adverbs)

| Type of word | Comparative form | Examples |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Adverbs ending in -ly | MORE + adverb | *easily > more easily* (Cat. fàcilment > més fàcilment) |
| Other adverbs | -ER | *late > later* (Cat. tard > més tard) |
| Irregular adverbs | | *well > better* (Cat. bé > millor) |
| | | *badly > worse* (Cat. malament > pitjor) |
| | | *far > further* (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 | *big > the biggest* (Cat. gran > el més gran) |
| Two-syllable adjectives ending in -y | THE -IEST | *happy > the happiest* (Cat. feliç > el més feliç) |
| Other adjectives | THE MOST + adjective | *intelligent > the most intelligent* (Cat. intel·ligent > el més intel·ligent) |
| Irregular adjectives | | *good > the best* (Cat. bo > el millor) |
| | | *bad > the worst* (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*:

**TAULA 2.4.** superlative forms (adverbs)

| Type of word | Superlative form | Examples |
|---|---|---|
| Adverbs ending in -ly | THE MOST + adverb | *easily > most easily* (Cat. fàcilment > el més fàcilment) |
| Other adverbs | THE -EST | *late > the latest* (Cat. tard > el més tard) |
| Irregular adverbs | | *well > the best* (Cat. bé > el millor) |
| | | *badly > the worst* (Cat. malament > el pitjor) |
| | | *far > the furthest* (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*:

**FIGURA 2.5.** Comparative and superlative forms
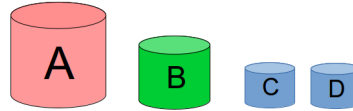


Now read these comparative and superlative sentences:

- 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:

**TAULA 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 *reason* (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.

**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.

**Questions that you may ask in a job interview**

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. The Internet

The Internet is the *largest* network that exists today. It covers the whole planet like a spider's web and for this reason it is also called the World Wide Web. The Internet is composed of thousands of servers and millions of workstations linked together. The servers host the websites, which are identified with an *internet address* (which usually begins with 'www' for 'world wide web'). The most common procedure to visit a website is typing the internet address. When you do so, you get connected to the host server, which sends you the required information.

The Internet is the most popular and *most widely used* function of a computer. It is so important that the authorities are making great efforts to extend the Internet connections all over the territory so that more and more people can have access to the web. Some people predict that in a near future most of the human activity will take place in the Internet, and that cinemas, shops, banks and even schools will disappear because everything will be done online. We do not know if such predictions will ever come true, but it is a fact that nowadays we can do almost everything comfortably from home and at any time of day and night.

An example of the substitution of traditional systems for online activity is the mail service. From a statistical point of view, the electronic mail (email) is the most widely used feature of the Internet. Emails have almost substituted the traditional posting service for the faster, more comfortable email service. The greatest advantage is that once you click on the 'Send' button, your message reaches its destination in a few seconds, even if it travels to the other end of the world.

Another important use of the Internet is surfing the web. Once you are connected to the world wide web, you can have access to millions of websites which offer an incredible variety of contents. You can also share your hobbies with people from all over the world in chats and forums included in many websites. You can share video files in file sharing websites, like YouTube, where you can upload and download videos. Many radio and television stations (like the BBC) offer part of their contents online, whereas other broadcasters only operate in the Internet. Similarly, the most important newspapers and magazines in the world have their online versions. This means that you can read the current issue of any newspaper in the world on the same day and without leaving your home.

Social networking services like Facebook or Twitter are very popular today. Once you register and create a profile, you can join a social network of people, called 'friends', and share messages, photos, videos and many other things. Social networks are giving rise to new forms of social relationships, and they have even become a powerful tool to mobilize thousands of people. In spite of their popularity, social networks are also very controversial, especially in what concerns their use by underage children.

Although the Internet is mainly used for entertainment, its most practical aspects are growing fast. The increasing popularity of e-banking and e-commerce is an example of that tendency. Some banks, like ING Direct, only operate online, and there are shops, like Amazon, which only sell in the Internet. An interesting aspect of e-commerce is that of the Internet auctions. There are websites like eBay where anybody can offer a product and sell it to the person who offers the highest price.

Another use of the Internet which is growing fast is that of *e-learning* (also called 'distance learning'). Nowadays, many schools and universities offer part of their studies online, but there are others, like the UOC for university education and the IOC for secondary and vocational education, which only offer online courses. Nowadays it is possible to get an official degree without going to school or to the university.



Computers can create addiction, especially among children

Computers in general, and the Internet in particular, contribute a lot to the comfort of our daily life, but we should also be aware of the problems that they generate. For example, our society is totally dependent on technology: if all the connections failed at the same time, the world would collapse. Computers can also create psychological problems like computer addiction, especially in children and young people. There are also problems related to internet security, like cybercrime, which is a crime committed with the malicious use of computers, or threats to people's privacy, including unauthorized use of private data and unwanted emails (known as 'spam').

**Language notes**

- **Large** (Cat. gran, enorme). Be careful with this adjective: the meaning is similar to that of *big*, but it denotes a greater size. Do not confuse with the adjective *long* (Cat. llarg/a).

- **Internet address**. When the word *internet* is used as an adjective (as in this case), we do not spell it with a capital letter. However, when we use it with the meaning of a 'network of networks', it is considered a proper noun and it is capitalized (*the Internet*).

- **Most widely used** (Cat. més utilitzat/da). When we use the superlative form with a past participle, we must use the adverb *widely* (Cat. amplament) to complete the meaning: for example, *the most widely used*, *the most widely spoken*, etc. It is wrong to say: *\*the most used* or *\*the most spoken*.

- **E-learning** (Cat. ensenyament a distància). The opposite term is *face-to-face learning* (Cat. ensenyament presencial).

## 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 younger...*, *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) + ...

Examples:

- 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 suggestions

| To agree | To disagree |
|---|---|
| Yes, we could do that | I'm afraid it's not a good idea |
| Yes, that's a good idea | 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*.

There is a difference in spelling between the noun (advi**c**e) (Cat. consell) and the verb (advi**s**e) (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/.

**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)* ...:

- *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. Responding 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'.

## 3.3 Vocabulary: the Internet and internet security

**antivirus** (n): antivirus

**certificate** (n): certificat

**cookie** (n): galeta, cookie

**cybercrime** (n): ciberdelinqüència

**encryption** (n): encriptament

**encrypted** (adj): encriptat/da

**firewall** (n): tallafocs

**hacker** (n): pirata informàtic

**hyperlink** (n): hiperenllaç

**IP spoofing** (n): suplantació d'identitat

**link** (n): enllaç

**login** (n): entrada (a un programa)

**password** (n): contrasenya

**phishing** (n): phishing, pesca

**piracy** (n): pirateria

**safe** (adj): segur/a

**security** (n): seguretat

**sniffer program** (n): analitzador de paquets, programa de rastreig

**to encrypt** (v): encriptar

**to load** (v): carregar, carregar-se

**to log in** (v): entrar

**to log off** (v): v. *log out*

**to log on** (v): v. *log in*

**to log out** (v): sortir

**to surf** (v): navegar (per internet)

**user name** (n): nom d'usuari

**virus** (n): virus

**web browser** (n): navegador

## 3.4 Further learning

At this point, there is no need to discuss the importance of the English language. Whether we like it or not, we are all aware that English has become the world language. It is the language of computers, the air, tha sea, the sports and the

business. In our global society, in which it is necessary to look out of our own borders to keep up with the other countries in our common race to the future, a good knowledge of English is a very important skill. Without that knowledge, a Spanish worker cannot compete with a European fellow worker.

A country that wants to be more competitive must design a plan to improve the people's knowledge of English. It is true that the government is making an effort to create the right conditions. The introduction of an English course in the curriculums of all the professional studies is a proof of that interest, but the truth is that the right environment to facilitate a good learning of English does not exist yet. Learning a language requires time and patience, although it is possible to acquire a good basic knowledge in only a few months. However, your objective should be to learn the language as well as possible.

At the end of your studies, you will get a degree that will mark you as a professional in your field, but if you also have a good knowledge of English, your working life will have greater possibilities of development. For all this, our recommendation is that you continue learning the language as much as possible.

This is our advice:

1. Create the right attitude to learn. Think of the importance of English to improve in your job and in your personal life. If you can speak English, you will compete with an advantage over other people who do not. This will create the motivation that is necessary in all learning, but especially in the learning of languages.

2. If you have time, take up some English course in a good language school or, better still, in the state language school (EOI), where you can get an official degree. If you do not have time to go to school, as it is probably the case, you can also study online, just as you are doing right now. The Internet offers a great variety of resources for self-learning. In this course, you have obtained, we hope, the necessary basis over which to build up your knowledge.

3. Remember that the four skills (reading, writing, listening and speaking) require constant practice. Create for yourself the right conditions in which to practise those skills. You can, for example, read articles of your interest in the Wikipedia (there is a version in Simple English) or browse the websites of international newspapers to learn the current news. You can also write a small diary in English, watch films in their original version with subtitles or listen to the BBC radio on the Internet. Remember that you do not need to understand everything, but you will get familiarized with the sounds of English, so it will be easier for you to understand people. If possible,get together with someone who speaks English and try to have a conversation in English. In this way, your spoken English canl gradually improve.

4. If you can, travel to an English-speaking country and use the language in a real context. Try to use the language structures that you have learned during your formal learning, even if you have to prepare them before speaking. Do

not be ashamed of speaking in English. Nobody will laugh at you for not speaking the language correctly.

5. Learning English requires a great effort, so be patient and do not get discouraged. Think of the many advantages that you will get if you learn the language well. Remember, however, that you do not meed to speak like a native speaker. You will have a good knowledge of English when you can understand the main ideas in a speech or a text, when you can write a short note in English and explain things with basic words.

This is then our final advice. We have been with you for a very short time, but we hope that at the end of this course you have the impression that your English has improved. Your learning has not finished yet, but now it depends on you. We wish you very good luck in your further studies and a brilliant future. Goodbye...