



# Anglès

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## Introduction

Welcome to the English course belonging to the Administration studies. The present material includes syntactical and lexical contents, reading texts, glossaries of specific terms and functional language. A good knowledge of English will have a positive influence on your personal success, your career training, your chances of promotion and possibly on a successful job search. These reasons alone would justify the inclusion of English in the official curriculums of the vocational studies, but a good knowledge of the language will also be very useful in many aspects of your daily life.

The present course has been designed for students and professionals working in the fields of business administration who have a certain knowledge of English and need to improve their skills. In order to follow this course appropriately, we recommend students to have at least a lower-intermediate level of the language (level B1 of the Common European Reference Framework for Languages). However, there are some extra resources in the course website which are specially destined to students with a low level of the language or even students with no level at all.

The course book will give you the theoretical knowledge (grammar and vocabulary) that you need to communicate in English effectively. The contents are divided into four units, and each unit is divided into three sections, which together cover different aspects of the English language. The total amount of work is of approximately 132 hours of work, 33h per unit. All the units have the same structure. The texts at the beginning of each section will offer you a good opportunity of checking and practising your reading comprehension and picking up some specific words referring to your professional field. Many of these words are collected in a glossary of terms and some of them are also explained in the languages notes which accompany the reading texts. Each section also includes a subsection devoted to a specific lexical aspect and one devoted to specific communication skills.

All the theoretical knowledge presented throughout the four units can be practised in the web material, which has the same structure as the written material. In the web material, you will find a variety of activities and interactive exercises (with answers) based on the four skills of the language: reading, writing, listening and speaking.

The four units and their corresponding sections have a title that reflect the thematic core of each one.

The unit called 'Organizations' deals with different aspects of business organizations, which, in this context, we should understand as a group of people that come together with the purpose of obtaining some benefits. In this sense, we can also speak about 'companies', 'enterprises' or 'businesses'. The sections within each unit reflect different aspects of the topics of the corresponding unit. Each topic is introduced through a reading text. The text called 'A SWOT analysis' describes the basic tool in the design of the business strategy of a company. As

the title suggests, the text called 'Markets' deals with that space where business transactions take commonly place; a market may refer to a geographical space, like a country, or to a specific group of people, like middle-aged women, for example. The text 'Sales and orders' is about two important activities in any commercial relationship: one person sells a product or service and another person buys that product or service; these activities must follow some procedures which are described in the text.

The unit called 'Arrangements' is about different examples of business events. The reading text in the section which is precisely called 'Events' speaks about two important activities in a business: trade fairs and presentations. The text in the section 'Travel' is about the business trips and especially about traveling by plane and booking rooms in a hotel. Finally, the section called 'A business meal' describes another type of event which may eventually take place in the course of our working life: a formal business meal.

The unit called 'People' focuses on different aspects of the relationships between the people within an organization. The section 'Communication' deals with the non-verbal communication, which is a communicative process in which we transmit our message through the use of gestures, facial expressions, etc, what we usually call 'body language'. The section called 'International relationships' is about the cultural differences, an important aspect that we sometimes overlook, but which is very important when we deal with people from other countries. Finally, the text in the section called 'conflict resolution' deals with the best way of dealing with the conflicts that inevitably arise between the members of an organization.

The unit called 'Work' deals with the topic described in the titles. The section 'Looking for a job' is devoted to explaining the important process of looking for a job, with a look at the elements that compose that process, like the curriculum vitae, the cover letter and the interview. The section 'Job recruitment' looks at the topic from the opposite point of view; it describes the process and the methods of finding the right employees for a company. The section called 'Working abroad' gives some ideas in case you want or you need to look for a job in another country, a difficult process that requires a lot of patience and the appropriate knowledge to go through the long procedure.

When you start the study of a unit, the first thing that you should do is to look at the contents page in the course book to see what you will have to study in that unit. The book is not actually designed as a study book, but as a manual where you can check only what is required for a specific activity. You won't probably need to read the majority of the sections, but they are available for you in case you want to study a specific topic. For the sake of organization, we shall follow the units in correlative order, but you may need to look for information in any unit.

Use a dictionary or an automatic translator if you have problems with the language. A translator is very useful to find the meaning of a word, a sentence or a whole text, but it is totally inappropriate for producing written texts in English. To do so, use a traditional bilingual dictionary for looking up the meaning of words, and apply the syntactical rules that are described in the course. You should be aware that this course is designed at the B1 level, so there are some basic grammar topics, like the use of auxiliary verbs or the forms of the personal pronouns, that are not

treated in the four units of this course book. In case you need to find out anything about these topics, you may check the websites listed in the link 'Recursos', which you will find in your course website.

To check your knowledge of the topics in this course or to get some further practise, you can go to the web material and do the activities and exercises that you will find there. When you do your activities, go back to the book frequently to look up the information that you need. In case of doubt with the contents of this course, check the complementary resources that you will find in the class website or ask your teacher or your classmates.

The course book, the web material, the 'Material complementari' and the links to interesting websites in 'Recursos' will offer you a variety of learning materials which we hope will facilitate your study of the English language. Good luck!





## Learning objectives

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

1. Understand oral messages in standard language through any means of communication, both in daily life situations and in the professional field of administration and finance, and understand the contents of the message accurately.
2. Understand complex written texts related to the field of administration and finance and analyze the contents comprehensively.
3. Produce clear, well-organized oral messages frequently used in jobs related to the field of administration and finance and analyze the context of the situation, adapting yourself to the other's linguistic register.
4. Write texts normally used at work and in the daily life and use the appropriate register for each situation.
5. Show the appropriate attitude and behaviour in communicative situations as established by international conventions.



## **Contents**

### **Anglès**

#### **Unit 1**

##### Organizations

1. Companies
2. Markets
3. Sales and orders

#### **Unit 2**

##### Arrangements

1. Events
2. Travel
3. A business meal

#### **Unit 3**

##### People

1. Communication
2. International relationships
3. Conflict resolution

#### **Unit 4**

##### Work

1. Looking for a job
2. Job recruitment
3. Working abroad



# Organizations

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Anglès



# Índex

<b>Introduction</b>	<b>5</b>
<b>Learning objectives</b>	<b>7</b>
<b>1 Companies</b>	<b>11</b>
1.1 Reading: a SWOT analysis . . . . .	11
1.2 Glossary of terms: the company . . . . .	12
1.2.1 Communication: language styles . . . . .	15
1.2.2 Grammar reference: sentence structure (I) . . . . .	19
<b>2 Markets</b>	<b>27</b>
2.1 Reading: markets . . . . .	27
2.2 Glossary of terms: marketing . . . . .	29
2.2.1 Communication: business correspondence . . . . .	31
2.2.2 Grammar reference: sentence structure (II) . . . . .	41
<b>3 Sales and orders</b>	<b>47</b>
3.1 Reading: the sales strategy . . . . .	47
3.2 Glossary of terms: commerce . . . . .	49
3.2.1 Communication: talking about time and place . . . . .	51
3.2.2 Grammar reference: prepositions of time and place . . . . .	55





## Introduction

The unit is called 'Organizations'. In this particular context, the name refers to a group of people who get together with the purpose of selling a product or service and making a benefit for themselves. The most obvious form of this type of organization is the company, which is also called 'enterprise' or 'business'. A company is the most common setting for the working life of a student of 'Administració i finances'. In the unit, you will be introduced to some aspects of the companies and will learn the specific vocabulary used in the context of business organizations.

The unit is divided into three sections. Each section develops a different aspect related to the topic of the unit. All the sections are divided into different subsections which explain the contents of the course. You will find a reading text, a glossary of terms, and sections devoted to vocabulary, grammar and communication. The unit will introduce you to the world of the business organizations. The reading texts will allow you to practise your reading skills and acquire the specific vocabulary, which is gathered in the glossaries. The vocabulary and grammar subsections will provide you with the basic material that conforms a language, and the communication subsection will serve you to put your knowledge into practice by giving examples of the use of the language in different situations related to the context of business administration.

The first section is called 'Companies' and it is devoted to describing this specific form of organization. It starts with a reading text where you will learn about the SWOT analysis, a technique which is widely used to design the business strategies of a company. The text is accompanied by some language notes and a glossary of terms with a list of commonly used words related to companies. The vocabulary describes the prepositions of time and two related topics: the expression of the dates and the clock times. The grammar section explains the structure of the English statements and the English questions. This will help you organize your sentences and improve your writing skills. The communication section is devoted to the language styles. On one hand, you will learn about the formal and informal styles, whose difference is of great importance in English; on the other hand, you will see the different characteristics of the oral language and the written language, with a special reference to the use of punctuation when writing a text.

The second section is called 'Markets'. A market is where the commercial activity takes place. It can be a physical territory, sometimes as big as the whole world, or a specific group of people, like women, teenagers or children. A good knowledge of the market is essential for a company to maximise its benefits. The text describes two types of markets: the emerging countries, which have a great potential, and the digital markets, a new form of making business that has been favoured by the technological development. The glossary of terms includes a list of words related to marketing, which is the practice of advertising a product or service

and introducing it into the market. The vocabulary subsection is devoted to describe the connectors, which are the words and expressions used to link different sentences and give coherence to a text. The grammar subsection introduces the verb tenses used to speak about the present. These verb tenses are the present simple and the present continuous. You will learn about the formation and use of both tenses. The communication section is devoted to explain the use of the reference material, which is essential for a student of English. The reference material is used to complement the contents of the course material and it is composed of dictionaries, websites, grammar books and other resources as, for example, automatic translators.

The section called 'Sales and orders' is devoted to the basic commercial activities: selling and buying. A company produces a certain product, which is introduced into the market, where it is bought by the customers who wish to buy it. The reading text describes the marketing techniques, the sales process, which implies the sellers and buyers, and the customer service, a service created mostly by big companies in order to maintain their customers and to solve the problems derived from the sales process. The glossary of terms lists some basic words related to the world of commerce. The grammar subsection presents two verb tenses used to speak about the past: the past simple and the past continuous. You will learn about their form and their use, with a special reference to the comparison between both tenses. Finally, the communication subsection deals with three types of texts which are very common in the context of business administration: the business letters, which have a high degree of formality, the emails and the text messages. You will learn about the characteristics and special language used in each type of text.

You do not need to follow a particular order to study the contents of the unit. Most probably you will not even need to study all the contents, but only those which are necessary to solve the situations that you will find in the course. When you read a text, you can use the glossary of terms to find the meaning of the specific vocabulary or you can use a dictionary to look up other words that you do not know. The vocabulary and grammar subsections will help you do the grammar exercises whereas the communication subsection will be especially useful to solve the practical situations that you will find in the written activities.

## Learning objectives

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

1. Understand oral messages in standard language through any means of communication, both in daily life situations and in the professional field of administration and finance, and understand the contents of the message accurately.

- Identify the main idea in a message.
- Identify the finality of oral messages in standard language as well as the tone and feelings of the speaker.
- Get information from recorded messages in standard language related to the professional field of administration and finance.
- Identify the points of view and attitude of the speaker.
- Identify the main ideas in a speech in standard language and at normal speed about specific and abstract issues related to the field of administration and finance.
- Understand the details of a message in standard language, even with background noises.
- Identify the main ideas in a speeches, reports and professional presentations related to the field of administration and finance.
- Be conscious of the importance of understanding a message as a whole, even if you don't understand all the words.

2. Understand complex written texts related to the field of administration and finance and analyze the contents comprehensively.

- Read a text with a high degree of autonomy, adapting the style and speed of the reading to different types of text and objectives.
- Read the details of long and relatively complex texts related to the field of administration and finance.
- Relate the text to its corresponding context.
- Quickly identify the contents and importance of pieces of news, articles and reports related to the field of administration and finance and decide whether a deeper analysis is necessary.
- Translate complex texts related to the field of administration and finance using reference materials, if necessary.

- Interpret technical messages in different means: post, fax and email, among others.
  - Interpret long and complex instructions related to the professional field.
  - Choose reference material and technical dictionaries and use automatic translators.
3. Produce clear, well-organized oral messages frequently used in jobs related to the field of administration and finance and analyze the context of the situation, adapting yourself to the other's linguistic register.
- Identify the registers used in oral messages.
  - Express yourself fluently, accurately and efficiently in a great variety of professional and daily life situations, clearly establishing the relationship between the different ideas.
  - Express yourself spontaneously with the appropriate degree of formality according to the situation.
  - Use the appropriate protocol in formal and informal introductions.
  - Make a correct use of the technical words related to the field of administration and finance as normally used in your profession.
  - Express and defend your points of view clearly by using the appropriate explanations and reasoning.
  - Describe the steps in a process related to your professional field.
  - Explain the choice of a specific option in detail.
  - Require the repetition of a speech or part of a speech when necessary.
  - Apply the appropriate interaction formulas normally used in your professional field.
4. Write texts normally used at work and in the daily life and use the appropriate register for each situation.
- Write clear, detailed texts about a variety of issues related to the professional field, summarizing and considering the information from different sources.
  - Organize the information correctly, accurately and coherently and ask for and/or give general and detailed information.
  - Write reports related to the professional field pointing out the relevant aspects and giving details to support your points.
  - Fill in documents related to the professional field.
  - Apply the standard rules and the specific vocabulary used to fill in administrative, accounting, fiscal and financial documents.

- Summarize articles, pieces of news and other types of information related to the professional field using a great variety of words to avoid frequent repetitions.
- Understand the most important points in manuals, regulations, legislations and other written texts as normally used in the field of administration and finance.
- Use the appropriate protocol rules that apply to a specific document.

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

- Define the most distinctive aspects of the customs of your professional field in the use of a foreign language.
- Describe the social conventions of the English-speaking countries.
- Identify the values and beliefs which are characteristic of English-speaking countries.
- Apply the social conventions in English-speaking communities.
- Identify the language traits of different regions.



## 1. Companies

A company, also called a firm, an enterprise or a business, refers to an organization whose main objective is to obtain the maximum benefit possible by selling products or offering a service. A SWOT analysis is a technique destined to create the best conditions, both internal and external, in which a company can maximise its benefits. The result of that analysis will mark the business strategy of the company and contribute to the decision taking.

The text in the section describes the elements of a SWOT analysis and introduces the main concepts related to this technique.

### 1.1 Reading: a SWOT analysis

The acronym SWOT stands for **S**trengths, **W**eaknesses, **O**pportunities and **T**hreats. A SWOT analysis is an excellent tool for auditing a company and its environment. It is the first stage in the planning of a business, it fosters collaboration and it integrates different types of information.

We can use this technique on a personal level to analyse our strengths and weaknesses, to minimise the threats and to take the greatest advantage possible of the opportunities offered by the environment. The final objective is trying to fit in as well as possible in an organization.

In a business context, a SWOT analysis allows a company to distinguish itself from competitors and compete with them. It also helps to discover opportunities and to eliminate threats by analysing the company's weaknesses.

Strengths and weaknesses are internal factors whereas opportunities and threats are usually external factors. They are identified through internal assessments and external benchmarking.

A company's strengths define the internal positive attributes and are used to develop a competitive advantage over the competitors. Weaknesses may prevent the company from becoming competitive, but they are usually within a company's control, so they can take measures to minimise their negative effects.

Opportunities are a factor that allows a company to increase their profits. Opportunities usually depend on external conditions (for example, an increase of people's consume habits), but they are very often created by the companies themselves through their marketing strategies. On the other hand, threats are challenges created by an unfavourable trend that may lead to deteriorating profits.

The table below shows an example of a SWOT analysis diagram with a list of positive and negative factors that may influence a company's benefits.

TAULA 1.1. Examples of factors in a SWOT analysis

Strengths	Weaknesses
Specialized marketing expertise	Lack of marketing expertise
A new innovative product or service	Undifferentiated products or services
Good location of business	Bad location of business
Quality processes and procedures	Poor quality of goods and services
Patents	Damaged reputation
Opportunities	Threats
A developing market	New competitors in domestic market
Mergers and joint ventures	Price wars with competitors
New market segments with improved profits	Innovative product or service
No trade barriers	Trade barriers

The identification and the careful analysis of the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats are very important to set up the strategic plan of a company.

#### Language notes

- **Phrasal verbs:** in the text, we can find two examples of phrasal verbs (verb + preposition): *to fit in* (Cat. encaixar, adaptar-se) and *set up* (Cat. fer, crear, muntar).
- **Reflexive verbs:** broadly speaking, reflexive verbs are those that have the same subject and direct object, as in *I wash myself* (Cat. jo em rento [a mi mateix]). These verbs add a reflexive pronoun (myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves). The pronoun must agree with the noun it refers to. There is an example in the text: *a SWOT analysis allows a company to distinguish itself from competitors*. In this example, the reflexive pronoun *itself* agrees with *a company*.
- **Reflexive pronouns:** reflexive pronouns are sometimes added to nouns for giving emphasis, as in: *the companies themselves* (Cat. les mateixes empreses, les pròpies empreses).
- **Company/firm/business/enterprise:** these four words are generally used to refer to the Catalan term *empresa*, although there are some small differences in meaning between the terms.
- **Countable and uncountable nouns:** the word *employee* (Cat. empleat/da) is a countable noun that refers to an individual worker in a business. The word *staff* (Cat. empleats) is an uncountable noun that refers to all the workers as a whole. Their counterparts are: *employer* (Cat. empresari) and *management* (Cat. equip directiu).

## 1.2 Glossary of terms: the company

Here are some words commonly used to talk about a company:

- *assessment*: avaluació
- *benchmarking*: comparativa de mercats
- *benefit*: benefici



- *board room*: sala de juntes
- *branch office*: sucursal
- *business*: negoci, empresa
- *company*: empresa, companyia
- *department*: departament
- *employee*: empleat
- *employer*: empresari
- *enterprise*: empresa
- *facilities*: instal·lacions
- *firm*: empresa, firma
- *headquarters*: seu central
- *management*: patronal
- *management team*: equip directiu
- *meeting room*: sala de reunions
- *office*: oficina, despatx
- *organizational chart*: organigrama
- *post*: càrrec
- *position*: càrrec
- *staff*: empleats
- *SWOT analysis*: anàlisi DAFO
- *team*: equip
- *teamwork*: treball en equip
- *trade union*: sindicat
- *worker*: obrer, empleat, treballador

Here is a list of some relevant positions in a business:

- *account manager*: director de comptes
- *administrative assistant*: administratiu
- *assistant manager*: subdirector, director adjunt
- *branch manager*: director de sucursal
- *business manager*: director comercial

- *chief auditor*: cap d'auditoria
- *development manager*: director de desenvolupament
- *finance director* (BrE); *chief financial officer (CFO)* (AmE): director financer
- *chief financial officer (CFO)*: director financer
- *general manager*: director general
- *head of department*: cap de departament
- *managing director* (BrE); *chief executive officer (CEO)* (AmE): director general
- *president*: president
- *project manager*: director de projectes
- *receptionist*: recepcionista
- *sales manager*: director de vendes
- *secretary*: secretari/ària
- *senior manager*: executiu/va

### 1.2.1 Communication: language styles

There are different styles in a language. On one hand, we can distinguish between formal and informal language. On the other hand, we can distinguish between written and oral language. Each style has its own rules and its own vocabulary.

The English are very fond of language protocol, so it is very important to use each style in the appropriate situation. When we have a conversation with a colleague, for example, we must follow the rules of the oral and informal language, but when we write a business letter, we must use the written, formal style.

#### Formal style vs informal style

In English, there is a great difference between the formal language and the informal language. Here are the main characteristics of each style:

##### Formal style:

- Does not use colloquial words/expressions (use: “post” instead of “job”, “I would appreciate it if...” instead of “I would like...”, etc.).
- Does not use contractions (write full words: I am, do not, cannot, will not, etc.).
- Writes in third person (except in business letters, where the first person may be used).
- Does not address readers using the second person pronouns (use: “the reader” instead of “you”, etc.).
- Does not use abbreviated words (use full versions, like “photograph”, and not “photo”; “television”, and not “TV”, etc.).
- Does not use the imperative voice (say: “could you send me...?” instead of “send me...”).
- Uses the passive voice (for example: “it is believed that...” instead of “we believe that...”).
- Uses longer and more complex sentences (short and simple sentences makes a writing poor).

##### Informal:

- Uses colloquial words and expressions (well, kids, guy, etc.).
- Uses contractions (I’m, don’t, can’t, won’t, etc.).
- You may use first, second, or third person.

- You may address readers using the second person pronouns (you, your, etc.).
- You may use abbreviated words (photo, TV, etc.).
- You may use the imperative voice (for example: Send me..., Please remember..., etc.).
- You may use the active voice (for example: we believe that..., etc.).
- You may use short and simple sentences.

Remember that both styles are correct. It is a matter of tone and setting. Formal English is generally used in academic writing and business communication whereas informal English is appropriate for communication with friends and relatives. When you choose the style of writing, you should think what you are writing and who you are writing to, but you must be consistent and not mix the two styles.

Here is an example of a **formal text** requesting some information:

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

Here is the same text, but using the **informal style**:

“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 the job. Can you tell me more about it? Thanks.”

### Written language vs oral language

The characteristics of the oral language and the written language depend on the way in which we transmit the message: the oral language uses words and it is immediate whereas the written language uses letters and the result remains on a screen or a piece of paper, so we can go back and make corrections, if necessary. In general, the oral language tends to be more informal than the written language.

The two types are also related to the four skills:

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

## The written language

Unlike the oral language, which makes use of non-verbal communication to transmit the message, a written text is just what we see. When we speak, we can leave sentences unfinished, and change the tone of our voice to express feelings and emotions, but we cannot do so in a written text.

The characteristics of the written language are the following:

- It uses long forms: *I am, he is, I have got*, etc.
- It has some grammatical constructions that are only used in writing: *We are looking forward to your reply*, etc.
- It is organized in paragraphs.
- It makes a great use of connectors.
- It includes punctuation.
- The sentences are longer than in speech and they include subordinate clauses.
- In general, it is more formal than the oral language.

As with all the skills, writing a text correctly requires some practice. Here are some tips for producing a good written text:

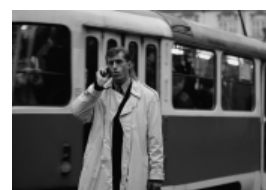
1. Write short, simple sentences. The text might look poor at first, but as you advance in your knowledge of English, you can write longer sentences.
2. Organise your text into different paragraphs to separate the different blocks of information. Leave a blank space between the paragraphs.
3. Think about the right words to express your ideas. Use a dictionary in case of doubt, but pay attention to false friends and other confusing words.
4. Look for possible syntactical mistakes in the text. Think about the grammar rules that you have learned. If you have any doubts, look up the grammar explanations that you can find in your coursebook or elsewhere (websites, grammar references, etc.).
5. Check the spelling. Use a dictionary if you have any doubts.
6. Go over the punctuation rules and try to apply them to your writing, including the correct use of capital letters.

See the annex called "English phonetic symbols" for a description of the English sounds.

## The oral language

Listening and speaking are the two oral skills of a language. Listening means understanding an oral message. On the other hand, speaking means producing an oral message. For many people, the oral skills are very difficult because they require a lot of practice, but they are very important because in our interactions with other people we mostly use the oral language.

The following are some characteristics of the oral language:



- It uses more contractions to facilitate the pronunciation: *I'm, he's, I've got*, etc.
- It has colloquial words and expressions: *hi, bye, see you*, etc.
- It has frequent interjections and exclamations: *wow!, er, oops, no!, really?*, etc.
- The sentences are usually shorter than in the written language.
- The speech is full of hesitations, interruptions, self-corrections, etc.

There are two basic types of oral texts:

- A speech: one person speaks and one or more people listen.
- A conversation: a minimum of two people speak and respond to each other.

Both types share the characteristics of the oral language, but a speech is usually more formal than a conversation. In fact, a speech very often consists on reading a text aloud.

Here is a short list of contractions and expressions commonly used in speech, but rarely found in written texts:

- gonna (=going to)
- wanna (=want to)
- 'cause (=because)
- gotta (=I have got to)
- Great! (=excellent!)
- I'd rather (=I prefer)
- I'm dying to (=I would like very much to)
- Are you into...? (=Are you interested in...?)
- Dammit! (exclamation to express irritation)

Learning how to speak English fluently is not easy because it requires a lot of practice, especially when the learning takes place in a virtual classroom. Here are some ideas that can help you develop your speaking skills:

1. Do not pay much attention to the formal grammar that you have learned. This may sound strange, but think that many English native speakers only know about 20% of the grammar rules of their language. However, they can speak fluently. This is so because they have learned the language in a natural way. The idea is that you do not waste much time remembering grammar rules when speaking because they will be applied automatically as you gain more and more confidence.

2. When speaking, do not translate from your mother tongue. The syntactical structures of both languages are probably very different and this may lead to make lexical and grammatical mistakes. Instead, try to “think” in English and speak directly in that language.
3. Speaking requires a lot of practice. You can learn the grammar rules and lots of new words in one evening if you can memorise them, but you cannot certainly learn how to speak in one evening. This requires time and patience, so you need to find a way of practising your speaking skills, which leads to the fourth rule...
4. Surround yourself with an English-speaking context. This does not mean that you must go and live in England, Ireland, the USA or Australia (although this would be very good for your speaking skills). You can practise by getting together with people who speak English and decide to devote at least an hour to speak only in that language. You can talk to other learners like you who need to practise their speaking, but the best thing is to find a native English speaker (not necessarily a teacher) who can help you by talking and listening to you.
5. If you cannot find a person to talk to, study with appropriate material. The Internet offers thousands of websites where you can practise your oral skills.

### 1.2.2 Grammar reference: sentence structure (I)

The sentence structure refers to the order in which we write the elements that compose a sentence. This order is established by the grammatical rules of the language.

These are the most important elements of a sentence:

- **Subject.** It indicates the person or thing that does the action of the verb, or the person or thing that the sentence refers to. In the sentences: *John is running home* and *she is French*, the subjects are: *John* and *she*.
- **Verb.** It expresses the actions, the feelings or the state of the subject. In the sentences: *John is running home* and *she is French*, the verbs are: *is running* and *is*.
- **Complements:** They give information about who, what, where, when, etc. In the sentences *John is running home* and *she is French*, the complements are: *home* and *French*.

There are different types of complements. The most important ones are:

- **Subject complement.** It describes or identifies the subject. In the sentence: *she is French*, the subject complement is: *French*.

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Unlike Catalan or Spanish, in English we must always express the subject.

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- **Direct object.** It receives the action of the transitive verbs. In the sentence: *he is reading a book*, the direct object is: *a book*.
- **Indirect object.** It refers to the person or thing to which the direct object is directed. In the sentence: *I will send my friend a present*, the indirect object is: *my friend*, whereas *a present* is the direct object.
- **Adverbial of manner.** It tells how an action is made. In the sentence: *he spoke very slowly*, the adverbial of manner is *very slowly*.
- **Adverbial of place.** It tells where the action takes place. In the sentence *John is running home*, the place adverbial is: *home*.
- **Adverbial of time.** It tells when the action takes place. In the sentence *I met her last year*, the time adverbial is: *last year*.

In English, all the sentences must have at least a subject and a verb.

### The structure of English statements

A statement is a sentence in which the subject gives some information. A sentence can be affirmative or negative. Although sometimes there is flexibility in the position of the elements, these tend to go in a certain order.

#### Affirmative sentences

These are the basic structures of the affirmative sentences:

##### A) SUBJECT + VERB

- *She is sleeping* (Cat. Està dormint)
- *I will come* (Cat. Vindré)
- *We have finished* (Cat. Hem acabat)

##### B) SUBJECT + VERB + DIRECT OBJECT

- *We had a meeting* (Cat. Vam tenir una reunió)
- *I painted the room* (Cat. Vaig pintar l'habitació)
- *He bought a new car* (Cat. Va comprar un cotxe nou)

##### C) SUBJECT + VERB + INDIRECT OBJECT + DIRECT OBJECT

- *He gave his son all his money* (Cat. Va donar tots els seus diners al seu fill)
- *I wrote him a letter* (Cat. Li vaig escriure una carta)
- *We sent Mr Smith an email* (Cat. Vaig enviar un correu electrònic al Sr. Smith)



But it is possible to change the order if we express the indirect object with the preposition *to*:

- *He gave all his money to his son*
- *I wrote a letter to him*
- *We sent an email to Mr Smith*

#### D) SUBJECT + VERB + ADVERBIALS (MANNER + PLACE + TIME)

- *I travelled by plane to Paris last night* (Cat. Ahir a la nit vaig viatjar a París amb avió)
- *He waited patiently in the room for three hours* (Cat. Va esperar pacientment a dins de l'habitació durant tres hores)

#### Notes

1. Remember that an English sentence always has an explicit subject.
2. A sentence rarely includes all the complements.
3. A verb is not usually separated from its direct object. We must say: *I like the summer very much* (it is wrong to say: *I like very much the summer*).

#### Negative sentences

These are the structures of the negative sentences:

#### A) SUBJECT + DO/DOES/DID + NOT + VERB (in the base form)

- *You do not look well* (Cat. No tens bon aspecte)
- *She does not work in the evening* (Cat. No treballa per les tardes)
- *I did not see anything* (Cat. No vaig veure res)

#### B) SUBJECT + AUXILIARY/MODAL + NOT

- *I am not English* (Cat. No sóc anglès)
- *I was not listening* (Cat. No estava escoltant)
- *You should not come so late* (Cat. No hauries de venir tan tard)
- *We cannot speak French* (Cat. No parlem francès)

### Notes

1. The auxiliaries *do/does* are used in the present whereas *did* is used in the past.
2. In informal style, we commonly say and write the negative forms like this: *don't, doesn't, didn't, wasn't, weren't, can't, shouldn't, won't (=will not), wouldn't*, etc.
3. The form *can + not* is spelt as one word: *cannot*

### The complex sentences

Sometimes a sentence is composed of a main clause and a subordinate clause. A main clause is the part of the sentence that has a meaning of its own; the subordinate clause is the part of the sentence whose meaning depends on the existence of the main clause. For example:

*She is sleeping because she is very tired* (Cat. Està dormint perquè està molt cansada).

Main clause: *She is sleeping...*

Subordinate clause: *...because she is very tired*

The normal order of a complex sentence is:

#### A) MAIN CLAUSE + SUBORDINATE CLAUSE

- *I was listening to music...when she arrived* (Cat. Estava escoltant música quan ella va arribar).
- *I will call you...if I know anything* (Cat. Et trucaré...si sé alguna cosa).
- *She is the person...who called yesterday* (Cat. És la persona...que va trucar ahir).

### Notes

1. For reasons of emphasis, there is a lot of flexibility in the order of the main clauses and the subordinate clauses, so we can also say: *When she arrived, I was listening to music* or *If I know anything, I will call you*. However, we cannot change the order of the relative clauses. It is wrong to say: *Who call you yesterday, she is the person*.
2. When we place the subordinate clause in the first place, we must write a comma (,) to separate it from the main clause.

## The structure of English questions

There are two types of questions:

- *wh-questions*: they ask for specific information (what, who, where, etc.).
- *yes/no questions*: they only require a yes or no answer.

Here are the different structures of the English questions:

### Wh-questions

A) INTERROGATIVE PRONOUN + DO/DOES/DID + SUBJECT + VERB (in infinitive) + COMPLEMENTS...?

Examples:

- *Why do you work on Sundays?* (Cat. Per què treballes els diumenges?)
- *Where does your brother work?* (Cat. On treballa el teu germà?)
- *What did you do yesterday?* (Cat. Què vas fer [tu] ahir?)

B) INTERROGATIVE PRONOUN + AUXILIARY/MODAL VERB + SUBJECT + COMPLEMENTS...?

Examples:

- *Where are you?* (Cat. On ets [tu]?)
- *What is he doing?* (Cat. Què està fent [ell]?)
- *What languages can you speak?* (Cat. Quins idiomes parles?)
- *What should I do?* (Cat. Què hauria de fer [jo]?)
- *Who have you met?* (Cat. A qui t'has trobat?)

C) WHO/WHAT + VERB (conjugated) + COMPLEMENTS...?

Examples:

- *Who saw you in the library?* (Cat. Qui et va veure a la biblioteca?)
- *Who came to yesterday's meeting?* (Cat. Qui va venir a la reunió d'ahir?)
- *What will happen?* (Cat. Què passarà?)
- *What has caused all these problems?* (Què ha provocat tots aquests problemes?)

### Use of auxiliary verbs in questions

Lexical verbs (that is, all except the auxiliary and modal verbs) form the questions with *do/does* in the present simple tense and *did* in the past simple tense (see structure A). However, sometimes there is no auxiliary verb (see structure C). This happens when the interrogative pronoun (*who* or *what*) is the subject of the question. Compare these two questions:

- *Who did you see last night?* (Cat. A qui vas veure (tu) ahir a la nit?)
- *Who saw you last night?* (Cat. Qui et va veure (a tu) ahir a la nit?)

### Yes/no questions

A) DO/DOES/DID + SUBJECT + VERB (in infinitive) + COMPLEMENTS...?

Examples:

- *Do you work on Sundays?* (Cat. Treballes els diumenges?)
- *Does your brother speak any languages?* (Cat. Parla el teu germà algun idioma?)
- *Did you go to the meeting?* (Cat. Vas anar a la reunió?)

B) AUXILIARY/MODAL + VERB + SUBJECT + COMPLEMENTS...?

Examples:

- *Are you in the office?* (Cat. Ets al despatx?)
- *Is Laura speaking on the phone?* (Cat. Està Laura parlant per telèfon?)
- *Have you ever been in Ireland?* (Cat. Has estat alguna vegada a Irlanda?)
- *Can you speak English?* (Cat. Parles anglès?)
- *Should I go?* (Cat. Me'n hauria d'anar?)

### Question mark

Do not forget to write a question mark (?) at the end of the sentence. In the oral language, we mark a question with the intonation:

- *wh- questions*: falling intonation. The voice falls on the final stressed syllable of the sentence.
- *yes/no questions*: rising intonation. The voice rises at the end of the sentence.

## Short answers

We often answer yes/no questions simply with 'yes' or 'no', without adding any other information. These are called *short answers*. However, in English answering a question with only 'yes' or 'no' may sound very rude. The language protocol requires that we add the corresponding subject pronoun and auxiliary (or modal) verb.

Here are some examples of short answers with auxiliary verbs:

- Are you in the office? - *Yes, I am / No, I am not.*
- Is Laura speaking on the phone? - *Yes, she is / No, she isn't.*
- Have you ever been in Ireland? - *Yes, I have / No, I haven't.*
- Do you work in the evening? - *Yes, I do / No, I don't.*
- Does Mike help you with your job? - *Yes, he does / No, he doesn't.*

When the question has a modal verb, we must answer with the modal verb. For example:

- Can you speak English? - *Yes, I can / No, I can't.*
- Should I go? - *Yes, you should / No, you shouldn't.*
- May I talk to you? - *Yes, you may / No, you may not.*
- Must we stop now? - *Yes, we must / No, we mustn't.*
- Will Mary come this evening? - *Yes, she will / No, she won't.*
- Would you like a coffee? - *Yes, I would / No, I wouldn't.*

However, if we add more information, it is not necessary to use a short answer:

- Are you in the office? - *Yes, but I'll go in a minute.*
- Is Laura speaking on the phone? - *No, I think she's in a meeting.*
- May I talk to you? - *Yes, of course.*
- Will Mary come this evening? - *No, she doesn't feel very well and prefers staying at home.*



## 2. Markets

The place where the forces of supply and demand operate is called the 'market'. This may refer to a physical place, like a country, or to a nominal place, as for example, a certain group of people, like women or young men. In our present times, which are characterised by the phenomenon of globalisation, the market of a single company may cover the whole world.

The text in this section describes two types of market: the emerging markets, composed of a number of countries with a great potential for business, and the digital markets, which operate in the Internet at a global scale.

### 2.1 Reading: markets

A market can be defined as the place (actual or nominal) where the forces of demand and supply operate. In other words, it is the place where buyers and sellers interact to trade goods and services. The markets include mechanisms for determining the price of the goods or services, for facilitating transactions and for distributing the goods and services. The market for a particular item is composed of the existing and potential customers who need that item and want and can pay for it. Companies develop marketing techniques in order to influence the market and maximize their benefits.

#### Emerging markets

Nowadays, the most interesting markets for many companies are the 'emerging' or 'developing' countries. These countries have undertaken political and economic reforms in order to move from a closed to an open market economy. The economic growth of the emerging countries has opened up a market composed of millions of people. Therefore, these countries offer a high potential for the economies of developed countries.

The map in figure below shows the distribution of the emerging countries and the developed countries.

One characteristic of these markets is an increase in foreign investment as a result of reforms in the exchange rate systems of the emerging countries. Foreign investment has positive consequences for these countries: the unemployment rate goes down, the labour and managerial skills improve and there is a transfer of technology between the developed countries and the emerging countries.

**FIGURA 2.1.** Emerging markets (in black) and developed countries (in dark gray)

Investing in emerging countries has many advantages (for example, the lower salaries of their workforce), but there is also the risk of unexpected political and economical disorders which may ruin all the expectations.

### Digital markets

Nowadays, a new form of market is rapidly emerging. The new communication technologies and the development of computers have destroyed the barriers and have shortened distances and time. The globalisation has created business environments which are very different from those in the past. In order to keep up with the times, companies must substitute their traditional marketing strategies for a new model based on flexibility and new methods of organisation and they must also adapt themselves to new technologies and to a changing, heterogeneous market. A good market strategy, however, must not over-standardise products for the sake of globalisation. To be successful, companies must take into account the national differences which affect language, cultural tastes or legal requirements, for example.

This new form of market is called 'digital market'. The potential consumers are not found in a particular geographical area, but in a vast territory, the Internet, which covers most of the planet. The trade which is carried out in the Internet is generally called 'e-commerce'. The new technologies offer many advantages. In the Internet, buyers can search for a product or service, compare sellers, read product reviews and see the opinions of other buyers, and they can do this quickly, cheaply, at any time of day and night and seven days a week. On the other hand, sellers can reach large numbers of consumers, extend their businesses to all the world without the need of opening branch offices and quickly adjust their prices and products to the changes in people's demands. They can also eliminate intermediaries and collect information about consumers' habits and preferences in order to customise products and provide personalised levels of service.

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*Phishing* consists on sending an email falsely claiming to be an established, legitimate company in an attempt to impell the user to submit private information, which is later used for identity theft.

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In spite of the great advantages of e-commerce, there are also some risks which are associated to the globalisation of the Internet. Viruses, worms, Trojan horses, diallers, spyware, spam and phishing are some security threats which may interfere in digital transactions. Therefore, the great technical challenge of the digital markets is to provide solutions related to security and privacy in the Internet. However, users must also learn to manage the risks and take the necessary precautions when buying and selling in the digital markets.



### Language notes

- **Punctuation: use of the colon (:):** the colon is often used to introduce examples. *Foreign investment has positive consequences for these countries: the unemployment rate goes down...* We can also introduce examples by using the connectors *for example, as for example, like* or *for instance*.
- **actual/nominal:** these two adjectives are used in the text to contrast two types of market. *Actual* is a false friend (it does not have the meaning of the Catalan term *actual*, but it means Cat. *real, de veritat*). On the other hand, *nominal market* (Cat. *nominal*) means *in name only, theoretical*.
- **client/customer:** these words are often interchanged, but there is a difference in meaning: *client* refers to the person who engages the service of a professional (for example, a lawyer); a *customer* is the person who buys a product.

## 2.2 Glossary of terms: marketing

- *ad*: anunci
- *advertisement*: anunci
- *advertising campaign*: campanya publicitària
- *appealing*: atractiu/va
- *brand name*: marca comercial
- *catchy slogan*: eslògan encomanadís, fàcil de recordar
- *client*: client
- *commercial*: anunci televisiu
- *customer*: client
- *demand*: demanda
- *financing*: finançament
- *funding*: finançament
- *jingle*: sintonia d'un anunci
- *launching strategy*: estratègia de llançament
- *market leader*: líder de mercat
- *market strategy*: estratègia de mercat
- *marketing*: marketing, tècniques de mercat
- *own-label product*: producte de marca blanca
- *patent*: patent

- *presentation*: presentació
- *private label*: marca blanca
- *producer*: productor
- *product*: producte
- *product design*: disseny del producte
- *product line*: línia de productes
- *product name*: nom del producte
- *product range*: gamma de productes
- *research and development*: I+D, investigació i desenvolupament
- *sample*: mostra
- *seller*: venedor
- *share*: quota de mercat
- *sponsorship*: patrocinis
- *supply*: subministrament
- *target*: objectiu, públic potencial d'un producte
- *to appeal*: atreure
- *to be entrenched*: estar consolidat (un producte)
- *to finance*: finançar
- *to launch*: llançar, treure al mercat
- *to patent*: patentar
- *to sponsor*: patrocinar
- *to supply*: subministrar
- *to target* (un producte o servei): anar dirigit a, estar destinat a
- *trademark*: marca registrada

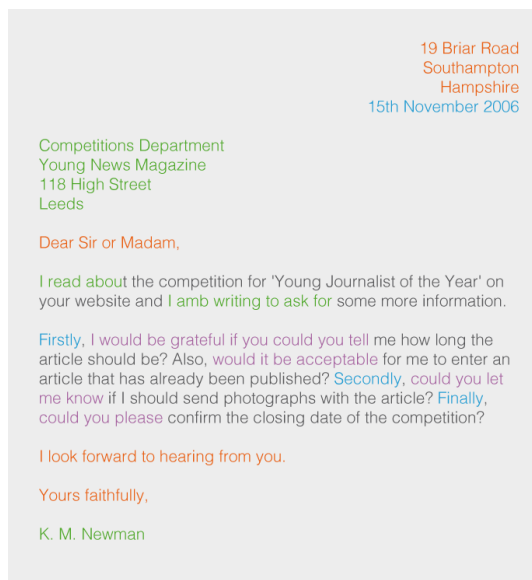
## 2.2.1 Communication: business correspondence

The email is nowadays the most widely used form of communication in the business world because it is much cheaper and faster than the postal mail. However, business letters are still used in some situations, so it is necessary to learn the language rules that are applied in these documents. We must also be very careful with syntax, vocabulary, spelling and punctuation.

### Business letters

The figure below shows an example of a business letter. The objective is to ask for information.

FIGURA 2.2. A business letter



### The layout of a business letter

The layout refers to the position of the different elements that compose the letter. It is very important to write each element in the correct place. The most common layout is the following:

1. **The writer's address:** on the top right corner of the page. Do not include your name in the address.
2. **Date:** below your address (but the date may also go below the receiver's address). Be aware of the correct date format.
3. **The receiver's name and address:** a line below the writer's address, on the left-hand side of the paper.
4. **Opening:** two lines below the date. Begin with *Dear* + the receiver's title and surname" (for example, *Dear Mr Jones*). If you don't know the

- receiver's name, write: *Dear Sir or Madam*. Write a comma after the opening.
5. **Body of the letter:** two lines below the opening. Separate the text clearly into paragraphs and use the appropriate language. Pay attention to the punctuation.
  6. **Ending formula:** we could use the standard phrase *I look forward to hearing from you*.
  7. **Closing phrase:** two lines below the body of the letter, always on the left-hand side. The standard closing expression is: *Yours faithfully* (if we do not know the receiver's name) or *Yours sincerely* (if you know the receiver's name). Write a comma at the end.
  8. **Signature:** sign your letter after the closing phrase and type your name and surname below.
  9. **Enclosure:** if you enclose a document with the letter, write it down after your signature (for example, *Enc: Curriculum vitae*).

### The language of business letters

We can use different degrees of formality in a business letter, depending on our relationship with the receiver. The style can be:

1. very formal: when you do not know the person you are writing to.
2. formal: when you know the name, but do not know the person.
3. semi-formal: when you know the person.

The difference in formality is especially evident in the conventional opening and closing phrases:

#### Opening phrases:

- Very formal: *Dear Sir or Madam, Dear Sirs*
- Formal: *Dear Mr/Mrs Jones*
- Semi-formal: *Dear Michael Jones*

#### Closing phrases:

- Very formal: *Yours faithfully* (BrE), *Yours truly* (AmE)
- Formal: *Yours sincerely* (BrE), *Sincerely* (AmE)
- Semi-formal: *Best regards, Best wishes*

---

The abbreviations refer to the variety of English: BrE (British English); AmE (American English).

Independently of the degree of formality, there are some standard phrases to express common ideas in business letters. For example:

**Explaining the purpose of your letter:**

- *I am interested in (applying for the post of personal assistant) ...*
- *I am writing about (the meeting) ...*

**Referring to the last contact with the receiver:**

- *With reference to your letter of (28th October), ...*
- *Following our phone conversation (yesterday), ...*
- *Thank you for your letter of last (28th October), ...*

**Referring to the subject of the letter:**

- *Regarding the question of (your complain), ...*
- *Regarding your advertisement for (the post of personal assistance), ...*

**Referring to enclosures (if any):**

- *I am enclosing (my CV)*
- *Enclosed is a copy of (my CV)*

**Making requests:**

- *I would be grateful if you would (send me a copy of your complain)*
- *I would appreciate it if you would (send me a copy of your complain)*

**Ending the letter (before the closing phrase):**

- *I look forward to hearing from you*
- *Many thanks for your help in this matter*

**Remember:**

1. A business letter should never be handwritten.
2. Do not use contractions (I don't, I'm writing, etc.). Contractions reproduce the spoken language, so they do not correspond to the formality of the text.
3. Do not add postscripts. Give all the information in the body of the letter.

## Emails

An email is nowadays the fastest and cheapest means of communication in the business world. In emails, we do not need to worry about the layout.

In general, emails are more informal than business letters and have fewer rules. However, there are some points that we should remember when we write an email:

1. Write your email as short as possible.
2. Do not write in capital letters. The use of capital letters in emails implies that you are shouting and it is considered very rude.
3. Write formal emails to people that you do not know (the opening and closing phrases and the language are the same of business letters).
4. Write semi-formal emails to people that you know.
5. Emails to colleagues and friends can be informal.

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The set of rules that governs the correct style of emails is called 'netiquette'.

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As for the contents of the email:

1. Start with the most important information.
2. Write the less important information in a separate paragraph.
3. If the other person does not know about the situation you are writing about, explain it carefully at the beginning.

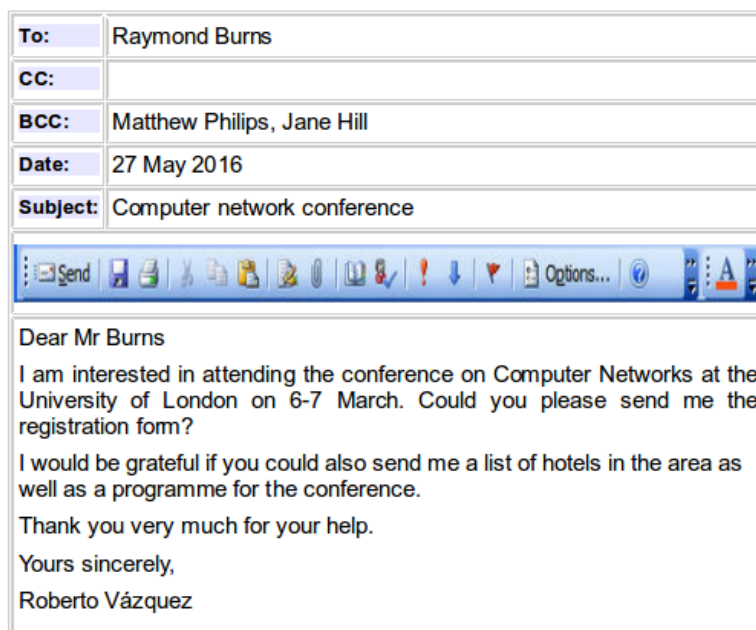
If you are replying to a previous mail:

1. Avoid replying only “yes” or “no”. Refer back to the question and then give your answer. A “No” answer normally requires an explanation.
2. Use the “Reply” tool to send your message. In this way, the original message will be revealed and it will be easier to refer to the previous message.
3. Do not forget to write the subject of your email. The subject should summarize the purpose of the message in as few words as possible
4. Always sign your email.

As with business letters, emails also have a standard format that organizes the information. However, the places for your name, the receiver’s address, the date and the subject are clearly indicated and often appear automatically. Two other elements that are common in emails are “carbon copy” (abbreviated to CC), where you can include the names of other people who will also receive the message, and “blind carbon copy” (abbreviated to BCC), where you include other people who will receive a copy of the message, but their names will be invisible to the main receiver (the person in the field “TO”).

In this figure you can see an example of the language in a formal email message:

FIGURA 2.3. An email



## Connectors

Connectors (also called *linking words*) show how the ideas are related to one another. Connectors are very important because they give coherence and clarity to the texts. Compare a text without connectors and the same text using connectors.

Here is a 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 cruel 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. Its use is not controlled. The Internet has both advantages and disadvantages. People must learn to use it for positive aims.”

Here is the same text with connectors (in bold type):

“**Although** the Internet has some advantages **because** it is useful to broaden your knowledge and meet new people, it **also** has some disadvantages **due to**, **for example**, its free access to pages which show cruel violence and crimes. **On 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** its use is not controlled. **In conclusion**, the Internet has both advantages and disadvantages, **but** people must learn to use it for positive aims.”

From a syntactical point of view, some connectors are placed at the beginning of

the sentence, others are placed in the middle and others are placed at the end. The connectors below are classified according to their meaning. The examples show their usual position in the sentence:

#### Positive addition:

- **and** (Cat. i): *I like reading **and** listening to music.*
- **as well as** (Cat. així com): *I play football **as well as** handball.*
- **also** (Cat. també): *He likes music - I **also** like music.*
- **too** (Cat. també): *He likes music - I like music **too**.*
- **as well** (Cat. també): *He likes music - I like music **as well**.*
- **besides** (Cat. a més a més): *It rained all the time. **Besides**, it was cold.*
- **moreover** (Cat. a més a més): *It rained all the time. **Moreover**, it was cold.*
- **in addition** (Cat. a més a més): *It rained all the time. **In addition**, it was cold.*

#### Negative addition:

- **or** (Cat. ni): *I don't like getting up early **or** going out at night.*
- **neither...nor** (Cat. ni...ni): *They **neither** work **nor** study.*
- **either** (Cat. tampoc): *He doesn't like music - I don't like it **either**.*

#### Disjunctive conjunctions

- **or** (Cat. o): *Do you prefer working in the morning **or** in the evening?*
- **either...or** (Cat. o...o): *I like working **either** in the morning **or** in the evening.*

#### Condition:

- **if** (Cat. si): *I will help you **if** you want.*
- **unless** (Cat. a menys que, si no...): *We can eat outside **unless** it's very cold.*

#### Contrast:

- **but** (Cat. però): *It's quite expensive **but** it's very good.*
- **however** (Cat. malgrat tot, no obstant): *It's quite expensive. **However**, it's very good:*
- **although** (Cat. tot i que, encara que): ***Although** it's very expensive, it's very good.*



- **even though** (Cat. tot i que, encara que): *It's quite expensive **even though** it's very good.*
- **though** (Cat. malgrat tot): *It's quite expensive. It's very good **though**.*
- **in spite of** - (Cat. malgrat): *We had a great time **in spite of** the rain.*
- **while** (Cat. mentre que): *In the morning it was fine **while** in the evening it rained very hard.*
- **whereas** (Cat. mentre que): *In the morning it was fine **whereas** in the evening it rained very hard.*
- **on the other hand** (Cat. per altra banda): *I was very tired. **On the other hand**, I was very satisfied with the work.*
- **on one hand...on the other hand** (Cat. per una banda...i per l'altra): ***On one hand**, I was very tired. **On the other hand**, I was very satisfied.*
- **on the contrary** (Cat. al contrari): *It was not cold. **On the contrary**, we were very hot all the time.*

#### Exception:

- **except for** (Cat. excepte, llevat de): *I finished everything **except for** some small details.*
- **apart from** (Cat. a part de): ***Apart from** Tommy, nobody else came to the meeting.*

#### Explaining ideas:

- **that is to say** (Cat. és a dir): *The reason is crystal clear, **that is to say**, very clear.*
- **that is** (Cat. és a dir): *The reason is crystal clear, **that is**, very clear.*
- **in other words** (Cat. en altres paraules): *The reason is crystal clear. **In other words**, it's very clear.*

#### Giving examples:

- **like** (Cat. com): *We visited several cities, **like** Liverpool and Manchester.*
- **such as** (Cat. com ara): *We visited several cities, **such as** Liverpool and Manchester.*
- **for example** (Cat. per exemple): *We visited several cities. **For example**, Liverpool and Manchester.*
- **as for example** (Cat. com per exemple): *We visited several cities **as for example** Liverpool and Manchester.*

**Listing ideas:**

- **first** (Cat: primer): ***First**, I'll speak to Mr Smith.*
- **firstly** (Cat. primerament): ***Firstly**, I'll speak to Mr Smith.*
- **in the first place** (Cat. en primer lloc): ***In the first place**, I'll speak to Mr Smith.*
- **first of all** (Cat. primer de tot): ***First of all**, I'll speak to Mr Smith.*
- **at first** (Cat. en un principi): ***At first**, I didn't see anything.*
- **to begin with** (Cat: per començar): ***To begin with**, you shouldn't get nervous.*
- **secondly** (Cat. en segon lloc): ***Secondly**, I'll listen to his proposal.*
- **after this** (Cat. després d'això): ***After this**, I'll listen to his proposal.*
- **next** (Cat. després, a continuació): ***Next**, I'll listen to his proposal.*
- **then** (Cat. després, aleshores): ***Then** I'll listen to his proposal.*
- **afterwards** (Cat. després) ***Afterwards**, I'll listen to his proposal.*
- **finally** (Cat. finalment): ***Finally**, I'll decide what to do.*
- **in the end** (Cat. al final, en últim lloc): ***In the end**, I'll decide what to do:*

**'After' and 'afterwards'**

Do not confuse the meaning of the time connectors *after* and *afterwards*. *After* is a preposition, so it is placed before a noun (*after the class*). *Afterwards* is an adverb and it is followed by a sentence (*Afterwards, I went out*).

**Time connectors:**

- **when** (Cat. quan): *He called me **when** I wasn't at home.*
- **whenever** (Cat. sempre que): *You may come **whenever** you want.*
- **as soon as** (Cat. tan aviat com, així que): *Please call me **as soon as** you get home.*
- **while** (Cat. mentre): *I was trying to concentrate **while** he was speaking on the phone.*
- **meanwhile** (Cat. mentrestant): *He was speaking on the phone. **Meanwhile**, I was trying to concentrate.*
- **before** (Cat. abans de): *Please turn off the lights **before** you leave the office.*
- **after** (Cat. després de): *we went out **after** work.*
- **then** (Cat. aleshores, després): *We waited for Laura. **Then**, we went home together.*

**Expressing purpose:**

- **to** (Cat. per a, per tal de): *I work **to** earn a salary.*

- **in order to** (Cat. per a, per tal de): *I work **in order to** earn a salary.*
- **in order not to** (Cat. per a no, per tal de no): *I didn't say anything **in order not to** damage your reputation.*

### Expressing reason and cause:

- **as** (Cat. com que, ja que): ***As** it was raining, we stayed at home.*
- **because** (Cat. perquè): *We stayed at home **because** it was raining.*
- **because of** (Cat. a causa de, degut a): *We stayed at home **because of** the rain.*
- **due to** - (Cat. a causa de, degut a): *We stayed at home **due to** the rain.*
- **as a result of** (Cat. com a conseqüència de): ***As a result of** the economic crisis, many people have lost their jobs.*

### 'Because' and 'because of'

These two connectors are easily confused. *Because* is placed before a sentence (*because it is raining*). *Because of* is followed by a noun or pronoun (*Because of the rain*).

### Expressing a result:

- **so** (Cat. per tant, així que, de manera que): *It was raining hard **so** we stayed at home.*
- **therefore** (Cat. en conseqüència, per tant): *It was raining hard. **Therefore**, we stayed at home.*
- **for this reason** (Cat. per aquesta raó, per aquest motiu): *It was raining hard. **For this reason**, we stayed at home.*

### Summarizing:

- **in conclusion** (Cat. en conclusió): *We spent everything we had. **In conclusion**, we can lend you no money.*
- **in short** (Cat. en resum, en poques paraules): *We spent everything we had. **In short**, we can lend you no money.*
- **to sum up** (Cat. en resum, resumint): *We spent everything we had. **To sum up**, we can lend you no money.*
- **summing up** (Cat. en resum, resumint): *We spent everything we had. **Summing up**, we can lend you no money.*

### Spelling and punctuation

When we write, we do not usually pay much attention to the punctuation marks. However, punctuation is very important in a written text because it contributes to mark the pauses and to separate the meanings of a sentence. On the other hand, we should also pay attention to spelling: a text with spelling mistakes indicates carelessness on the part of the writer and diminishes the value of the message.

## Punctuation

Here are some basic rules for the punctuation of a text:

- Do not write a comma (,) between the subject and the verb.
- Write a full stop (.) at the end of a sentence. If the sentence ends with a question mark (?) or with an exclamation mark (!), do not write the full stop.
- Adverbials and connectors at the beginning of a sentence are usually separated from the sentence by a comma. For example: *Nowadays , a message takes only second to travel to the other end of the world, In the first place , decide what you want to say.*
- Write a colon (:) to introduce a list of items or an explanation. Example: *The continents are: Europe, Asia, Africa, America and Oceania.*
- Write a comma to separate the elements in a list, except those separated by *and* or *or*. Example: *the days of the week are Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday , Thursday , Friday , Saturday and Sunday.*
- Use the semi-colon (;) to separate the groups of items in a list. Example: *In computing, we must distinguish between hardware and software. Hardware refers to the material parts of a computer (keyboard, monitor, printer, loudspeakers, etc.) ; software refers to programming and includes operating systems, compilers, editors, etc.*
- Use the brackets to add some extra information to a sentence. Example: *All letters must be signed ( that is, write your name and surname at the end ).*

## Spelling

Spelling refers to the way in which the words are written. We must learn the correct spelling of words at the same time as their meanings, but there are some basic rules that can help us with the spelling:

- Words ending in -Y change to -I- when we add a suffix: *family > families; heavy > heavier; happy > happiness*
- Words ending in -F or -FE change to -V- when adding a suffix: *half > halves; knife > knives*
- One-syllable words with 1 vowel + 1 final consonant double the consonant when adding a suffix: *big > bigger; swim > swimming*
- The final, silent -E is dropped when adding a suffix (except in words in -CE and -GE): *close > closing; write > writing, but: notice > noticeable; courage > courageous*

## Differences between British and American English

There are some differences in the spelling between British and American English. The most common are:

- BrE. -RE > AmE. -ER: *centre/center, theatre/theater*
- BrE. -OUR > AmE. -OR: *colour/color, labour/labor*
- BrE. -IZE/-ISE > AmE. always -IZE: *organise (or organize)/organize, apologise (or apologize)/apologize*
- BrE. -ENCE > AmE. -ENSE: *defence/defense, licence/license*
- BrE. vowel + L, the L is doubled when adding a suffix > AmE. the L is not doubled: *travel>traveller/traveler; fuel>fuelled/fueled*

An important aspect of spelling is **capitalization**, that is, the correct use of capital letters. As in Catalan and Spanish, capital letters are used at the beginning of a sentence, after a stop (.) and with proper names. Apart from this common use, in English we also capitalize words in the following cases:

- The subject pronoun *I*.
- The adjectives derived from proper names: *English, Catalan, Spanish, Freudian*, etc.
- Days of the week and months of the year: *Monday, Tuesday, January, February*, etc.
- Names of holidays: *Christmas, Easter, Halloween*, etc.
- Titles with the person's name: *Mr Smith, Mrs Brown, Queen Elizabeth*, etc.

### 2.2.2 Grammar reference: sentence structure (II)

Sometimes, the complement of a verb is another verb. When this happens, the verbal complement can take either the infinitive or the gerund, which are two invariable forms of the verb. The following structures are very common:

- VERB + INFINITIVE
- VERB + GERUND

There are no rules for knowing which verbs take the infinitive and which verbs take the gerund as their complements, so we must learn the syntactical structure as a whole.

Apart from being verbal complements, the infinitives and gerunds are also used in some other cases.

#### Use of the infinitive

The infinitive is the form of the verb without any inflections. We can distinguish between the *to-infinitive* (as for example, *to write, to do, to speak*, etc.) and the *bare infinitive*, or infinitive without 'to' (for example, *write, do, speak*, etc.). The negative is formed by adding *not* before the infinitive (*not to write, not to do*, etc.)

## The to-infinitive

The to-infinitive is used:

1) As verbal complements of certain verbs. The table includes shows common verbs followed by *to* + infinitive:

TAULA 2.1. Verbs followed by infinitive (with to)

agree	appear	arrange	ask	attempt
begin	can't afford	can't wait	care	chance
choose	claim	come	consent	continue
dare	decide	deserve	determine	elect
endeavour	expect	fail	get	guarantee
hate	hesitate	hope	hurry	intend
learn	like	love	plan	manage
mean	offer	pay	prepare	pretend
promise	prove	refuse	request	say
seem	swear	tend	threaten	want
wish	would like			

### Attempt and intend

The meanings of these verbs are confusing: *attempt* (=try) (Cat. intentar); *intend* (Cat. pretendre, tenir la intenció de).

Examples:

- *He attempted to get up* (Cat. Va intentar aixercar-se).
- *He can't afford to pay for the rent* (Cat. No pot permetre's pagar el lloguer).
- *He doesn't dare to say anything* (Cat. No s'atreveix a dir res).
- *I failed to get the job* (Cat. No vaig aconseguir la feina).
- *I intend to ask for a rise* (Cat. Tinc la intenció de demanar un augment de sou).
- *He refused to listen to me* (Cat. Es va negar a escoltar-me).

2) After an adjective:

- *It's interesting to talk to people.* (Cat: És interessant parlar amb la gent)
- *It's strange to be here again.* (Cat: És estrany tornar a ser aquí)

3) As the subject of a sentence (in the formal, written language):

- *To smoke is very bad* (Cat. Fumar és molt dolent)
- *To retire is my lifelong dream* (Cat. Jubilar-me és el somni de la meva vida)

4) To express the purpose or intention:

- *I studied hard to pass the exam* (Cat. Vaig estudiar molt per a aprovar l'examen)

- *He came **to see** you* (Cat. Va venir a veure't)

Some verbs must have an indirect object. In this case, the sentence structure is:

- SUBJECT + VERB + INDIRECT OBJECT + TO + INFINITIVE

The table below includes some common verbs with an indirect object:

TAULA 2.2. Verbs with object + to-infinitive

advise	allow	cause	convince	encourage
forbid	force	hire	invite	order
permit	persuade	remind	require	teach
tell	urge	warn		

Exemples:

- *I advise you **to go** and talk to the director* (Cat. T'aconsello que vagis a parlar amb el director).
- *You should encourage Jim **to take** the exam* (Cat. Hauries d'animar a Jim a fer l'examen).
- *They forced me **to unlock** the door* (Cat. Em van obligar a obrir la porta).
- *I must remind you **not to say** anything* (Cat. T'haig de recordar que no diguis res).

### Bare infinitive

The bare infinitive is used in these cases:

1) After modal verbs:

- *Can I **go**?* (Cat. Puc marxar?).
- *You should **get up** earlier* (Cat. T'hauries de llevar més d'hora).

2) After the auxiliary *do* in negative and interrogative sentences:

- *We didn't **like** the show* (Cat. No ens va agradar l'espectacle).
- *Do you **speak** French?* (Cat. Parles francès?).

3) As a complement of the verbs *let* (Cat. permetre) and *make* (Cat. obligar a):

- *I didn't let her **go** alone* (Cat. No la vaig deixar que hi anés sola).
- *He made me **cry*** (Cat. Em va fer plorar).

4) After the following expressions:

- *Had better* (Cat. Més val que): *You had better go now* (Cat. Més val que que te'n vagis).
- *Would rather* (Cat. M'estimaria més, preferiria): *I would rather live in the country than in the city.* (Cat. Preferiria viure al camp que a la ciutat).

### Use of the gerund

The gerund is formed with the verb + the ending *-ing* (for example: *writing, doing, speaking*, etc). The negative is formed by adding *not* in front of the gerund (*not writing, not doing*). The gerund is used:

1) As the complement of certain verbs and verbal expressions. The following table below shows the most important verbs followed by a gerund.

**TAULA 2.3.** Verbs followed by the gerund

acknowledge	admit	advise	allow	attempt
avoid	be worth	begin	can't bear	can't help
can't stand	celebrate	confess	consider	continue
defend	delay	deny	detest	discuss
dislike	enjoy	explain	feel like	finish
forgive	hate	imagine	justify	keep
like	love	(not) mind	miss	postpone
practise	prefer	prohibit	propose	prevent
quit	recommend	regret	report	start
suggest	support	tolerate	try	understand
urge				



Examples:

- *He acknowledged **stealing** the money* (Cat. Va reconèixer que havia robat els diners).
- *The idea is worth **trying*** (Cat. Val la pena intentar posar en pràctica la idea).
- *I can't bear **waiting** for people* (Cat. No suportó esperar la gent).
- *I can't help **laughing** when I think about it* (Cat. No puc evitar riure quan hi penso).
- *He can't stand **driving** in the city* (Cat. No aguanta conduir per la ciutat).
- *I feel like **having** a coffee, and you?* (Cat. Tinc ganes de prendre un cafè, i tu?).
- *Do you mind **going out** please?* (Cat. T'importa sortir si us plau?).

2) After a preposition:

- *I went to bed without **having** dinner* (Cat. Vaig anar a dormir sense sopar).
- *He's sure of **not finding** a job* (Cat. Està segur de no trobar feina).

3) When the verb is the subject or the object of a sentence (in this case the verb has the function of a noun):

- ***Smoking** is very bad* (Cat. Fumar és molt dolent).
- *His main duty is **attending** meetings* (Cat. La seva feina principal és assistir a reunions).

### Verbs that take the gerund or the infinitive

Some verbs can take the gerund or the infinitive **without any change in meaning**.

Some of these verbs are:

- **Like:** *I like reading* or *I like to read* (Cat. M'agrada llegir).
- **Love:** *I love driving* or *I love to drive* (Cat. M'encanta conduir).
- **Prefer:** *I prefer waiting* or *I prefer to wait*. (Cat. Prefereixo esperar)
- **Hate:** *I hate getting up in the morning* or *I hate to get up in the mornings* (Cat. Detesto llevar-me d'hora als matins).

In general, BrE prefers the forms in gerund and AmE prefers the forms in infinitive. The forms with *would* always take the infinitive with *to*:

- *I would like to go* (Cat. M'agradaria anar-hi).
- *I would prefer to go immediately* (Cat. Preferiria anar-hi immediatament).
- *I would hate to do this* (Cat. Odiaria fer això).



### 3. Sales and orders

Selling and buying are at the basis of all commercial transactions. A company produces and sells a product and a person or another company buys that product. This is the basic form of business.

The products that are sold and bought in the market depend on the laws of supply and demand of that specific market. The capitalist economies are characterised by a free market, which means that it is not regulated by other forces than those of the laws of supply and demand. In this type of economies, there is a fierce competition to get as big a share of the market as possible, and for this reason, companies must design marketing strategies, whose main objective is to attract and keep large numbers of customers.

The text in this section briefly describes the marketing and sales processes as well as the customer service, which is a very important marketing strategy whose main objective is to deal with the customers' complaints and promote their loyalty.

#### 3.1 Reading: the sales strategy

Buying and selling are the key activities to all commercial transactions. The main goal of a business is to sell their products or services with the purpose of making as much benefit as possible. For this reason, it is very important to set up an appropriate sales strategy that guarantees the success of a business. The sales strategy may be defined as the set of activities destined to sell a product or service. Such activities include methods of reaching the customers, the planning of the sales process and the follow-up activities.

#### Marketing

The first step in a sales strategy is the analysis of the market for the product or service offered by the company. The main tool for doing so is the SWOT analysis, which helps to determine the competitive differences with other similar products and to find the strengths and weaknesses of the company in that particular market. A sales strategy must also establish different methods for reaching potential customers. Depending on the budget and the market business, companies can promote their products and services in different ways, as for example, online advertising, newspaper advertisements, networking, TV and radio commercials, sponsorships, or public presentations. The set of activities used to introduce and promote a product or service is called 'marketing'. The professionals in charge of planning these activities are called 'marketers'.

## The sales process

The sales process can be defined as the set of activities that contribute to close a sale. The process begins when the customer inquires about a product. The company provides the customer with the required information. The information usually includes a description of the product and a quotation, which includes the terms of payment and sometimes a discount or special offer. If the customers agree with the terms, they place an order for the product. On receiving the order, the company checks if the product is in stock and, if so, they confirm the order and send a delivery date. Finally, the supplier packs the goods and sends them to the customers together with the invoice, which is a bill used when goods are sold as part of a commercial transaction. The invoice is the most common document required for clearing shipments through customs and it is used to determine the value of the goods and the tariff classification.

The sales process implies the payment of the Value Added Tax (VAT), which is a tax paid on most business transactions involving the transfer of products and services. Companies pay an input tax on their purchases and charge an output tax on their sales.

## Customer service

A successful sales strategy does not end when the sales process is finished. Companies do not only work to gain new customers, but also to retain existing ones. Companies do so through their customer service.

The customer service may also contribute to the planning of the sales strategies as it is a very useful tool to identify the customers' needs and requirements. Companies usually pay a lot of attention to providing a good customer service because it helps to improve the company's image and to increase the satisfaction and loyalty of the customers, which results in increased sales and survival in terms of competition.

If the customers are not satisfied with the commercial service offered by a company, they can contact the customer service and raise a complaint. In the world of commerce, a complaint is a formal legal document that sets out the basic facts and reasons to support a claim against an individual or a company in order to request compensation, usually a change of the product or a rebate.

### Language notes

- **So:** the word *so* is sometimes used to replace a sentence and avoid repetition. In the text, we can find three examples of this use: 1) *The first step in a sales strategy is the analysis of the market for the product or service offered by the company. The main tool for doing so is...*; 2) *On receiving the order, the company checks if the product is in stock and, if so, they...*; 3) *Companies do not only work to gain new customers, but they must also work to retain existing ones. Companies do so through...*
- **Success:** this word may be confusing. It means Cat. 'èxit', not Cat. 'succés', as we may believe from its form. On the other hand, there is also the English word *exit*, which means Cat. 'sortida'. In the text, we can also find the related adjective *successful* (Cat. *que té èxit*).
- **Competition/competence:** the term *competition* (Cat. *competència*) is used in the world of commerce to refer to the existence of other companies selling similar products. Do not confuse with the term *competence* (Cat. *competència*), which refers to a person's abilities.

- **Complaint/to complain:** notice the difference is the spelling. The former, ending in 't', is a noun (Cat. queixa) whereas the latter is a verb (Cat. queixar-se). When the complaint implies a formal procedure, we normally say: *to raise a complaint* (Cat. formular una queixa).
- **Quotation/budget:** these two words have the same meaning (Cat. pressupost), but *quotation* is more formal and it is mostly used in the field of commerce; *budget* is more informal and it is used in a more general sense.

### 3.2 Glossary of terms: commerce

- *advertising:* publicitat
- *advertising agency:* agència de publicitat
- *benefit:* benefici
- *budget:* pressupost
- *buyer:* comprador
- *commerce:* comerç
- *commercial:* comercial, referit al comerç
- *competition:* competència, competidors
- *competitive:* competitiu/va
- *complaint:* queixa
- *customer:* client
- *customer service:* servei d'atenció al client
- *discount:* descompte, rebaixa
- *free market:* mercat lliure
- *goods:* productes
- *input tax:* impost sobre les compres
- *invoice:* factura
- *law of supply and demand:* llei de l'oferta i la demanda
- *market:* mercat
- *offer:* oferta
- *output tax:* impost sobre les vendes
- *payment:* pagament
- *quotation:* pressupost

- *tax*: taxa, impost
- *order*: comanda
- *product*: producte
- *promotion*: promoció, oferta
- *publicist*: publicista
- *purchase*: compra
- *rebate*: reemborsament, retorn dels diners
- *sale*: venda
- *sales*: rebaixes, preus reduïts
- *sales process*: venda, procés de venda
- *sales strategy*: estratègia de venda
- *seller*: venedor
- *service*: servei
- *supplier*: suministrador
- *terms of payment*: condicions de pagament
- *to be in stock*: estar disponible (un producte), estar en stock
- *to buy*: comprar
- *to compete with*: competir amb
- *to complain*: queixar-se
- *to pay*: pagar
- *to place an order*: fer una comanda
- *to promote*: promocionar, publicitar
- *to purchase*: comprar, adquirir
- *to raise a complaint*: formular una queixa, posar una queixa
- *to regulate* regular, legislar
- *to sell*: vendre
- *transaction*: transacció, intercanvi
- *VAT*: IVA

### 3.2.1 Communication: talking about time and place

The expression of time is very often materialized in the expression of dates and clock times. Dates are very often expressed in the written form (mostly in business letters) whereas clock times are more widely used in speaking.

#### Dates

To ask for the date, we can say:

- *What's the date (today)? - It's 9th June.*
- *What date is it (today)? - It's 9th June.*

A date can also answer a question with *when*:

- *When did you start in this company? - (I started) on 9th June 2007.*

#### Writing the dates:

The expression of the date typically includes the day, the month and the year. The day is expressed with an ordinal number (1st, 2nd, 3rd, etc.). The date formats are different in British and American English.

TAULA 3.1. The dates in English

	British English	American English
A	The ninth of June 2007	June the ninth, 2007
B	9th June 2007	June 9th, 2007
C	9 June 2007	June 9, 2007
D	9/6/2007	6/9/2007
E	9/6/07	6/9/07
F	09/06/07	06/09/07

Notice the following:

- Format A is very formal and it is mostly used in printed items, such as invitations.
- Formats D, E and F may cause misinterpretations. We can interpret the date 9/6/2007 in two ways: 9th June 2007 (in the British format) or 6th September 2007 (in the American format). In order to interpret the date correctly, it is necessary to know the context.
- Numerical formats may use a slash (/): 9/6/2007, a full stop (.): 9.6.2007 or a hyphen (-): 9-6-2007.

- The names of the months are written with an initial capital letter: *June, May, April*, etc.

### Saying the dates:

The way in which we write and say the dates often differs. All the dates, irrespective of their written form, are pronounced like this:

- *the ninth of June two thousand and seven* (in British English).
- *June the ninth two thousand and seven* (in American English).

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There are no rules for saying the years, only generally accepted conventions based on brevity and convenience.

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The years are generally pronounced like this:

- 1900: *nineteen hundred*
- 1908: *nineteen hundred eight*
- 1985: *nineteen eighty five*
- 2000: *two thousand*
- 2007: *two thousand and seven*
- 2015: *twenty fifteen*

- We use the preposition *on* to say in which date something happens: *I started on 14th May 1985* (Cat. vaig començar el 14 de maig de 1985).
- We use the preposition *in* when we say only the month or the year: *I started in May* (Cat. vaig començar el maig); *I started in 1985* (Cat. vaig començar el 1985).
- Sometimes it is not necessary to say the complete date: *I started on the 14th* (Cat. vaig començar el dia 14).

### Clock times

We can ask for the time like this:

- *What's the time? - It's 10 (in the morning).*
- *What time is it? - It's 10 (in the morning).*

We can also ask about the time something happens:

- *What time did you arrive? - At 6:15 (a quarter past six).*



- *What time does the meeting start? - At 4:30 (half past four).*

The following table shows the ways in which we write and say the time in English..

TAULA 3.2. Clock times in English

We write	We say (Formal)	(Informal)
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	

To indicate the exact time of an action, we must use the preposition *at*: *come at four!* (Cat. vine a les quatre!). We can add *about* if we mean *approximately*: *come at about four!* (Cat. vine cap a les quatre!).

In English-speaking countries, the 24-hour clock is not widely used. They prefer adding the labels 'am' (ante meridian) and 'pm' (post meridian) to indicate the part of the day. Therefore, 11:40 is *11:40 am* and 23:40 is *11:40 pm*.

To say the part of the day, we can use the following expressions:

- In the morning: *it's ten in the morning* (Cat. són les deu del matí); *it's three in the morning* (Cat. són les tres de la matinada).
- In the afternoon: *it's four in the afternoon* (Cat. Són les quatre de la tarda).
- In the evening: *it's eight in the evening* (Cat. Són les vuit del vespre); *it's eleven in the evening* (Cat. són les onze de la nit).

The English term *morning* includes the idea of the Catalan terms *matí* and *matinada* (Sp. mañana/madrugada) whereas the term *evening* includes the idea of both *vespre* and *nit* (Sp. tarde/noche). The term *night* is not generally used to speak about a specific time. It refers to the dark hours of the day and it stands in opposition to the term *day*.

The times included in each part of the day are not clearly established. Approximately, they are the following:

- Morning: 00:00 to 12:00
- Afternoon: 12:00 to 17:00
- Evening: 17:00 to 00:00

Other expressions related to time are:

*Ante meridian* (am) means 'before midday': it refers to the times between 00:00 and 12:00; *post meridian* (pm) means 'after midday' and it refers to the times between 12:00 and 00:00.

- At night (Cat. durant la nit, de nit)
- During the day (Cat. durant el dia, de dia)
- At midnight (=00:00) (Cat. a mitjanit)
- At midday (=12:00) (Cat. al migdia)
- At dawn (Cat. a la matinada)
- At sunset (Cat. a la posta del sol, al capvespre)

### 3.2.2 Grammar reference: prepositions of time and place

Prepositions are used to introduce adverbials of place and time. For example:

- *In the office* (adverbial of place): it indicates where the action takes place.
- *In 1978* (adverbial of time): it indicates when the action takes place.

The use of English prepositions is sometimes confusing, so it is better to learn the adverbials as a whole rather than the individual meanings of the preposition.

#### Prepositions of time

Here are the most common prepositions of time and their use (Catalan translations available only when there is an equivalent meaning).

- **In** is used with:

1. Years, centuries and historical periods: *in 2010, in the 19th century, in the Middle Ages*
2. The names of the months: *in April, in September*
3. The names of the seasons: *in spring, in summer, in autumn, in winter*
4. The parts of the day (except 'night'): *in the morning, in the afternoon, in the evening*

- **On** is used with:

1. The days of the week: *on Mondays, on Tuesday, on Saturday morning*
2. Dates: *on 9th June, on 4th February 2009*

- **At** is used with:
  1. Clock times and nouns denoting clock times: *at 4 o'clock, at 3:30 pm, at midnight, at dawn*
  2. The names of holidays and festivals: *at Christmas, at Easter*
  3. The words 'night' and 'the weekend': *at night, at the weekend*
  
- **For** (Cat. durant) (it expresses the duration of an action): *for five years, for three hours*
- **Since** (Cat. des de) (it expresses the starting point of an action): *since last year, since yesterday, since three, since I work here*
- **During** (Cat. durant) (it expresses a moment within a longer period of time): *during the Christmas holidays, during the class, during his convalescence*
- **Ago** (it expresses the moment when an action took place in the past. Unlike the other prepositions, it is placed after the noun): *four years ago, three hours ago*
- **Before** (Cat. abans de): *before 1997, before three o'clock, before summer, before Christmas, before he came*
- **After** (Cat. després de): *after 1997, after three o'clock, after summer, after Christmas, after I met you*
- **Until** (Cat. fins a) (it indicates the end of an action): *until midnight, until 2023, until Sunday, until I call*
- **From ... to** (Cat. des de...fins) (this double preposition indicates the beginning and the end of an action): *from three to four; from April to May, from the 18th to the 20th century*

**Notes:**

1) The prepositions *since, before, after* and *until* can also be placed in front of a sentence. For example:

- *since I work here*
- *before he came*
- *after I met you*
- *until I call you*

2) Do not confuse the meanings of *for* and *during*:

- *For* expresses the whole period of time: *I'll go to London for a week* (Cat. aniré a Londres durant tota una setmana)
- *During* refers to a moment in the period of time: *I'll go to London during this week* (Cat. aniré a Londres en algun moment d'aquesta setmana)

## Prepositions of place

The most common prepositions and prepositional phrases of place are:

- **In** (Cat. a, dintre de): *in the garden, in the box, in the street, in England, in the city.*
- **Into** (Cat. cap a dintre de): *into the house, into the pocket, into the forest.*
- **Inside** (Cat. dintre de): *inside the kitchen, inside the pocket.*
- **Outside** (Cat. fora de): *outside the house, outside the country.*
- **On** (Cat. a, a sobre de): *on the desk, on the shelf, on the chair, on the wall, on the floor.*
- **At** (Cat. a): *at the door, at the table, at the cinema, at the window, at the tree.*
- **To** (Cat. a, cap a): *to the cinema, to London, to work, to the street.*
- **Opposite** (Cat. al davant de, enfront): *opposite the park, opposite Sandra, opposite the school.*
- **In front of** (Cat. davant de): *in front of a man, in front of the house .*
- **Next to** (Cat. al costat de): *next to the bank, next to my friend, next to the lamp.*
- **Behind** (Cat. al darrera de): *behind the curtains, behind a bus, behind the door, behind the tree.*
- **Near** (Cat. a prop de): *near London, near the road, near the window .*
- **Over** (Cat. per damunt de): *over the bed, over my head.*
- **Under** (Cat. a sota de): *under the table, under a tree, under my jacket.*
- **Above** (Cat. per damunt de): *above the vice-president, above the house.*
- **Below** (Cat. per sota de): *below the president, below the standards.*
- **From** (Cat. de): *I'm from Barcelona, these products are from China.*
- **On the corner of** (Cat. a la cantonada de): *on the corner of the street, on the corner of London Rd and High St.*

### Notes:

1) Some prepositions have similar meanings. For example:

- *He is **in** the cinema* (Cat. És a dins del cinema) (meaning that he is inside the cinema, and not in the street).
- *He is **at** the cinema* (Cat. És al cinema) (in a general sense, stressing the purpose of going to the cinema rather than the location).

- *The lamp is **on** the table* (Cat. La làmpara és al damunt de la taula) (=resting on the table).
- *The lamp is **over** the table* (Cat. La làmpara és a sobre de la taula) (=hanging, with no contact with the table).

2) *Above* and *below* are used to refer to a higher or lower position in status, whereas *over* and *under* are used to refer to a physical place. For example:

- *The president is **above** the vice-president.* (Cat. El president està per damunt del vice-president)
- *The plane is flying **over** the Alps.* (Cat. L'avió està volant per damunt dels Alps).

# Arrangements

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**Adaptació de continguts:** Carles Mora

Anglès





# Índex

<b>Introduction</b>	<b>5</b>
<b>Learning objectives</b>	<b>7</b>
<b>1 Events</b>	<b>11</b>
1.1 Reading: trade fairs and presentations . . . . .	11
1.2 Glossary of terms: business events . . . . .	15
1.2.1 Communication: speaking (I) . . . . .	18
1.2.2 Grammar reference: the present tenses . . . . .	22
<b>2 Travel</b>	<b>27</b>
2.1 Reading: business trips . . . . .	27
2.2 Glossary of terms: airports and hotels . . . . .	29
2.2.1 Communication: speaking (II) . . . . .	32
2.2.2 Grammar reference: past tenses (I) . . . . .	38
<b>3 A business meal</b>	<b>43</b>
3.1 Reading: organising and attending a business meal . . . . .	43
3.2 Glossary of terms: a formal meal . . . . .	46
3.2.1 Communication: language issues . . . . .	48
3.2.2 Grammar reference: the past tenses (II) . . . . .	60



## Introduction

This unit is called 'Arrangements' because it focuses its attention on the organization of different activities that are commonly carried out in the field of business administration, especially when you work in big companies that have frequent contacts with other countries. For a person working in the sector of 'Administració i finances' it is necessary to be familiar with the use of English in different situations because English is the standard language in the international relationships. The sections in this unit are devoted to some common activities in the world of business.

The section 'Events' deals with trade fairs and presentations, which are two important marketing strategies used by companies to introduce their products into the market. The reading text explains how to organise a trade fair and how to make a presentation. You will learn the specific vocabulary used on those occasions, which you can complement by looking up the glossary of terms, which includes a list of words used in these two business events. The vocabulary subsections is devoted to the phrasal verbs. Phrasal verbs are composed of a verb and a preposition. These verbs change their meaning when they add a preposition. In this section, you will find a list of the most common phrasal verbs. The grammar subsections continues the study of the verb tenses used to speak about the past. Here you will learn about the present perfect simple, the present perfect continuous, the past perfect simple, and the past perfect continuous. As always, you will find their forms and their uses, with a comparison between the past simple and the present perfect simple. The communication section is devoted to the translation and summary of texts, and to note taking. Translations and summaries are very useful activities when we use the English language in a work context, but they can also help to improve the reading and writing skills. Note taking refers to the quick notes that we take when we listen to a phone message, for example, or to the notes that we take during a meeting. If you work as a secretary, you may also need to write the minutes of a meeting, so it will be necessary to be familiar with this type of language.

The section called 'Travel' refers to business trips, which is another common event in companies that have an international projection. The reading text describes the organization of a business trip and it also includes a dialogue at the reception of a hotel which exemplifies the words and expressions commonly used in that situation. The glossary of terms is devoted to the terms related to airports and hotels. The vocabulary subsection explains the prepositions of place, including a list of the most common ones with examples of their use. The grammar in this section is devoted to the different ways of speaking about the future, with a special emphasis on comparing the forms with *will* and the forms with *be going to*. The communication subsection introduces two communicative functions of the language. One one hand, you will learn how to give instructions, especially how to give directions, which means to explain how to go from one place to another.

On the other hand, you will also learn how to make requests, that is, how to ask other people to do certain activities.

The section called 'A business meal' deals with another event that is common in the world of business. Business meals are usually organized as part of the marketing strategy of the company with the purpose of honouring potential customers or celebrating important business agreements. The reading text in this sections explains how to organize a formal business meal and introduces some words and expressions which are common in this context. On the other hand, the glossary of terms is also devoted to this topic. This section does not include a vocabulary section. The grammar subsection introduces the passive voice, which is widely used in English, especially in formal written texts. The grammar also includes a special chapter that compares the syntactical structures of active and passive sentences and explains how to change from one to the other. In the communication subsection you will learn about the ways of greeting and introducing people, which are two basic activities in our interactions with other people. Finally, you will also learn about the different ways of making invitations.

This unit will allow you to learn the necessary vocabulary to get on well in the events described: trade fairs, presentations, business trips and formal business meals. The unit also introduces new grammar and vocabulary topics as well as different communicative situations.

## Learning objectives

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

1. Understand oral messages in standard language through any means of communication, both in daily life situations and in the professional field of administration and finance, and understand the contents of the message accurately.

- Identify the main idea in a message.
- Identify the finality of oral messages in standard language as well as the tone and feelings of the speaker.
- Get information from recorded messages in standard language related to the professional field of administration and finance.
- Identify the points of view and attitude of the speaker.
- Identify the main ideas in a speech in standard language and at normal speed about specific and abstract issues related to the field of administration and finance.
- Understand the details of a message in standard language, even with background noises.
- Identify the main ideas in a speeches, reports and professional presentations related to the field of administration and finance.
- Be conscious of the importance of understanding a message as a whole, even if you don't understand all the words.

2. Understand complex written texts related to the field of administration and finance and analyze the contents comprehensively.

- Read a text with a high degree of autonomy, adapting the style and speed of the reading to different types of text and objectives.
- Read the details of long and relatively complex texts related to the field of administration and finance.
- Relate the text to its corresponding context.
- Quickly identify the contents and importance of pieces of news, articles and reports related to the field of administration and finance and decide whether a deeper analysis is necessary.
- Translate complex texts related to the field of administration and finance using reference materials, if necessary.

- Interpret technical messages in different means: post, fax and email, among others.
- Interpret long and complex instructions related to the professional field.
- Choose reference material and technical dictionaries and use automatic translators.

3. Produce clear, well-organized oral messages frequently used in jobs related to the field of administration and finance and analyze the context of the situation, adapting yourself to the other's linguistic register.

- Identify the registers used in oral messages.
- Express yourself fluently, accurately and efficiently in a great variety of professional and daily life situations, clearly establishing the relationship between the different ideas.
- Express yourself spontaneously with the appropriate degree of formality according to the situation.
- Use the appropriate protocol in formal and informal introductions.
- Make a correct use of the technical words related to the field of administration and finance as normally used in your profession.
- Express and defend your points of view clearly by using the appropriate explanations and reasoning.
- Describe the steps in a process related to your professional field.
- Explain the choice of a specific option in detail.
- Require the repetition of a speech or part of a speech when necessary.
- Apply the appropriate interaction formulas normally used in your professional field.

4. Write texts normally used at work and in the daily life and use the appropriate register for each situation.

- Write clear, detailed texts about a variety of issues related to the professional field, summarizing and considering the information from different sources.
- Organize the information correctly, accurately and coherently and ask for and/or give general and detailed information.
- Write reports related to the professional field pointing out the relevant aspects and giving details to support your points.
- Fill in documents related to the professional field.
- Apply the standard rules and the specific vocabulary used to fill in administrative, accounting, fiscal and financial documents.

- Summarize articles, pieces of news and other types of information related to the professional field using a great variety of words to avoid frequent repetitions.
- Understand the most important points in manuals, regulations, legislations and other written texts as normally used in the field of administration and finance.
- Use the appropriate protocol rules that apply to a specific document.

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

- Define the most distinctive aspects of the customs of your professional field in the use of a foreign language.
- Describe the social conventions of the English-speaking countries.
- Identify the values and beliefs which are characteristic of English-speaking countries.
- Apply the social conventions in English-speaking communities.
- Identify the language traits of different regions.





## 1. Events

In the business world, an event refers to any type of activity whose primary purpose is to find opportunities of enhancing the business. These events are usually part of the marketing strategies set up by the company.

Two examples of such events are the trade fairs and the presentations. Trade fairs offer the companies the possibility of advertising and selling their products and services to interested customers who usually attend the fair with the specific purpose of buying those products or services. In this sense, a trade fair is a modern version of the traditional markets.

On the other hand, presentations offer the possibility of advertising a new product to a selected group of customers. Presentations require good speaking abilities to transmit the message and they are an excellent means of introducing a product into the market. Very often, presentations are part of the different activities that are included in the trade fairs.

The reading text in this section gives a few ideas in the case we must participate in the organization of a trade fair or we must make an oral presentation of a product.

### 1.1 Reading: trade fairs and presentations

Companies usually participate in trade fairs as part of their marketing strategy because fairs are very good to explain customers directly what they sell or what they do, to establish business relationships with similar companies and to learn about the latest innovations in the corresponding field of interest.

Local governments are also very interested in trade fairs because they are an excellent means of development and promotion for the city. For this reason, the councils often become the greatest promoting agents of trade fairs.

There are several types of trade fairs. They can be classified as:

- **General trade fairs:** These trade fairs exhibit all types of consumer and industrial commodities. They are open to professionals and to the general public. They are good for promotion because the number of visitors is very large, but it is difficult to make good business deals.
- **Specialized trade fairs:** these fairs are primarily for business exhibitors from various levels of trade and industry. It attracts large numbers of business people, specifically concerned with the area of specialization. For new companies, these fairs offer the best opportunity to find buyers, distributors and retailers.



The Barcelona fairground

- **Consumer fairs:** These fairs are primarily addressed to the general public. They are characterised by the great variety of products exhibited and by the wide interests of the visitors. These fairs are especially appropriate for companies that are already established but wish to promote their products.

According to their geographical range, the trade fairs could be divided into:

- **Local fairs:** they are especially addressed to the customers from a town and its surrounding area. The participants are usually small businesses whose main objective is to promote local products.
- **National fairs:** they attract customers and exhibitors from all over the country. The participants are usually medium-sized businesses that seek to expand at a national scale and promote their products and services over a wide public.
- **International fairs:** these fairs attract professionals from all over the world. They are excellent platforms for companies that wish to expand their businesses to other countries and for multinational companies that want to promote their products at a global scale.

### **Organising a trade fair**

Trade fairs may be organised by a company itself, by the council or by specialised companies whose business is precisely to organise fairs and other events for other companies. In any case, organising a trade fair requires careful planning and systematic decision-making because they often involve a considerable marketing investment. The organisers must set clear objectives and know in advance the type of products that will be displayed in the fair and consequently provide facilities and take into consideration thousands of details.

Here are some guidelines for organizing a trade fair.

#### *Before the trade fair:*

In the planning stage of the trade fair, the organisers must identify the tasks to be carried out and select the speakers in case speeches have been planned. They must also draw up a detailed budget, including such items as advertising, staff recruitment, space rental, design and construction of stands, dismantling, furniture rental, decoration within the stand, telecommunications and networking, travel, accommodations, electrical fitting, stand cleaning, telephone installation, mailing, security, reception, public relations, transportation, food services, first-aid emergency, and giveaway items.

Hotel bookings for the visitors must be placed well in advance to ensure availability. Planners should negotiate special convention rates and types of rooms, special meals (religious and disease diets) and registration deadlines. Other issues to consider are the existence and cost of parking facilities, nearby restaurants and points of interest and available transportation to and from the hotel.

Planning a special promotional program for the trade fair is also necessary. When the visitors are well identified, the most common means of advertising the event is by means of invitation letters. To attract the public in general, the organisers should consider publication on the local radio, newspapers and television, depending on the importance of the event.

*During the trade fair:*

The registration of the exhibitors on the opening day is an important and necessary event at any trade fair. In order to gain productivity during the whole presence at the trade fair, the exhibitors must pay attention to the promotion and presentation of their company to ensure that potential customers seek their stand in particular.

Most trade fairs also include activities pursued directly within the fairgrounds or outside their boundaries. These activities represent a value added to the participation at the fair. The company's representatives can participate in presentations or press conferences and can hold lectures at fair-related events. An ideal opportunity for addressing important clients may also be an evening party, as an informal meeting is often more successful for making business contacts than an official meal or an official reception.

*After the trade fair:*

When the fair is finished, it is time for the participants to evaluate the results of the fair and draw conclusions about the objectives reached.

The organisers should:

- Register items to be returned to the respective companies.
- Remove the exhibits from the racks.
- Dismantle the stands safely and without destroying the stand materials.
- Hold a reception on the closing day to facilitate contacts between exhibitors and potential customers.
- Send out press releases as a promotional activity to state the positive results of the participation.
- Draw up a follow-up plan to determine the benefits and help in the organisation of future events.

On the other hand, exhibitors should:

- Compare invitations with the guest list at the stand.
- Forward a list of post-fair customer appointments to the sales department.
- Write letters to the new contacts.
- Analyse the coverage of the fair in the media.
- Send press releases and feedback questionnaires quickly to the new contacts.



A stand in a trade fair

- Set goals for future events.

## **Presentations**

A company's success very often depends on their ability to convince potential customers that their products or services are better than those of their competitors. There is a great variety of marketing techniques to achieve that goal, but oral presentations are the most effective way of communicating a message to an audience. For these reasons, most companies favour people with good speaking skills.

There are three aspects to consider when preparing a presentation or a speech in general:

1. **The time:** the speaker must establish how much time the presentation will last. However, very often the time is pre-arranged by the organisers of the presentation and the speaker must adjust the presentation to the time limit. Controlling time is essential in public speaking.
2. **The audience:** the speaker should know in advance what type of people will attend the presentation and how much they know about the topic.
3. **The venue:** the speaker should take a look at the place of the speech in order to visualise the context of the event and ensure that everything is under control and, consequently, that he or she is not caught off guard by the peculiarities of the space.

In case it is yourself who is going to speak in front of an audience, the first thing that you should know is that feeling nervous before making a presentation is a very natural thing. Being too nervous, however, may be detrimental, so here are some ideas to control your nerves and give better presentations:

1. **Know your material.** You should know more about the topic of the presentation than anyone else. Use humour, personal stories and conversational language – that way you won't easily forget what to say.
2. **Practice. Practice. Practice!** Rehearse out loud with all the equipment which you plan to use. Revise it to avoid technical problems during the presentation. Control your time and allow some time for unexpected things that may happen.
3. **Know the audience.** Greet some of the audience members as they arrive. It is easier to speak to a group of friends than to strangers.
4. **Know the room.** Arrive early, walk around the speaking area and practise using the microphone and any visual aids. Check the computer and the overhead projector.
5. **Relax.** Begin by addressing the audience. This will give you time and will calm your nerves. Pause, smile and count to three before saying anything. Transform nervous energy into enthusiasm.

6. **Visualize yourself giving your speech.** Imagine yourself speaking, your voice loud, clear and confident. Visualize the audience clapping – it will boost your confidence.
7. **Do not apologize for any nervousness or problem.** The audience did not probably notice anything.
8. **Concentrate on the message – not the medium.** Focus your attention away from your own anxieties and concentrate on your message and your audience.
9. **Gain experience.** Mainly, your speech should represent you — as an authority and as a person. Experience builds confidence, which is the key to effective speaking.

Other types of meetings are:

- **Conventions, congresses and conferences:** these three terms are equivalent. They refer to large formal meetings of people with common interests to discuss and interchange information.
- **Receptions:** formal welcome meetings usually held at the beginning of an event.
- **Symposiums:** large meetings where academics discuss their ideas.

#### Language notes

- **trade:** this term is very similar in meaning to the term *commerce*. Both terms may be used interchangeably on many occasions, but we always speak of *trade fair*, not of *commerce fair*.
- **local government, council** (Cat. ajuntament): these two terms, both used in the text, are equivalent in meaning. They refer to the governing authority that rules a city. They should not be confused with the words *town hall* or *city hall* (Cat. ajuntament), which refer to the building that holds the council.
- **conference** (Cat. congrés): this word may be confusing for a Spanish or Catalan speaker. *Conference* is more or less the same as *convention* or *congress*. It has not the meaning of Cat. *conferència* or Sp. *conferencia*. This would be *speech* or *lecture*, in English.

## 1.2 Glossary of terms: business events

- *booth*: caseta, stand
- *budget*: pressupost
- *business*: negoci
- *buyer*: comprador/a
- *closing*: clausura

- *commerce*: comerç
- *commercial*: comercial
- *commodity*: producte, mercaderia
- *conference*: congrés, convenció
- *congress*: congrés, convenció
- *convention*: convenció, congrés
- *deal*: tracte, acord
- *distributor*: proveïdor/a, distribuïdor/a
- *exhibit*: producte o objecte exposat
- *exhibitor*: expositor/a, persona que exhibeix un producte
- *event*: esdeveniment, acte
- *fair*: fira
- *fairground*: fira, terreny o espai destinat a celebrar-hi fires comercials
- *free sample*: mostra gratuïta
- *giveaway item*: producte de regal, mostra gratuïta
- *lecture*: conferència, xerrada
- *opening*: inauguració
- *organiser*: organitzador/a
- *overhead projector*: projector
- *presentation*: presentació
- *press conference*: roda de premsa
- *press release*: nota de premsa
- *reception*: recepció
- *registration*: registre, inscripció
- *retail*: venda al detall
- *retailer*: minorista
- *speaker*: orador, conferenciant
- *speech*: xerrada, conferència
- *stand*: stand, caseta
- *symposium*: simposi
- *to boost*: animar, estimular, donar força

- *to clap*: aplaudir, picar de mans
- *to dismantle*: desmuntar
- *to display*: exhibir, mostrar
- *to exhibit*: exhibir, mostrar
- *to hold (a reception, meeting etc.)*: celebrar (una recepció, una reunió, etc.)
- *to make a deal*: fer un tracte, tancar un acord
- *trade*: comerç
- *trade fair*: fira comercial, fira de comerç
- *visitor*: visitant
- *wholesale*: venda a l'engròs
- *wholesaler*: majorista

### 1.2.1 Communication: speaking (I)

Having a conversation is a very common situation in our daily lives. To carry out a conversation effectively, we need to put our speaking and listening skills into practice.

When the conversation takes place in a formal or semi-formal situation, we also need to consider the language protocols and use the appropriate style and standard formulas to express certain ideas. Language protocol is very clear in formal greetings and introductions.

On the other hand, we should also consider the cultural differences with other people. In Anglo-Saxon cultures, for example, people do not kiss a woman on the cheeks when they are introduced for the first time, but they shake hands instead. Personal space is also very important: whereas in the Latin cultures, people stand close to each other and have a greater tendency to touching the other person while speaking, in the Anglo-Saxon cultures we should keep a greater distance and avoid physical contact.

The English language also sounds more polite than other languages. There is a frequent use of *thank you* and *please* in the conversations and the requests are made by using the expressions with *can you...?* or *could you...?* rather than the imperative form.

#### Greetings

We use greetings when we meet people or when we leave them. We can use a variety of expressions in each situation depending on the degree of formality.

Here are some expressions used to greet people with some corresponding common responses. The Catalan translations are not literal, but they only indicate equivalent expressions.

#### When meeting people:

- *Formal Greetings:*

- Good morning/afternoon/evening > Good morning/afternoon/evening. (Cat. Bon dia/bona tarda/bona nit - Bon dia/bona tarda/bona nit)
- Hello, (person's name), how are you? > I'm very well, thank you, and you? (Cat. Hola [nom de la persona], com està? - Molt bé, gràcies, i vostè?)
- Good day, Sir/Madam > Good day (very formal) - (Cat. Bon dia, Sr/Sra - Bon dia)

- *Informal Greetings:*

- Hi/Hello > Hi/Hello (Cat. Hola - Hola)



- How are you? > Fine, thanks (Cat. Com estàs? - Bé, gràcies)
- What's up? > Fine, thanks (very informal) (Cat. Què tal? - Bé, gràcies)
- How are you doing? > Fine (very informal) (Cat. Com va tot? - Bé)

### When leaving people:

- *Formal Greetings:*

- Good morning/afternoon/evening > Good morning/afternoon/evening (Cat. Bon dia/ bona tarda/ bona nit - Bon dia/ bona tarda/ bona nit)
- It was a pleasure seeing/meeting you > A pleasure for me too (Cat. Ha estat un plaer veure'l/ conèixer-lo - El plaer ha estat meu)
- Goodbye > Goodbye (Cat. Adéu - Adéu)

- *Informal greetings:*

- Bye > Bye (Cat. Adéu - Adéu)
- See you > See you (Cat. Ens veiem/ fins després - Ens veiem/ fins després)
- Take care > You too (Cat. Cuida't - I tu també)

### When we go to bed, or we retire for the night, we can say:

- *Formal and informal:*

- Good night > Good night (Cat. Bona nit - Bona nit)

### When meeting people unexpectedly:

In case you meet someone you did not expect, for example, in the street or in a meeting, you can use the following expressions (the responses will depend on each particular situation):

- *Formal greeting:*

- What a surprise! I haven't seen you in a long time. How have you been? (Cat. Quina sorpresa! Feia temps que no ens vèiem. Com està?)

- *Informal greeting:*

- Hey, Jack, it's nice to see you. What are you doing here? (Cat. Ei, Jack, m'alegro de veure't. Què fas per aquí?)
- What a surprise! How's everything going? (Cat. Quina sorpresa! Com va tot?)

## Introductions

Introductions are very common situations in a working environment. We make introductions when we want two or more people to meet.

### Introduction vs presentation

These two terms may be confusing for a Spanish or Catalan speaker because they are usually translated with the same word:

- *Introduction* refers to people. It has the meaning of making two people meet and know each other (Cat. presentació). For example: *You don't know each other, I'll make the introductions* (Cat. No us coneixeu, faré les presentacions).
- *Presentation* means to show and explain the characteristics of a product, a project, etc. to an audience (Cat. presentació, acte de presentació). For example: *There was an interesting presentation of the new policy of the company* (Cat. Hi va haver una interessant presentació de la nova política de l'empresa).

There is the same difference in meaning between the corresponding verbs *introduce* (Cat. presentar) and *present* (Cat. presentar, fer una presentació).

Here are some expressions used to introduce people:

### Formal introductions:

In formal situations, like a reception, a presentation, a business meal, etc., we may introduce people like this:

- *May I introduce you to Mr/Mrs/Miss/Ms (surname)?* (Cat: Em permet que li presenti el Sr/la Sra/la Srta (cognom)?)
- *Let me introduce you to Mr/Mrs/Miss/Ms (surname)* (Cat: Permet'm que li presenti el Sr/la Sra/la Srta (cognom)?)
- *I'd like to introduce you to Mr/Mrs/Miss/Ms (surname)* (Cat. Voldria presentar-li el Sr/la Sra/la Srta (cognom))

### Responding to formal introductions:

We may respond to a formal introduction like this (the translation is not literal):

- *How do you do?* (Cat. Molt de gust)

The response to this is:

- *How do you do* (Cat. El gust és meu, encantat)

### Informal introductions:

#### Mr, Mrs, Miss and Ms

*Mr* is used for adult males; *Mrs* is used for married women; *Miss* is used for unmarried women. In the 70s, however, the title *Ms* (pronounced /mæz/) started to be used for all women, irrespective of their marital status.

#### How do you do

The expression *how do you do?* is not actually a question, although we must give it the intonation of a question. The response is *how do you do* (without the question mark and the intonation of a statement). This is an example of a ceremonial formula with no real meaning.

In informal situations, we may introduce other people like this:

- *This is...* (Cat. Aquest/a és...)

### Responding to informal introductions:

There are different responses for an informal introduction. For example, we can say:

- *Nice to meet you* (Cat. Encantat)
- *Hi* (Cat. Hola)
- *How are you?* (Cat. Què tal?)

The following dialogue reflects the use of some of these expressions:

#### Greetings and introductions

*Jordi Planes has gone to London to accompany his boss in a presentation of their new line of shampoos and hair conditioners. At the reception before the event, he meets her colleague Jane.*

**Jane:** Jordi! What a surprise! What are you doing here?

**Jordi:** Hi, Jane! How are you?

**Jane:** Fine, thanks. Glad to see you.

**Jordi:** I'm glad too. I came to the presentation with my boss. He needed someone who spoke English.

**Jane:** Really? Well, come, I'll introduce you to my boss.

*(They go to find Mr Green, the company's manager)*

**Jane:** Good morning, Mr Green. I'd like to introduce you to Mr Jordi Planes, from our office in Barcelona.

**Mr Green:** How do you do?

**Jordi:** How do you do.

**Mr Green:** Is it your first time in London, Mr Planes?

**Jordi:** Yes, sir. It is.

**Mr Green:** Well, and how do you like it here?

**Jordi:** Excuse me?

**Mr Green:** Do you like London?

**Jordi:** Oh, yes, sir, very much.

**Mr Green:** Good. I hope you have time to visit the city, then. I must go now. I'm afraid. It was a pleasure meeting you.

**Jordi:** A pleasure for me too. Goodbye, sir.

**Mr Green:** Goodbye. See you later.

**Language notes:**

- The dialogue reflects two contexts: an informal one between the colleagues Jordi and Jane and a formal one between Jordi and Mr Green. Notice the difference in the use of the language.
- *Yes, sir*: Jordi is in a formal situation. He has just met the company's manager in London so he addresses him as *sir*. This is much better than *Mr Green* in a first contact. The equivalent form for females is *madam*.
- After being introduced to a person, the language protocol requires to ask some questions, as Mr Green has done, but we should be careful to avoid personal questions.

**1.2.2 Grammar reference: the present tenses**

The present tenses are obviously used to speak about the present. The action of the verb can be seen in two different ways: as a simple action taking place regularly or as a long action stretching in time. This difference has given rise to the two present tenses, called *present simple* and *present continuous*.

**The present simple**

The conjugation of the English verbs is very simple. Except the verb *to be*, which has three different forms in the present simple (*am, is, are*), all the other verbs only have one or two forms.

**Conjugation of the present simple:**

In this table, you can see the conjugation of the verb *work* in the present simple.

TAULA 1.1. Conjugation of the present simple (/work/)

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

**Notes:**

- The present simple only has two forms: the 3rd person singular adds and -s; all the other persons are the same as the base form.
- Remember that the negative and interrogative forms require the use of the auxiliary verb *do/does* + the base form of the verb.
- Long forms are mostly used in formal written English whereas short forms are used in spoken informal English.

Use of the present simple:

The present simple is used to express:

- Habitual, regular actions:
  - I *get up* at seven o'clock everyday. (Cat: *Em llevo* a les set cada dia).
  - John *doesn't play* tennis. (Cat: John *no juga* al tennis).
  - *Do you smoke* at work? (Cat: *Fumes* a la feina?).
  - My friend always *helps* me. (Cat: El meu amic sempre m'*ajuda*)
- Scientific facts and universal truths:
  - The sun *rises* in the east. (Cat: El sol *surt* per l'est)
  - Water *boils* at 100°C. (Cat: L'aigua *bull* als 100°C)

**Frequency adverbs and adverbial expressions:**

The present simple is often associated to adverbs and adverbial expressions that indicate the frequency of the action. Here is a list of the most common adverbials of frequency (with examples):

- **always** (Cat: sempre): They *always* come on time.
- **usually** (Cat: normalment): We *usually* work until 10 pm.
- **often** (Cat: sovint): He *often* calls me in the evenings.
- **sometimes** (Cat: algunes vegades): They *sometimes* help me with my work.
- **seldom** (Cat: poques vegades): I *seldom* understand what he says.
- **never** (Cat: mai): I *never* go out at night.
- **everyday** (Cat. cada dia): I take a shower *everyday*.
- **every week** (Cat. cada setmana): We have a meeting *every week*.
- **once a week** (Cat. una vegada a la setmana): We see him *once a week*.
- **twice a week** (Cat dues vegades a la setmana) We see him *twice a week*.

- **three times a week** (Cat. tres vegades a la setmana): We see him *three times a week*.
- **from time to time** (Cat de tant en tant): I only see him *from time to time*.

### The present continuous

The present continuous is a complex tense composed of the present of the auxiliary verb *be* and the gerund of the verb. The structure is the following:

- AM/IS/ARE + GERUND (-ING)

In this structure, the variable element is the auxiliary verb, which agrees with the subject in person and number. On the other hand, the gerund is an invariable form.

### Conjugation of the present continuous:

The table below shows the conjugation of the verb *work* in the present continuous.

TAULA 1.2. Conjugation of the present continuous (/work/)

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

### Use of the present continuous:

The present continuous is used to speak about:

- An action that is taking place at the moment of speaking:
  - Look! It *is snowing*! (Cat. Mira! *Està nevant!*)
  - I think they *are speaking* Russian (Cat. Crec que *estan parlant* rus)
  - What *are you doing*? (Cat. Què *estàs fent*?)
- A temporary action:
  - Sarah usually lives in London, but she *is living* in Boston this month. (Cat: Sarah normalment viu a Londres, però aquest mes *està vivint* a Boston)
  - I always go to work by car, but I *am taking* the bus this week. (Cat: Sempre vaig a treballar amb cotxe, però aquesta setmana *agafo* l'autobús)

### Time adverbials:

The present continuous is very frequently used in sentences with the following time adverbials:

- **now** (Cat. ara): He is speaking on the phone *now*.
- **in this moment** (Cat. en aquest moment): *In this moment*, I'm having a meeting with the director.
- **today** (Cat. avui): I'm not working *today*.
- **this week** (Cat. aquest setmana): I'm not going anywhere *this week*.

### The present simple vs the present continuous

When a verb is expressed in present simple, the idea is that the action is permanent or that it happens regularly. On the other hand, when the verb is in present continuous, the action is temporary or it is happening in that moment. Compare these two sentences:

- a) I *live* in Barcelona
- b) I *am living* in Sabadell

In sentence a), I mean that Barcelona is my permanent residence, the city where I have my home. In sentence b), we understand that Sabadell is the place where, for some reason, I am living only for the moment, but not permanently.

The difference is very clearly seen when the two sentences appear together in the same context:

- I *live* in Barcelona, but these days I'm *living* in Sabadell because my house was affected by a fire.

Very often, the time adverbial will tell us which tense we must use. If we say *now*, we must use the verb in present continuous, but if we say *everyday*, the verb must be in the present simple.

### Verbs not taking the present continuous

Some verbs are not used in present continuous although the context requires the use of that tense. In general, these verbs express feelings and emotions. Some of these verbs are:

- *love* (Cat. estimar)
- *like* (Cat. agradar)
- *hate* (Cat. odiar)
- *prefer* (Cat. preferir)
- *want* (Cat. voler)
- *think* (Cat. opinar)
- *remember* (Cat. recordar)
- *doubt* (Cat. dubtar)
- *understand* (Cat. entendre)
- *know* (Cat. saber)
- *believe* (Cat. creure)
- *see* (Cat. veure)
- *hear* (Cat. sentir)
- *have* (Cat. tenir)
- *own* (Cat. posseir)

For example, we must say: *do you like the film?* It is wrong to say: *are you liking the film?*

In some cases, we can use the present continuous with some of these verbs, but only when they have different meanings. For example, we can say: *I am thinking about going out* (Cat. Estic pensant en sortir), but we cannot say: *I am thinking this is very interesting* (in the sense of 'having an opinion').

Similarly, we can say *I am having breakfast* (Cat. Estic prenent l'esmorzar), but we cannot say: *I am having two sisters* (in the sense of 'possess').

The verbs that describe senses (like *see* and *hear*) are usually expressed with the verb *can*. For example: *I can see someone on the stairs* (Cat. veig algú a les escales); *I can hear music upstairs* (Cat. sento música al pis de dalt).



## 2. Travel

In the course of your working life, you may need to travel to other countries for business reasons, especially if you have certain managing responsibilities within the company. Nowadays, the new technologies allow businesspeople situated in different parts of the world to hold meetings from their own offices, but travelling to other countries to establish direct contacts with other companies or to make presentations is still a common activity.

English is the common language in international relationships, so it is necessary to have a good knowledge of the language in order to establish profitable business contacts with other countries. The text in this section describes a business trip and introduces some English terms related to the topic.

### 2.1 Reading: business trips

There is a clear distinction between a business trip and a leisure trip. A business trip does not only mean to book tickets and hotel rooms; it also means to do business. Therefore, organising a business trip requires careful planning.

If you are in charge of organising an international business trip, it is your responsibility to ensure that every traveller is covered by a travel insurance that includes the most essential types of coverage. Corporate insurances are usually cheaper than personal insurances.

On the other hand, if a passport is required, you should also make sure that everyone in the party has an up-to-date passport in advance of departure. Some countries require a passport with a validity of at least six months before its expiration date, so it is a good idea to check with the embassy or consulate of the country of destination for details. Also, check if a visa is required.

Nowadays, the quickest and most comfortable way of buying a plane ticket is through online sale. You can buy it directly from the airline website or from any general travel websites, which also offer hotel booking and car rental services. Online booking also allows you to choose your seats and print your boarding passes. This may help you save time at the airport, where you may avoid queuing up at the check-in desk to pick up your boarding pass provided you are only carrying hand luggage. If you are carrying big suitcases, you will need to check them in at the check-in desk.

After these initial procedures, you must go on to security control, where your ticket, boarding pass, passport, visa and hand luggage will be carefully checked by the security officials. Next, you may proceed to the departure gate and wait there for



A business hotel

your flight departure. Do not forget to check the information displayed on the screens for any changes on your flight, like delays or cancellations.

Business travellers need to get to their destinations on time and with as little trouble as possible. They also need to focus their attention on business; they cannot waste their time on the trip details. For this reason, it is very important to choose the hotel carefully. In general, the best option is a large hotel with a business centre. It is better if the hotel belongs to a hotel chain because these hotels usually offer good and efficient customer service and excellent facilities to meet the business needs, like meeting rooms, conference rooms or catering service.

Business travellers, who are often short of time, also appreciate hotels located near the airport, but if a hotel does not meet this requirement, it generally offers a shuttle service between the airport and the hotel.

Booking a hotel is nowadays quick and easy, as all the bookings are mostly done online. Like plane tickets, you can book rooms from the hotel own website or from a general travel website. In your booking you must specify the days of arrival and departure, the number and type of rooms and any special requirements you may need, like parking facilities, quiet rooms, wifi connections, etc.

Here is a model dialogue taking place at the reception desk of a hotel.

*Marta González has arrived to a hotel in London on a business trip. She talks to the receptionist:*

**Marta:** Good morning.

**Receptionist:** Morning, madam. Can I help you?

**Marta:** Yes, I booked three rooms. The name's Marta González.

**Receptionist:** Ah, yes, here it is. Three double rooms for five nights, checking out on the 15th. Is that right?

**Marta:** Yes, that's right. And we rented a conference room for the 14th, too. Could you check that please?

**Receptionist:** Let's see.... Yes, here it is. and there's a catering service for 20 people. Is that correct?

**Marta:** Yes, that's it.

**Receptionist:** Well, I'll need your passport and your credit card, please.

**Marta:** Passport and credit card.... here they are.

**Receptionist:** Fine, thank you, madam. Rooms 205, 206 and 207. Second floor.

**Marta:** Where's the lift?

**Receptionist:** Over there. At the end of the corridor.

**Marta:** Well, thanks.

### Language notes

- **travel, journey, trip, voyage** (Cat. viatge): these four words have similar meanings, but you should not confuse them. *Travel* is an uncountable noun that means 'travelling in general' (example: *my main interests are music and travel*). A *journey* is a piece of travel; it is a countable noun which means the movement from one place to another (example: *I saw him on my last journey to Paris*). A *trip* is very similar to a journey, but the meaning implies a return journey and the purpose of the journey, so we often speak of *business trip* or *leisure trip* (example: *I must go to London on a business trip*). Finally, a *voyage* has a very specific meaning: it refers to a long sea journey (example: *the Titanic sank on her first voyage*). Note: the names of ships have a feminine reference (*she, her*). The corresponding verb is *to travel* (Cat. viatjar).
- **to book** (Cat. reservar, fer una reserva): this verb is equivalent to the expression *to make a reservation*, but *to book* is very common when referring to hotels and restaurants. The noun is *booking* or *reservation* (Cat. reserva).
- **visa** (Cat. visat): this word refers to the stamp in your passport which is necessary to travel to certain countries; do not confuse with *Visa card* (Cat. visa, targeta de crèdit).
- **luggage** (Cat. equipatge): this word is an uncountable noun meaning all the items that you carry with you when you travel. In American English, the common term is *baggage*. In colloquial speech, we can also say *bags*. Individual items composing the luggage include: *suitcase* (Cat. maleta), *handbag* (Cat. bossa de mà), *backpack* (Cat. motxil·la).
- In the **dialogue**, notice the expressions used to ask for confirmation: *is that right?*, *is that correct?*. The responses are usually: *That's right*, *that's correct* or *that's it*.

## 2.2 Glossary of terms: airports and hotels

- *airline*: companyia aèria
- *airport*: aeroport
- *arrival*: arribada
- *boarding*: embarcament
- *boarding pass*: targeta d'embarcament
- *booking*: reserva
- *business centre*: centre de negocis
- *business trip*: viatge de negocis
- *cancellation*: cancel·lació
- *cancelled*: cancel·lat/da
- *car rental*: lloguer de cotxes
- *conference room*: auditori, sala de conferències
- *corporate insurance*: assegurança d'empresa
- *coverage*: cobertura (d'una assegurança)

- *credit card*: targeta de crèdit
- *check-in desk*: mostrador de facturació
- *delay*: retard
- *delayed*: retardat/da, que porta retard
- *departure*: sortida
- *departure gate*: porta d'embarcament (en un aeroport)
- *departure lounge*: àrea d'embarcament
- *double room*: habitació doble
- *expiration date*: data de caducitat
- *facilities*: serveis, instal·lacions
- *flight*: vol
- *journey*: viatge, desplaçament
- *hand luggage*: equipatge de mà
- *hotel chain*: cadena hotelera
- *leisure trip*: viatge de plaer
- *lobby*: vestíbul (de l'hotel)
- *luggage*: equipatge
- *meeting room*: sala de reunions, sala de juntes
- *passenger*: passatger
- *passport*: passaport
- *personal insurance*: assegurança personal
- *reservation*: reserva
- *shuttle service*: servei de transport entre l'aeroport i l'hotel
- *single room*: habitació individual
- *suitcase*: maleta
- *to be cancelled*: ser cancel·lat
- *to be delayed*: anar en retard
- *to board*: embarcar (a un avió)
- *to book*: reservar
- *to check in*: facturar les maletes (a un aeroport), registrar-se, fer el *check in* (a un hotel)

- *to check out*: deixar l'habitació (en un hotel), fer el *check out*
- *to land*: aterrar
- *to make a reservation*: reservar, fer una reserva
- *to rent*: llogar
- *to take off*: enlairar-se
- *travel*: viatge
- *travel insurance*: assegurança de viatges
- *traveller*: viatger
- *trip*: viatge
- *visa*: visat
- *voyage*: viatge (per mar)

### 2.2.1 Communication: speaking (II)

One of the most common situations in which you may need to use your oral skills in English is in **telephone conversations**. Unlike face-to-face conversations, here you cannot usually see your interlocutor, so you cannot benefit from non-verbal signs to help you understand the message. A telephone conversation, therefore, requires good listening skills. The language is also different because the context requires the use of some specific expressions.

Other occasions on which you may need to use your speaking skills is in **speeches and presentations**. In these, there is only one speaker addressing one or more listeners. As the objective of a speech or a presentation is usually to persuade a group of people, you will need to use your best speaking skills but also your social skills.

Finally, **negotiation** usually consists on a face-to-face conversation in which you need to find a solution to a problem. It is in this context where your social skills are most important, but you will also need to use your speaking skills carefully in order to carry out your point as clearly and accurately as possible.

#### Telephone conversations

You will probably find telephone conversations more difficult than face-to-face conversations. On the telephone you will need to concentrate on understanding what the other person is saying, especially when there is background noise or the communication is not good enough. As for speaking, a telephone conversation is full of standard phrases and common expressions. If you learn to use such expressions, you can have a successful telephone conversation.

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In a commercial context, we usually answer a telephone call by saying the name of the company (or the department) before adding anything else.

---

Here are some expressions commonly used on the telephone:

#### Answering the phone:

- *Hello?*
- *Zara Portal de l'Angel, hello?*
- *Commercial Department, hello?*
- *Joan Alsina speaking.*
- *Customer service. Can I help you?*

#### Asking for identification:

- *Who's calling?*
- *Where are you calling from?*

---

On the telephone, we must say our name with *This is...* rather than *I am...* In a more formal situation, we can also say *My name's...*

---

- *May I have your name please?*

**Identifying yourself on the telephone:**

- *This is (Inés Fernández) from (Zara).*
- *My name's (Inés Fernández), I'm calling from (Zara).*
- *This is (Inés Fernández). I'm calling on behalf of (Joan Alsina).*

**Asking to speak with someone:**

- *May I speak to (Mr Smith), please?*
- *Can I talk to (Mr Smith), please?*
- *Is (Mr Smith) there?*
- *I'd like to speak to (Mr Smith).*
- *Could you put me through to (the commercial department), please?*

If Mr Smith himself answers the telephone, the answer would be:

- *Speaking!*, which means: *This is Mr Smith speaking.*

If not, see below:

**Asking the other person to wait:**

- *One moment, please.*
- *Hold on a minute please.*
- *Just a minute.*

**Connecting to other people:**

- *I'll put you through to (Mr Smith).*
- *I'll put you through to (his office).*

---

*Put (somebody) through to*  
(Cat. posar amb..., passar a...) is a phrasal verb mostly used in this context.

---

**Explaining that the other person is not available:**

- *I'm sorry, the line's busy at the moment.*
- *I'm afraid (Mr Smith) is not in his office right now.*
- *(Mr Smith) is in a meeting at the moment.*

**Offering solutions when the other person is not available:**

- *Could you call back later please?*
- *Could you call back in (one hour)?*
- *Could I take a message?*
- *Would you like to leave a message?*
- *Can I help you in anything?*
- *I'll call back later, thanks.*
- *I'll try again, thanks.*

#### **Leaving a message:**

- *Could I leave a message please?*
- *Could you please tell (Mr Smith) that (Inés from Zara) called?*
- *I'd like to leave a message for (Mr Smith).*

#### **Asking about the reason of the call:**

- *What does it concern?*
- *What's it about?*

---

The expression *on behalf of* (Cat. *de part de*) is used when we call instead of another person.

---

#### **Explaining the reason of the call:**

- *I'm calling on behalf of (Mr Ramoneda, from Zara).*
- *I'm calling about... (+noun)*
- *I'm calling to... (+verb)*

#### **Saying goodbye on the phone:**

- *Thanks for your help.*
- *Ok, I'll call you back in a few days.*
- *Goodbye.*
- *Bye.*

#### **Other useful words and expressions are:**

- *To dial* (Cat. *Marcar un número*)
- *It's busy* (Cat. *Està ocupat*)
- *Receiver* (Cat. *Auricular*)



- *Mobile phone* (Cat. Mòbil)
- *To pick up the phone* (Cat. Despenjar el telèfon)
- *To hung up* (Cat. Penjar el telèfon)
- *To answer the phone* (Cat. Contestar el telèfon)
- *To ring* (Cat. Sonar)
- *Call* (Cat. Trucada)
- *Answering machine* (Cat. Contestador automàtic)
- *Voicemail* (Cat. bústia de veu)

### Leaving recorded messages

A message on an answering machine or a voicemail must be as short as possible. Include the following information:

- Person to whom the message is addressed
- Identification
- Message
- Further steps

Here is an example of a recorded message:

*Hello. This is a message for Mr Smith. This is Joan Alsina, from Zara. I'm calling about an order for 30 male shirts we made one week ago. We are still expecting the order. Could you please call me back and tell me if there's any problem? Thank you. Bye.*

Now read this model dialogue reproducing a telephone conversation:

*Marcel Roca works as an administrative assistant in the Marketing department of a multinational company called Moonlight. He calls Mr Mason, the sales manager in the company's headquarters in London.*

**Receptionist:** Moonlight. Hello?

**Marcel:** Hello. This is Marcel Roca from Barcelona. May I talk to Mr Mason please?

**Receptionist:** Just a minute. I'll put you through to his office.

**Marcel:** Thanks a lot.

*(Some minutes later)*

**Receptionist:** Mr Roca? I'm afraid Mr Mason is in a meeting right now. Would you like to leave a message?

**Marcel:** Yes, please. Tell him I'm calling about the marketing campaign. It's ready and we need Mr Mason's approval to go ahead with it, but I'll call him back some other time.

**Receptionist:** That's fine. Mr Roca. I'll give him your message. Thanks for calling.

**Marcel:** Ok, bye.

*Note:* Telephone conversations tend to be more informal than face-to-face meetings. Even if Marcel were talking to Mr Mason himself, he would use the informal *hello* rather than the more formal *good morning*, for example.

### Speeches and presentations

Speeches and presentations are two instances in which you will need to use the oral language. We might need to give a speech in a variety of situations: to read a paper in a congress, to welcome some guests to our company, to make a toast in a formal meal, or to accept a prize or an honour. On the other hand, presentations are very much used to advertise a product, or to show the figures of your company to a group of investors, for example. Speeches and presentations tend to be more formal than conversations.

Very often, a speech consists merely on reading a text aloud whereas a presentation requires more improvisation. Moreover, a presentation is very often accompanied of support material, like graphics or images. The common feature is that in both cases we address an audience.

To make a good speech, it is necessary to speak the language fairly well and to know the basic principles of public speaking. Here are some tips for effective communication in public speaking:

1. **Imagine the positive outcome of the speech.** Before you start, close your eyes and imagine the audience clapping, congratulating you on your speech or asking questions to know more. A good way to overcome anxiety is to visualize the results that you want to achieve after your speech. If you visualize on a consistent basis, your mind will become used to the prospect of speaking in public, and pretty soon you'll conquer any feelings of anxiety.
2. **Be yourself.** When we stand up to give a speech, we often think about the public rather than about the message that we want to communicate. You must do just the opposite: concentrate on your message and forget about the audience. Imagine that you are having a relaxed conversation with one person, so address your audience directly and make a connection with them. You can do so by fixing your attention on a person sitting on the front, for example, and addressing that person as an individual, but make sure that you change your focus of attention from one person to another.
3. **Know your environment.** If possible, get familiar with the place of the speech. This will help you visualize the context and get everything under

control. Also, check all the material that will be required during the speech: internet connection, computer, overhead projector, handouts, etc. There is nothing worse in public speaking than keeping your audience waiting for the solution of technical problems.

4. **Don't forget the purpose of your speech.** Think what the audience would like to get at the end of your speech. Ask yourself: How can I help your audience achieve their goals? Do I have to inform them? Motivate them? Convince them? Entertain them? When your purpose is clear, choose the tools that might better contribute to those goals.

## Negotiating

In an organization composed of a large number of people with different personalities and different interests, there is an unavoidable potential for conflict. Disagreements on the solution for a problem or the goals for a project are very common in all organizations. Disagreements are sometimes bad for the business because they can affect productivity, but if they are managed skilfully, they may become a valuable source of development for the company. For this reason, it is very important to have good negotiation skills. The success of a negotiation takes place when two people or group of people get together and reach an agreement that is acceptable to everybody. The ability to negotiate requires a number of personal and communication skills which combine to get the desired result.

Here are some tips to be a successful negotiator:

1. **Identify the problem.** You must have a clear idea of the problem involved in the negotiation. Where is the disagreement? In the company's expansion plans? In the workers' salaries? Once the problem has been identified, you can determine the interests of each party and prepare possible solutions.
2. **Be well informed.** You must prepare the meeting carefully. Get informed of the people's characters, relationships, past negotiations and interests. This will help you to find the right tone for the conversation. If the interlocutors come from a different cultural background, you must be familiar with their customs, beliefs and social codes.
3. **Listen effectively.** You must have the skill to listen to the other party during the meeting. Do not spend your time talking about the advantages of your point of view. Express your point of view as short as possible and then let the other people explain their own point of view without interrupting them.
4. **Control your emotions.** It is very important that you control your emotions during the negotiation. Long and difficult negotiations will generate frustration in both parties, but you must get your frustration under control or you may reach an unfavourable agreement just because you wish to end the negotiation. Suggest a break if you feel tired.
5. **Use your communication skills.** You must have the ability to communicate clearly and effectively to avoid misunderstandings during the negotiation.

Go straight to the point and explain your reasons to support your point of view. This requires a good knowledge of the language, but your social skills and characters are also very important to maintain a good atmosphere during the meeting. You will need to be a reliable and open-minded person.

### 2.2.2 Grammar reference: past tenses (I)

The past tenses are used to speak about the past. As in the present, the action of the verb can be seen as continuing in time or as simple actions taking place at a specific moment in the past. This difference is reflected in the two verb tenses called *past simple* and *past continuous*.

#### The past simple

There are two ways of expressing the past simple tense, depending on whether the verb is regular or irregular. The past tense of regular verbs always ends in -ed, but the irregular verbs have different forms in the past. The only option to know the past simple of irregular verbs is to learn the different forms.

#### Conjugation of the past simple:

The table below shows the forms of the past simple forms of the **regular verb** *work*.

TAULA 2.1. Conjugation of the past simple (regular verb: work)

	Affirmative	Negative Long form	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...?

The table below shows the past simple forms of the **irregular verb** *go*.

TAULA 2.2. Conjugation of the past simple (irregular verb: go)

	Affirmative	Negative Long form	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...?

See the annex called "List of irregular verbs" for the irregular past forms of the most common English verbs.

TAULA 2.2 (continuació)

**Notes:**

- In the past simple, the forms are the same in all the persons, both in regular and irregular verbs.
- The negative and the interrogative forms are expressed with the auxiliary verb *did*, which is the irregular past form of *do*.
- In the negative and the interrogative forms, the conjugated element is the auxiliary verb whereas the verb is in the base form (*work, go*), so these forms do not distinguish between regular and irregular verbs.

**Use of the past simple:**

The past simple is used to express:

## 1. A finished action in the past:

- I *worked* in a factory 20 years ago. (Cat: *Vaig treballar* a una fàbrica fa 20 anys).
- *Did you watch* the film on TV last night? (Cat: *Vas veure* la pel·lícula de la tele ahir a la nit?).
- Mr Smith *didn't start* to work in this company until last year. (Cat: El Sr Smith *no va començar* a treballar en aquesta empresa fins l'any passat).
- She *met* her husband at a party when they were 15. (Cat: *Va conèixer* el seu marit a una festa quan tenien 15 anys).

## 2. A series of short, consecutive actions in the past:

- I *got up, had* a shower and *left* the house. (Cat: *Em vaig llevar, em vaig dutxar* i *vaig marxar* de casa).
- He *had* two drinks, *took* his car and *had* an accident. (Cat: *Va prendre* dues copes, *va agafar* el cotxe i *va tenir* un accident).

## 3. States in the past:

- *Were* you very tired after yesterday's long day at work? (Cat: *Estaves* molt cansada després del llarg dia de feina d'ahir?).
- We all *felt* very happy when he left. (Cat: Tots nosaltres *vam estar* molt contents quan va marxar).
- It *was* very hot last summer. (Cat: *Va fer* molta calor l'estiu passat).

**Time adverbials:**

There are some adverbials of time which are commonly used with the past simple. For example:

- **yesterday** (Cat. ahir): She arrived *yesterday*.
- **last night** (Cat. ahir a la nit): I met Mr Hilton *last night*.
- **last year** (Cat. l'any passat): We started our project *last year*.
- **one year ago** (Cat. fa un any): We met him *one year ago*.
- **in 1985** (Cat. a l'any 1900): They founded the company *in 1985*.
- **in the 19th century** (Cat. al segle XIX): Life was hard *in the 19th century*.
- **when I was younger** (Cat. quan jo era jove). *When I was younger*, we did not have so many advantages.

### The past continuous

Like all the continuous tenses, the past continuous is a complex tense formed with the past tense of the auxiliary *be* and the verb in gerund:

- WAS/WERE + GERUND (-ING)

### Conjugation of the past continuous:

The table below shows the past continuous forms of the verb *work*.

TAULA 2.3. Conjugation of the past continuous (work)

	Affirmative	Negative Long form	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:**

- The variable element in the past continuous is the auxiliary *be*, which must agree with the subject: *I, he, she, it was* and *you, we, they were*. The gerund is an invariable form. In this tense there is no difference between regular and irregular verbs.
- The equivalent forms of the past continuous in Catalan and Spanish are the forms Cat. *estava treballant* and Sp. *estaba trabajando* or Cat. *treballava* and Sp. *trabajaba*.

**Use of the past continuous:**

## 1. Unfinished actions at a specific point in the past:

- *I was sleeping* at eleven last night (Cat: *Estava dormint/dormia* ahir a les onze de la nit).
- What *were* you *doing* last year? (Cat: *Què estaves fent/feies* l'any passat?).
- *I wasn't doing* anything when you called (Cat: *No estava fent/no feia* res quan vas trucar).

## 2. Simultaneous actions in the past:

- He *was talking* about the markets while everybody *was sleeping* (Cat: *Estava parlant* dels mercats mentre tothom *dormia*).
- They *were going* home while I *was* still *waiting* for them in the boardroom (Cat: *Anaven cap a casa* mentre jo encara els *esperava* a la sala de juntes).

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When we express two simultaneous actions in the past, the two sentences are usually linked with the time connectors *while* (Cat. *mentre*) or *when* (Cat. *quan*).

---

**The past simple vs the past continuous**

The most important difference between the past simple and the past continuous is that the past simple describes a short action expressing what happened at a certain moment whereas the past continuous describes a long action stressing the duration of this action.

The two tenses are very often combined in the same sentence to express what was happening when the action was interrupted by another action. For example:

- *I was finishing* my report last night when the lights *went out*. (Cat. *Estava acabant* el meu informe ahir a la nit quan *se'n va anar* la llum).

The sentence includes:

1. A long action describing what was taking place in that moment (*I was going home*).

2. A short action describing what happened in the middle of the long action (*it started to rain*).
3. The time connector *when* to indicate that the actions took place at the same time.



### 3. A business meal

In the world of business, a meal is often the best means of establishing business contacts and closing a deal. These meals tend to be quite formal and therefore they are subject to a strict protocol that we should know in order to make a good impression and reach our objectives.

The reading text in this section explains the appropriate behaviour and gives some clues in case we need to organize and attend a formal business meal. It also explains the follow-up activities after the meal. At the same time, the text introduces some useful vocabulary that we may need in this context.

#### 3.1 Reading: organising and attending a business meal

The promotion activities of a company often include a business meal with customers or colleagues from other companies. These meals can be more or less formal, depending on the objective of the meal and the people who will attend. When we must organise or attend a formal business meal, it is very important that we are well acquainted with the rules of protocol which have been established for these events. These rules usually include a certain behaviour, the use of formal language and a strict dress code: an evening dress for women and a suit and tie for men. In very formal meals, a dinner suit for men may be required.

##### Organising a formal business meal

The organisation implies the sending of invitation letters to the potential guests, the choice of a restaurant and often the choice of a menu. Depending on the formality of the meal, you may also need to consider the setting of the table, which must also follow certain rules of protocol.

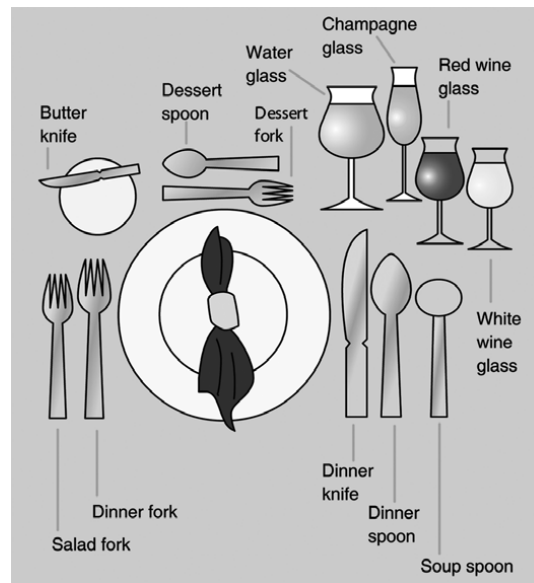
The elements that compose a table are called with the generic term 'tableware', a term that includes plates, cutlery and different types of glasses. 'Cutlery' is another generic term that includes any hand utensils used in preparing, serving and especially eating food, although in the U.S. 'cutlery' refers only to knives and other cutting utensils, whereas the other elements are known as 'silverware'. The three major utensils for eating in the Western world are the knife, the spoon and the fork.

The basic elements of a dinner service include the plate or plates (one on top of the other), napkin, spoons, knives, forks and glasses.

The cutlery is placed in order of use. The pieces that are used first go on the outside position and those used last are placed nearest the plate. The napkin is carefully folded and usually placed to the left of the cover or on the plate.

The figure below shows the proper setting of a table for a formal meal.

**FIGURA 3.1.** The proper setting of a table for a formal meal



### Attending a formal business meal

When attending a formal meal, you must show a distant, but polite attitude. This will give an overall positive impression. You should greet other people by using polite formulas like: *Mr Smith, how do you do?*. Always shake hands. Do not use informal gestures like patting a person's back, for example, although they may seem more friendly. Do not forget to turn off your mobile phone before you go into the restaurant.



A table laid for a formal meal

You should think that the greatest part of communication is expressed through body language, so behaviour is very important on these occasions. You should wait until everyone is seated at the table and then place your napkin on your lap. If your napkin happens to fall to the floor, you should ask the waiter for a new one. If you are the guest, you should be careful not to order the most expensive items on the menu or to order more than two courses unless your host specifically asks you so or the menu is fixed beforehand.

Once you are sitting at the table, you will be faced with a multi-course meal with lots of different utensils. There is also a protocol that establishes the use of such utensils. You should start with the knife, fork or spoon which is the farthest from your plate and work your way in, using one utensil for each course. There are two ways to use a knife and fork to cut and eat your food: the American style and the European or Continental style. Either style is considered appropriate.

In the American style, food is cut by holding the knife in the right hand and the fork in the left hand with the fork tines piercing the food to secure it on the plate. Once the food has been cut, you have to change your fork from your left to your right hand to eat, with the fork tines facing up.

The European or Continental style is the same as the American style in that you cut your meat by holding your knife in your right hand while securing your food

with your fork in your left hand. The difference is that your fork remains in your left hand, the tines facing down, and the knife in your right hand.

After the meal, the correct way of showing that you have finished is to place the knife and fork on your plate in a 4 o'clock position and the napkin on the right-hand side of your table setting.

### After the formal business meal

After a formal meal, it is customary to have some sort of follow-up. It is proper business etiquette to send a thank-you letter where you express your gratitude for the meal. It is good way to appreciate the host and it is also an excellent way to reinforce your interest in a particular business relationship.

These letters do not need to be much time consuming or very formal. A few lines focusing on what you value or appreciate about the other person's effort is all you need. A thank-you letter should be sent as soon as possible after the event.

These letters should ideally include the following information:

- *First paragraph*: thank the interviewer for taking the time to meet with you (mention the date).
- *Second paragraph*: restate your interest in the organisation. Mention something you learned from the meeting or comment on something of importance that you discussed. Again, emphasise your strengths, experiences and skills.
- *Third paragraph*: thank the host for his/her time and consideration. You may want to finish your message with a suggestion for further action and you can also mention that you will provide your phone number and the hours you can best be reach.

### Language notes

- **when**: there are two possible syntactical structures with the adverb *when* (Cat. quan). The same thing happens with the adverbs: *while* (Cat. mentre), *before* (Cat. abans) and *after* (Cat. després):
  1. *when* + V-ing: *when attending a formal meal*
  2. *when* + clause: *when you attend a formal meal.*
- **plate/dish/course**: the terms *plate*, *dish* and *course* may be easily confused because they are all translated with the Catalan word *plat* and the Spanish word *plato*. However, there is a clear difference: a *plate* refers to the object that is destined to contain the food; a *dish* generally refers to the name of a specific food preparation (for example, *a chicken salad is a dish*); finally, a *course* indicates the order of the dishes in a menu (for example, *the menu is composed of a first course and a second course*).
- **dinner/supper**: there is little difference in meaning between *dinner* and *supper*. They both refer to the evening meal (Cat. sopar), but *supper* generally means a light meal taken earlier in the evening. On the other hand, *dinner* may also have the more general sense of the main meal of the day.
- **cutlery/silverware**: the words *cutlery* and *silverware* are used to describe the things that are necessary for having a meal (Cat. coberts). *Cutlery* refers to the eating utensils (knives, spoons and forks), but in the US the term refers only to the knives; *silverware* is the same as *cutlery* in its general sense.

- **Use of the hyphen (-):** in the text there are different examples of the use of the hyphen: in general, a hyphen is used to form a noun by joining two words into one: *right-hand side*, *thank-you letter*, *a follow-up*.
- **Glass:** this term may refer to the material (Cat. vidre) or to a drinking utensil (Cat. got, copa). If necessary, we can distinguish between *water glass* (Cat. got) and *wine glass* (Cat. copa).
- **Breakfast/lunch/dinner/supper:** these words are nouns. To express the verb, we must say: *to have breakfast*, *to have lunch*, *to have dinner*, *to have supper*.

### 3.2 Glossary of terms: a formal meal

- *breakfast:* esmorzar
- *brunch:* brunch
- *business meal:* dinar de negocis, dinar d'empresa, dinar de treball
- *course:* plat
- *cutlery:* coberts; US conjunt de ganivets
- *chef:* xef, cap de cuina
- *dessert:* postre
- *dinner:* sopar
- *dinner service:* servei de taula, vaixel·la
- *dinner suit:* esmoquin (UK)
- *evening dress:* vestit de nit, vestit de festa
- *fork:* forquilla
- *glass:* got, copa
- *guest:* convidat
- *host:* amfitrió, persona que invita a un dinar
- *invitation card:* targeta d'invitació
- *invitation letter:* carta d'invitació
- *lunch:* dinar
- *knife:* ganivet
- *maitre:* maitre, cap de sala (en un restaurant)
- *menu:* menú, carta (d'un restaurant)
- *napkin:* tovalló

- *plate*: plat
- *silverware*: coberts
- *spoon*: cullera
- *suit*: vestit (conjunt de jaqueta i pantaló)
- *supper*: sopar, sopar lleuger
- *tie*: corbata
- *tablecloth*: mantell
- *thank-you letter*: carta d'agraïment
- *tine*: pua d'una forquilla
- *tip*: propina
- *to accept an invitation*: acceptar una invitació
- *to clear the table*: retirar els plats de taula
- *to close a deal*: tancar un tracte
- *to have (breakfast, brunch, lunch, dinner/supper)*: esmorzar, fer un brunch, dinar, sopar
- *to invite*: invitar, convidar
- *to lay the table*: posar la taula, parar taula
- *to make a good/bad impression*: causar bona/mala impressió
- *to refuse an invitation*: rebutjar una invitació
- *to tip*: donar propina, deixar propina
- *tuxedo*: esmoquin (US)
- *waiter/waitress*: cambrer/camblera

### 3.2.1 Communication: language issues

In all the communicative situations, accuracy is very important, but it is especially so in the working environment, where misunderstandings can have negative consequences for the company and for yourself. For this reason, it is necessary to be careful with the use of language in order to express your message as clearly as possible.

To avoid misunderstandings in your international relationships, you should consider such aspects as for example the cultural differences with other countries, the use of the formal or informal style, the use of false friends and phrasal verbs, or the correct pronunciation of certain words which are only distinguished by their stress.

#### Words as verbs and nouns

In English, it is common to find the same word functioning as a noun and as a verb. Very often, these words have the same spelling and pronunciation, so the only way of distinguishing the meaning is from the context. Some examples of these are:

- Noun: *love* (Cat. amor); verb: *love* (Cat. estimar)
- Noun: *water* (Cat. aigua); verb: *water* (Cat. regar)
- Noun: *walk* (Cat. passeig); verb: *walk* (Cat. passejar, caminar)
- Noun: *drive* (Cat. trajecte en cotxe); verb: *drive* (Cat. conduir)
- Noun: *fall* (Cat. caiguda); verb: *fall* (Cat. caure)
- Noun: *mistake* (Cat. error); verb: *mistake* (Cat. confondre)

Sometimes, the words have the same spelling, but they are stressed in different syllables, as in the following examples (stressed syllables in **bold type**):

- Noun: *increase* (Cat. augment); verb: **increase** (Cat. augmentar)
- Noun: **decrease** (Cat. descens); verb: *decrease* (Cat. descendre, baixar)
- Noun: **import** (Cat. importació); verb: *import* (Cat. importar)
- Noun: **export** (Cat. exportació); verb: *export* (Cat. exportar)
- Noun: **discount** (Cat. descompte, rebaixa); verb: *discount* (Cat. descomptar, rebaixar)
- Noun: **refund** (Cat. devolució); verb: *refund* (Cat. tornar, fer una devolució)
- Noun: **insult** (Cat. insult); verb: *insult* (Cat. insultar)

- Noun: **protest** (Cat. protesta); verb: **protest** (Cat. protestar)
- Noun: **update** (Cat. actualització); verb: **update** (Cat. actualitzar)
- Noun: **misprint** (Cat. error tipogràfic); verb: **misprint** (Cat. cometre una errada tipogràfica)
- Noun: **survey** (Cat. enquesta) verb: **survey** (Cat. enquestar, fer una enquesta)
- Noun: **detail** (Cat. detall); verb: **detail** (Cat. detallar, donar details)
- Noun: **upset** (Cat. trasbals); verb: **upset** (Cat. trasbalsar)

Some other words have the same spelling and different syllable stress, but also different meanings as a noun and as a verb. Some examples of these words are:

- Noun: **contract** (Cat. contracte); verb: **contract** (Cat. contraure's)
- Noun: **conduct** (Cat. conducta, actitud); verb: **conduct** (Cat. dirigir, portar a terme, realitzar)
- Noun: **object** (Cat. objecte); verb: **object** (Cat. objectar, posar objeccions)
- Noun: **subject** (Cat. assignatura, tema, subjecte [gramatical]); **subject** (Cat. sotmetre)
- Noun: **present** (Cat. regal); verb: **present** (Cat. presentar)
- Noun: **desert** (Cat. desert); verb: **desert** (Cat. desertar, abandonar)

### False friends

Many English words, especially those in the fields of business, commerce, science and technology, have a Greek or Latin origin, so they can be easily recognized by a Spanish or Catalan speaker. For example, you do not probably need a dictionary to understand the meaning of words like *information, university, computer, reality, family, television, history*, and many others.

However, there are some words that look similar in the two languages, but they do not have the same meaning. These words are called *false friends* because they apparently have one meaning, but they actually have a different one.

There are not many English false friends, but they are very frequently used, so it is very important to know their meanings and be careful to use the correct word to avoid misunderstandings.

The table below shows a list of some common false friends.

TAULA 3.1. English false friends

English word	Catalan translation	Similar Catalan word	English translation
actually	de fet	actualment	currently, now

See the annex called "List of false friends" for the most common false friends in Catalan and Spanish.

TAULA 3.1 (continuació)

English word	Catalan translation	Similar Catalan word	English translation
approve	acceptar, aprovar	aprovar (un examen)	pass
assist	ajudar, atendre	assistir a	attend, go to
conductor	director d'orquestra	conductor	driver
disgust	fàstic	disgust	upset (adj.)
exit	sortida	èxit	success
fabric	teixit	fàbrica	factory
lecture	conferència, xerrada	lectura	reading
library	biblioteca	llibreria	bookshop, bookstore
motorist	automobilista	motorista	motor cyclist
preservative	conservant	preservatiu	condom
sensible	sensat, amb seny	sensible	sensitive

### Phrasal verbs

In English, we often use verbs accompanied by a small word called *adverb particle*, which gives a special meaning to the verb. This meaning is different from the separate meanings of the verb and the particle.

The verbal units composed of verb + adverb particle are called *phrasal verbs*. Phrasal verbs are more common in the oral and informal language than in the written, formal language.

Here are some widely-used phrasal verbs (with their meanings in Catalan):

- *get up* (Cat. llevar-se)
- *wake up* (Cat. despertar-se)
- *break down* (Cat. avariar-se, espatllar-se)
- *look out* (Cat. vigilar, anar amb compte)
- *turn on* (Cat. engegar, posar en marxa, encendre [un llum])
- *turn off* (Cat. apagar [un llum, un aparell])
- *fill in* (Cat. omplir [un formulari])
- *take off* (Cat. enlairar-se [un avió], treure's [una peça de roba])
- *turn up* (Cat. presentar-se, aparèixer [en un lloc])
- *blow up* (Cat. esclatar, explotar)
- *throw away* (Cat. tirar, llançar)
- *come back* (Cat. tornar, retornar [d'un lloc])
- *put off* (Cat. posposar, retardar)

See the annex "List of phrasal verbs" for a list of the the most common phrasal verbs in English. It includes a translation of the verbs into Catalan.



- *find out* (Cat. descobrir, trobar)

Sometimes, the phrasal verb has an object. In this case, there are two possible positions for the object:

- Don't forget to **turn off** *the lights* / Don't forget to **turn** *the lights* **off** (Cat. No t'oblidis d'apagar els llums).
- Can you **fill in** *this form* please? / Can you **fill** *this form* **in** please? (Cat. Pot omplir aquest formulari, si us plau?).
- I think I'll **throw away** these old magazines / I think I'll **throw** these old magazines **away** (Cat. Em sembla que llançaré aquestes revistes velles).

But if the object is a pronoun, it is always placed between the verb and the particle. Examples:

- Don't forget to **turn** *them* **off** (Cat. No t'oblidis d'apagar-les).
- Can you **fill** *it* **in** please? (Cat. Pot omplir-lo, si us plau?).
- I think I'll **throw** *them* **away** (Cat. Em sembla que les llançaré).

Some phrasal verbs can also add a preposition, as for example:

- *look forward to* (Cat. esperar amb il·lusió)
- *keep up with* (Cat. mantenir-se a l'alçada de, mantenir el ritme de)
- *cut down on* (Cat. reduir [una activitat])
- *put up with* (Cat. tolerar, suportar, aguantar [una persona o situació])

### Prepositional verbs and verbs + prepositional phrase

We should not confuse the phrasal verbs with the *prepositional verbs*. The prepositional verbs are those that have a preposition before the object. For example:

- *look at* (Cat. mirar): *he looked at me.*
- *listen to* (Cat. escoltar): *I'll listen to the radio.*
- *belong to* (Cat. pertànyer a): *this desk belongs to Mrs Smith.*
- *apply to* (somebody) (Cat. demanar a [algú]): *I'll apply to the manager.*
- *apply for* (something) (Cat sol·licitar [una cosa]): *I applied for a job.*
- *speak with* (Cat. parlar amb): *you should speak with your boss.*
- *consist of* (Cat. estar compost de): *the presentation consists of two parts*

It is also very common to use a verb indicating movement (like *go, walk, run, drive, fly, swim*) with a *prepositional phrase*. For example:

- *Walk along the street* (Cat. Ves [camina] pel carrer).
- *I drove through the city in only ten minutes* (Cat. Vaig conduir d'una punta a l'altra de la ciutat en només deu minuts).
- *Please don't go up those stairs* (Cat. Si us plau, no pugis per aquella escala).
- *I swam across the lake* (Cat. Vaig nedar d'una banda a l'altra del llac).

In these examples, the verb and the preposition retain their original meaning.

### Prefixes and suffixes

A prefix refers to the element that is placed at the beginning of a word to modify or adjust the meaning of that word, whereas the suffix is placed at the end of the word. Both prefixes and suffixes form part of the word to which they are joined and cannot be separated. Most of them are attached to the word, as in “bilingual”, but a few are separated from the word by a hyphen (-), as in “extra-curricular”.

The knowledge of the meaning of the most important prefixes and suffixes is important because it makes it easier to guess the meaning of unknown words. For example, if we know the meaning of the prefix “mis-” (wrongly) and we know the meaning of the verb “understand” (Cat: entendre), we can easily guess the meaning of “misunderstand” (Cat: entendre malament), and this even though it is the first time that we see that word.

Prefixes and suffixes can be added to nouns, adjectives and verbs to express a new

idea. Suffixes are basically used to change the part of speech of a word, that is, to turn adjectives into nouns, nouns into adjectives, etc.

You can create words by adding the appropriate prefixes or suffixes. For example, you can add the suffix *-like* to a noun (like in *childlike*) to form a new adjective: *teacher-like* (Cat. que es comporta com un professor), *animal-like* (Cat. que és o es comporta com un animal), etc. In these cases, the suffix is separated from the word by a hyphen (-) because the new word has not been incorporated into the language.

### Prefixes

The majority of prefixes are the same and have the same meaning as in Catalan and Spanish. For example: *anti-*, *auto-*, *cyber-*, *extra-*, *hyper-*, *inter-*, *kilo-*, *micro-*, *mini-*, *mono-*, *multi-*, *neo-*, *photo-*, *post-*, *pre-*, *semi-*, *sub-*, *super-*, *tele-*, *trans-*, *vice-*, etc.

However, there are some others that have a different origin and are not so easy to understand. The table below shows some common English prefixes:

TAULA 3.2. Prefixes

Prefix	Added to...	Usual meaning	Examples
de-	verbs	reversing action	deregulate
dis-	adjectives, nouns, verbs	not, opposite	disloyal, disorder, discover
en-	adjectives, nouns	make, put in	enable, endanger
fore-	nouns, verbs	before	foreground, foretell
ill-	past participles	badly	ill-used
mid-	nouns	in the middle of	mid-90, mid-century, mid-way
mis-	nouns, verbs	wrongly	misuse, misunderstand, misspelling
out-	nouns, verbs	be more than	outcast, outrun, outnumber
over-	nouns, verbs	too much	over-confident, overheat, oversize
un-	adjectives, verbs	opposite, not	unimportant, undress

### Suffixes

The tables below show a list of common English suffixes and their meanings:

TAULA 3.3. Suffixes that form nouns

Suffix	Added to...	Meaning	Examples
-ee	verbs	object of the verb	employee, interviewee
-er/-or	verbs	person/thing that does the action of the verb	manager, director
-ess	nouns	female	actress, waitress, lioness
. . . . .			

**TAULA 3.3** (continuació)

Suffix	Added to...	Meaning	Examples
-ful	nouns	quantity contained in	handful, spoonful
-ship	nouns	quality of	friendship, relationship

**TAULA 3.4.** Suffixes that form adjectives

Suffix	Added to...	Meaning	Examples
-able	verbs	that can be done	manageable, understandable
-ful	nouns	full of	useful, careful
-ish	adjectives, nouns	tending to, similar to	bluish, childish
-less	nouns	without	homeless, armless
-like	nouns	like, behaving like	childlike, homelike
-ous	nouns	having	numerous, vicious
-ly	adjectives	in that manner	quietly, quickly
-wards	prepositions of place, nouns	in that direction	backwards, homewards

**Adjectives in -ed and adjectives in -ing**

The suffixes *-ed* and *-ing* are added to verbs in order to form adjectives. These adjectives are easily confused because they have similar meanings, but there is a difference:

- The adjectives ending in *-ed* refer to a temporary state. These adjectives form the past participle of the corresponding verbs. For example: *interested, terrified, embarrassed, fascinated*.
- The adjectives ending in *-ing* refer to a permanent characteristic. For example: *interesting, terrifying, embarrassing, fascinating*.

The table below shows some common adjectives in *-ed* and *-ing*:

**TAULA 3.5.** Adjectives ending in -ed and adjectives ending in -ing

-ed	-ing	Meanings
amazed	amazing	sorprès- sorprenent
amused	amusing	divertit - divertit
annoyed	annoying	molest - molest
astonished	astonishing	sorprès - sorprenent
confused	confusing	confós - confós
depressed	depressing	deprimit - depriment
disgusted	disgusting	fastiguejat - fastigós
embarrassed	embarrassing	avergonyit - que fa vergonya
excited	exciting	emocionat - emocionant
exhausted	exhausting	esgotat - esgotador

TAULA 3.5 (continuació)

-ed	-ing	Meanings
fascinated	fascinating	fascinat - fascinant
frightened	frightening	espantat - espantós
horrified	horrifying	horroritzat - horrorós
interested	interesting	interessat - interessant
satisfied	satisfying	satisfet - satisfactori
shocked	shocking	sorprès - sorprenent
terrified	terrifying	aterroritzat - terrorífic
tired	tiring	cansat - cansat
worried	worrying	preocupat - preocupant

Here are some examples in their contexts:

- *I met a very **interesting** person* (Cat. Vaig conèixer una persona molt *interessant*).
- *I'm very **interested** in computing* (Cat. Estic molt *interessat* en la informàtica).
- *The scene was **terrifying*** (Cat. L'escena era *terrorífica*).
- *I certainly was **terrified** by the scene* (Cat. Vaig quedar certament *horroritzat* per l'escena).
- *I think the situation was **embarrassing*** (Cat. Crec que la situació va ser *incòmoda*).
- *You're right. I felt **embarrassed**, too* (Cat. Tens raó. Jo també em vaig sentir *incòmode*).
- *I find social networks **fascinating*** (Cat. Trobo les xarxes socials *fascinants*).
- *I don't. I'm not at all **fascinated*** (Cat. Jo no. Jo no estic gens *fascinat*).

### Easily confused words

As in all the languages, in English there are many words that can be easily confused by language learners for several reasons. It might be because of minor differences in spelling or similarity in their meanings, but in any case, they are often used wrongly and can generate mistakes and create misunderstandings.

Here is a list of commonly used words which are often confused.

#### Advise / Advice:

There is a difference in spelling and in meaning.

- *Advise* (Cat. aconsellar) is a verb. For example: *I **advise** you to be patient* (Cat. T'aconsejo que tinguis paciència).

#### 'Ser i estar'

In Catalan and Spanish, there is a different verb for each adjective: Cat. *ser interessant* and *estar interessat*.

In English, however, there is only one verb (*be*), so the ending is the only way of distinguishing the meanings of the adjectives.

- *Advice* (Cat. consell) is a noun. For example: *My only **advice** is that you are patient* (Cat. El meu únic consell és que tinguis paciència).

### Practise / Practice:

In British English, there is a difference in spelling and meaning between these two words, as in *advise/advice*:

- *Practise* (Cat. practicar) is a verb. For example: *You should **practise** English more often* (Cat. Hauries de practicar l'anglès més sovint).
- *Practice* (Cat. pràctica) is a noun. For example: *You need more **practice** to improve your pronunciation* (Cat. Et cal més pràctica per a millorar la pronunciació).

In American English, there is only one spelling (*Practice*), but two meanings for this word. Examples:

- Verb: *You should **practice** English more often* (Cat. Hauries de practicar l'anglès més sovint).
- Noun: *You need more **practice** to improve your pronunciation* (Cat. Et cal més pràctica per a millorar la pronunciació).

### Life / Live:

Apart from differences in spelling and meaning, there is also a clear difference in pronunciation between these two words:

- *Life* (pronounced: /laɪf/) (Cat. vida) is a noun: *I lead a very healthy **life*** (Cat. Porto una vida molt saludable).
- *Live* (pronounced: /lɪv/) (Cat. viure) is a verb: *I **live** in Barcelona* (Cat. Visc a Barcelona).

A related word is the adjective *alive* (Cat. viu/va), which is the opposite of *dead* (Cat. mort/a), as in: *He's still alive; I can notice his breathing* (Cat. Encara és viu; puc notar com respira).

Please notice that the plural form of *life* is *lives* (pronounced /laɪvz/). Do not confuse with the third person singular of the present simple of the verb: *he lives* (pronounced /lɪvz/).

### Price / Prize:

These two words are both nouns. There is a difference in spelling and meaning and there is also a slight difference in pronunciation: *price* is pronounced /praɪs/ whereas *prize* is pronounced /praɪz/.

- *Price* (Cat. preu): *The **price** of this product has increased a lot* (Cat. El preu d'aquest producte ha pujat molt).

See the annex called "English Phonetic Symbols" to see a description of the phonetic signs.

- *Prize* (Cat. premi): *She won the first **prize** in a painting competition* (Cat. Va guanyar el primer premi en un concurs de pintura).

### Job / Work:

The meanings of these two words are very similar, but there is a grammatical difference between them which provokes frequent mistakes in their use.

- *Job* (Cat. feina, lloc de treball) is a countable noun, which means that it can be used in plural. For example: *I've had many **jobs** in my life, but I am currently unemployed* (Cat. He tingut moltes feines a la meua vida, però ara mateix estic a l'atur).
- *Work* (Cat. treball) is an uncountable noun, which means that it cannot be used in plural. For example: *I've got a lot of **work** at the weekend* (Cat. Tinc molta feina aquest cap de setmana).

Apart from a noun, *work* can also be a verb, as in: *I work five days a week* (Cat. Treballo cinc dies a la setmana).

### Trip / Travel:

There is a little difference in meaning between these two nouns, but there is also a grammatical difference.

- *Travel* (Cat. viatge) refers to the act of travelling. In this case, it is an uncountable noun. For example: *Nowadays air **travel** can be very cheap* (Cat. Avui en dia viatjar en avió pot ser molt barat).
- *Trip* (Cat. viatge, desplaçament) refers to the act of going from one place to another. In this case, it is a countable noun. For example: *I made a **trip** to Paris last week* (Cat. La setmana passada vaig fer un viatge a París).

*Travel* is very frequently used as a verb, as in: *I must **travel** a lot in my job* (Cat. A la meua feina haig de viatjar molt).

Other related words are *journey* (Cat. viatge), which can be used as a synonym of 'trip' and *voyage* (Cat. viatge, travessia), which refers to a trip by boat or spacecraft.

### Win / Earn / Gain:

Catalan and Spanish do not distinguish the meanings of these three verbs, so mistakes in their use are very common among English learners.

- *Win* (Cat. guanyar) means 1) to be number one in a competition, as for example in: *Which team **won** the last World Cup?* (Cat. Quin equip va guanyar l'últim Mundial?) and 2) to receive money as a prize, as for example in: *He **has won** 5000€ in a single game of poker* (Cat. Ha guanyat 5000€ en una sola partida de póquer).

- *Earn* (Cat. guanyar) means to get something, usually money, in exchange for your work, as in: *He earns only 600 euros for a job as an administrative assistant* (Cat. Només guanya 660 euros per una feina d'administratiu).
- *Gain* (Cat. guanyar) means to get or to increase, as for example in: *He gained a lot of confidence after talking to his boss* (Cat. Va guanyar molta confiança després de parlar amb el seu cap).

The word *gain* can also be a noun, which is commonly used in the financial world. In this sense, it means Cat. *guany, pujada, augment* as in: *There's a gain of 3% in the company's shares* (Cat. Hi ha una pujada del 3% en les accions de l'empresa).

### **Hope / Wait / Expect / Look forward to:**

These four verbs have similar meanings, but they should be clearly distinguished because they are used in different contexts.

- *Hope* (Cat. esperar, tenir l'esperança) has an emotional component and it means that you want something to happen, as for example in: *I hope you find a job soon* (Cat. Espero que trobis una feina ben aviat).
- *Wait* (Cat. esperar) means to let time pass because something will happen, as in: *I am waiting for my flight* (Cat. Estic esperant el meu vol).
- *Expect* (Cat. esperar) means that you know that something will happen because it is probable or reasonable, as for example: *We're expecting the CEO to arrive any moment now* (Cat. Estem esperant que arribi el Director General en qualsevol moment).
- *Look forward to* (Cat. esperar, desitjar) combines the meanings of the other three verbs. It means that you think with pleasure about something that will happen in the future, as in *I'm looking forward to retiring next year* (Cat. Espero jubilar-me l'any que ve). This verb is also very much used in formal letters as a closing phrase: *I look forward to hearing from you as soon as possible* (Cat. Espero tenir notícies seves el més aviat possible).

### **Spend / Waste:**

These are two verbs with different meanings, but they are often confused. Basically, you can spend/waste money and you can spend/waste time. Here are the differences:

- *Spend (money)* (Cat. gastar). For example: *We spend a lot of money at Christmas* (Cat. Pel Nadal ens gastem molts diners).
- *Waste (money)* (Cat. malgastar). For example: *The company has wasted a lot of money in doubtful investments* (Cat. L'empresa ha malgastat molts diners en inversions dubtoses).
- *Spend (time)* (Cat. passar). For example: *I will spend the whole weekend trying to understand this report* (Cat. Em passaré tot el cap de setmana intentant entendre aquest informe).



- *Waste (time)* (Cat. perdre, malgastar). For example: ***Don't waste your time with this! Go back to work!*** (Cat. No perdis el temps amb això! Torna a la feina!).

The term *waste* (Cat. pèrdua de temps) can also be a noun, as in: *This is a total waste of time* (Cat. Això és una pèrdua total de temps!). Another meaning of the noun *waste* is that of 'garbage', 'rubbish' (Cat. desperdicis):

### **Economic / Economical / Economy / Economics:**

The words *economic* and *economical* are adjectives whereas *economy* and *economics* are nouns. Here are the differences between them:

- *Economic* (Cat. econòmic/a) refers to things related to the organization of money and trade in a country. For example: *The economic situation is worse than we thought* (Cat. La situació econòmica és pitjor del que ens pensàvem).
- *Economical* (Cat. econòmic/a, barat/a) is the same as 'cheap', as in: *We stayed at a very economical hotel* (Cat. Ens vam allotjar a un hotel molt econòmic).
- *Economy* (Cat. economia) is the system by which the money, the trade and the industry of a country are organized, as for example: *The economy of some countries has suffered a recession* (L'economia d'alguns països ha patit una recessió):
- *Economics* (Cat. economia) refers to the studies and the science, as in this example: *She studied economics* (Cat. Va estudiar economia).

### **Customer / Client:**

Both nouns have similar meanings, but there is a difference:

- *Customer* (Cat. client) is a person that buys a product. For example: *The shop was full of customers* (Cat. La botiga estava plena de clients).
- *Client* (Cat. client) is a person who receives a service from a professional. For example: *I was a client of that lawyer's office* (Cat. Jo era client d'aquesta firma d'advocats).

### **Brand / Make / Trademark / Logo:**

These four nouns are very common in the field of commerce and they should not be confused. Here is the difference between them:

- *Brand* (Cat. marca) refers to the names of essential consumer products which you can buy in shops. For example: *Which is your favourite brand of coffee?* (Cat. Quina és la teva marca de cafè favorita?).

- *Make* (Cat. marca) refers to the names of long-lasting products such as machines or cars. For example: *Toyota is a **make** of car* (Cat. Toyota és una marca de cotxe).
- *Trademark* (Cat. marca registrada) is the name or the symbol used by manufacturers to distinguish their products from other products. For example: *We registered our **trademark** at the patents office* (Cat. Vam registrar la nostra marca a l'oficina de patents).
- *Logo* (Cat. logotip, logo) is the symbol used by a company to identify a product or trademark. For example: *The **logo** of Mercedes is the three-pointed star* (Cat. El logo de Mercedes és l'estrella de tres puntes).

Do not use the term *mark* in sentences like: *Which is your favourite mark of coffee?*

### 3.2.2 Grammar reference: the past tenses (II)

Apart from speaking about the past in terms of duration of the action, we can also indicate whether the action took place in an indeterminate moment, whether it has recently finished or whether it is still continuing in the present. To express all this, we can use the *perfect tenses*.

#### The present perfect simple

The present perfect simple is a compound tense. The structure is the following:

- HAVE/HAS + PAST PARTICIPLE

See the annex "List of irregular verbs" for a list of the irregular past participle forms of the most common verbs.

#### The past participle

The past participle (Cat. participi) is an invariable form of the verb. It is mostly used to form the present tenses and the passive voice. In English, the past participle is formed:

- in regular verbs, by adding -ed to the verb: *worked, played, visited...*
- in irregular verbs, with a different word: *go > gone, be > been, buy > bought ...*

#### Conjugation of the present perfect simple:

The table [taula 3.11](#) shows the conjugation of the present perfect of the regular verb *work*.

**TAULA 3.6.** Conjugation of the present perfect simple (regular verb: work)

	<b>Affirmative</b>	<b>Negative Long form</b>	<b>Short form</b>	<b>Interrogative</b>
I	have worked	have not worked	haven't worked	have I worked...?
you	have worked	have not worked	haven't worked	have you worked...?
he, she, it	has worked	has not worked	hasn't worked	has he worked...?
we	have worked	have not worked	haven't worked	have we worked...?
you	have worked	have not worked	haven't worked	have you worked...?
they	have worked	have not worked	haven't worked	have they worked...?

Here is the conjugation of the irregular verb *go* (tab.45):

**TAULA 3.7.** Conjugation of the present perfect simple (irregular verb: go)

	<b>Affirmative</b>	<b>Negative Long form</b>	<b>Short form</b>	<b>Interrogative</b>
I	have gone	have not gone	haven't gone	have I gone...?
you	have gone	have not gone	haven't gone	have you gone...?
he, she, it	has gone	has not gone	hasn't gone	has he gone...?
we	have gone	have not gone	haven't gone	have we gone...?
you	have gone	have not gone	haven't gone	have you gone...?
they	have gone	have not gone	haven't gone	have they gone...?

**Notes:**

- In the perfect tenses, we must conjugate the auxiliary verb *have*, which has two forms: *have* and *has*. These forms must agree with the subject.
- In the negative form, we add *not* to the auxiliary verb and in the interrogative form, we must change the word order (V+S).
- Remember that the past participle (*worked*, *gone*) is an invariable form.

**Use of the present perfect simple:**

The present perfect simple is used to express:

1) An action that started in the past, but it is not finished yet (usually with the prepositions *for* or *since*).

- I *have worked* in this company for 23 years. (Cat: *Fa 23 anys que treballo a aquesta empresa / Porto 23 anys treballant a aquesta empresa*).
- They *have studied* English since they were ten. (Cat: *Estudien anglès des que tenien deu anys / Porten estudiant anglès des dels deu anys*).

2) A recently finished action whose consequence is still felt in the present.

- It's wet because it *has rained* all night. (Cat: Està mullat perquè *ha plogut* tota la nit).
- She is tired because she *has worked* a lot. (Cat: Està cansada perquè *ha treballat* molt).

3) A finished action in the past, but within a period of time which is not finished yet.

- *Have you done* anything special today? (Cat: *Has fet* alguna cosa especial avui?).
- We *haven't seen* Mike this week. (Cat: Aquesta setmana *no hem vist* a Mike).

4) A finished action in an indeterminate past (we say what happened, but not when it happened).

- I *have just arrived*. (Cat: *Acabo d'arribar*)
- They *haven't gone* home yet. (Cat: *Encara no han anat* a casa)
- The classes *have started*. (Cat: *Les classes han començat*)

### **The prepositions *for* and *since***

The prepositions *for* and *since* are both used to express the period of time that has passed from the beginning of the action until the present, but they have different meanings:

- *For* is used with a period of time (23 years, ten days, six hours, etc.)
- *Since* is used with a specific moment in the past that marks the starting point of an action (yesterday, last Monday, three o'clock, etc.)

In Catalan and Spanish, we must express these ideas with a totally different sentence structure. Compare the sentences:

- Eng: *I have known Mike for ten years* - Cat: *Fa deu anys que conec al Mike*.
- Eng: *I have known Mike since 1995* - Cat: *Conec al Mike des de l'any 1995*.

### **Time adverbials:**

There are some adverbials of time which are often used with the present perfect simple. For example:

- **Today** (Cat. avui): he has arrived *today*.

- **This week, this month,...:** (Cat. aquesta setmana, aquest mes,...): I have been ill *this week*.
- **Never** (Cat. mai): I have *never* been to Japan.
- **Just** (Cat. -): I have *just* met Mr Smith.
- **Already** (Cat. ja): I have *already* finished the report.
- **Ever** (in questions)(Cat. alguna vegada): have you *ever* been in England?
- **Yet** (in questions) (Cat. ja): have you finished *yet*?
- **Yet** (in negative sentences) (Cat. encara no): I haven't finished *yet*.

### The adverb *just*

The adverb *just* indicates that the action has finished very recently. In Catalan and Spanish, we must use the expression: *acabar de...* For example:

- Eng. *I have just met Mr Smith* - Cat. *Acabo de conèixer al Sr Smith*; Sp. *Acabo de conocer al Sr Smith*.

### The present perfect continuous

The present perfect continuous is a compound verb tense which combines the perfect forms with the continuous forms. The structure is:

- HAVE/HAS + BEEN + GERUND (-ING)

### Conjugation of the present perfect continuous

The table [taula 3.8](#) shows the forms of the present perfect continuous of the verb *work*.

TAULA 3.8. Conjugation of the present perfect continuous (work)

	Affirmative	Negative Long form	Short form	Interrogative
I	have been working	have not been working	haven't been working	have I been working...?
you	have been working	have not been working	haven't been working	have you been working...?
he, she, it	has been working	has not been working	hasn't been working	has he been working...?
we	have been working	have not been working	haven't been working	have we been working...?
you	have been working	have not been working	haven't been working	have you been working...?
they	have been working	have not been working	haven't been working	have they been working...?

**Notes:**

- As in the present perfect simple, we conjugate the auxiliary verb *have* in present (*have/has*).
- The invariable form *been* is the irregular past participle of the auxiliary verb *be*.
- We also add the invariable form *working*, which is used to form the continuous tenses.

**Use of the present perfect continuous:**

1) An action that started in the past, but it is not finished yet (usually with the prepositions *for* or *since*).

- We *have been working* in this company for more than 20 years. (Cat. *Portem treballant en aquesta empresa des de fa més de 20 anys*).
- They *have been waiting* in the hall since ten o'clock. (Cat. *Porten esperant al vestíbul des de les deu*).

2) A recently finished action whose consequence is still felt in the present.

- The office is a mess because we *have been celebrating* Mr Smith's retirement - Cat. *L'oficina està feta un desastre perquè hem estat celebrant la jubilació del Sr Smith*.
- I'm very sleepy. I *have been working* all night - Cat. *Tinc molta son. He estat treballant tota la nit*.

3) A finished action in the past, but within a period of time which is not finished yet.

- What *have you been doing* today? - Cat. *Què has estat fent avui?*
- I *ve been updating* the information - Cat. *He estat actualitzant la informació*.

**Present perfect simple vs present perfect continuous**

The two tenses are used very much in the same way, but we use the present perfect continuous when we want to emphasize the duration of the action. Compare these two sentences:

- Present simple: *I have worked since 6 in the morning* (Cat. *Estic treballant des de les 6 del matí*). We state the fact.
- Present continuous: *I have been working since 6 in the morning* (Cat. *Porto treballant sense parar des de les 6 del matí*). We emphasize the idea that we have not stopped working.

## The past perfect simple

The structure of the past perfect simple is the following:

- HAD + PAST PARTICIPLE

### Conjugation of the past perfect simple:

The table taula 3.9 shows the conjugation of the regular verb *work* in the past perfect simple.

TAULA 3.9. Conjugation of the past perfect simple of regular verbs (work)

	Affirmative	Negative Long form	Short form	Interrogative
I	had worked	had not worked	hadn't worked	had I worked...?
you	had worked	had not worked	hadn't worked	had you worked...?
he, she, it	had worked	had not worked	hadn't worked	had he worked...?
we	had worked	had not worked	hadn't worked	had we worked...?
you	had worked	had not worked	hadn't worked	had you worked...?
they	had worked	had not worked	hadn't worked	had they worked...?

The table taula 3.10 shows the conjugation of the irregular verb *go* in the past perfect simple:

TAULA 3.10. Conjugation of the past perfect simple of irregular verbs (go)

	Affirmative	Negative Long form	Short form	Interrogative
I	had gone	had not gone	hadn't gone	had I gone...?
you	had gone	had not gone	hadn't gone	had you gone...?
he, she, it	had gone	had not gone	hadn't gone	had he gone...?
we	had gone	had not gone	hadn't gone	had we gone...?
you	had gone	had not gone	hadn't gone	had you gone...?
they	had gone	had not gone	hadn't gone	had they gone...?

### Note:

- In the past perfect, we conjugate the auxiliary verb *have* in the past tense, which only has one form for all persons (*had*).

### Use of the past perfect simple:

The past perfect simple is used to express an action that took place before a specific moment in the past:

- When he retired in 1980, he *had worked* for 40 years. (Cat. Quan es va

jubilar al 1980, *havia treballat* durant 40 anys).

- I *had never seen* Andrew before he came here. (Cat. No *havia vist* mai a Andrew abans que vingués aquí).
- In 1987, I *had already finished* my studies. (Cat. A l'any 1987 ja *havia acabat* els estudis).

### The past perfect continuous

The past perfect continuous combines the perfect and the continuous forms. The structure of this verb tense is:

- HAD + BEEN + GERUND (-ING)

### Conjugation of the past perfect continuous:

The table taula 3.11 shows the conjugation of the verb *work* in the past perfect continuous:

TAULA 3.11. Conjugation of the past perfect continuous (work)

	Affirmative	Negative Long form	Short form	Interrogative
I	had been working	had not been working	hadn't been working	had I been working...?
you	had been working	had not been working	hadn't been working	had you been working...?
he, she, it	had been working	had not been working	hadn't been working	had he been working...?
we	had been working	had not been working	hadn't been working	had we been working...?
you	had been working	had not been working	hadn't been working	had you been working...?
they	had been working	had not been working	hadn't been working	had they been working...?

### Use of the past perfect continuous:

The past perfect continuous is used to express an action that took place before a specific moment in the past:

- When he retired in 1980, he *had been working* for 40 years. (Cat. Quan es va jubilar al 1980, *havia estat treballant* durant 40 anys).
- I *had been living* in a small flat before I moved to this house. (Cat. *Havia estat vivint* en un pis petit abans de traslladar-me a aquesta casa).
- *Had you been drinking* before the accident last night? (Cat. *Havies estat bebent* abans de l'accident d'ahir a la nit?).



### Past perfect simple vs Past perfect continuous

We use both tenses to express an action that took place before another action in the past. The difference is that the past perfect simple emphasizes the action and the past perfect continuous emphasizes the duration of the action.

#### Time adverbials:

Apart from the adverbials used to speak about the past (as for example *yesterday*, *last week*, etc.), the past perfect tenses are often used with these time expressions:

- **until then** (Cat. fins aleshores): I had never seen him *until then*.
- **before (he arrived)** (Cat. abans d'arribar): I had been waiting for three hours *before he finally arrived*.
- **by then** (Cat. aleshores): I called her immediately but she had already gone *by then*.

### The present perfect simple vs the past simple

The main difference between the past simple and the present perfect simple is in the moment of the action:

- We use the past simple when we specify the moment of the action happened.
- We use the present perfect simple when we do not specify the moment of the action.

Examples with the past simple (adverbials in italics):

- I went out *before midnight* (Cat. Vaig sortir abans de la mitjanit).
- I arrived *at about 8 o'clock last night* (Cat. Vaig arribar cap a les 8 ahir al vespre).
- We met *in 2009*. (Cat. Ens vam conèixer el 2009).
- I saw him *when I was going out* (Cat. El vaig veure quan jo sortia).

Examples with the present perfect simple:

- I have been in Italy, and you? (Cat. Jo he estat a Itàlia, i tu?).
- We have never talked to her. (Cat. No hem parlat mai amb ella).
- Mr Smith has arrived. (Cat. El Sr Smith ha arribat).
- It has rained. (Cat. Ha plogut).

Now compare the use of both tenses in the following situation:

- *Have you ever been* to Italy? - Yes, I have. I *was* there in 1987 (we use the past simple because we say when).
- And you? - No, I *have never been* in Italy (we use the present perfect because we do not say when).

# People

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Anglès



# Índex

<b>Introduction</b>	<b>5</b>
<b>Learning objectives</b>	<b>7</b>
<b>1 Communication</b>	<b>11</b>
1.1 Reading: non-verbal communication . . . . .	11
1.2 Glossary of terms: communication . . . . .	14
1.2.1 Communication: instructions and commands . . . . .	16
1.2.2 Grammar reference: speaking about the future . . . . .	22
<b>2 International relationships</b>	<b>29</b>
2.1 Reading: cultural differences . . . . .	29
2.2 Glossary of terms: international business . . . . .	31
2.2.1 Communication: suggestions and invitations . . . . .	33
2.2.2 Grammar referece: the modal verbs . . . . .	38
<b>3 Conflict resolution</b>	<b>49</b>
3.1 Reading: conflicts at work . . . . .	49
3.2 Glossary of terms: conflicts . . . . .	52
3.2.1 Communication: requests and advice . . . . .	54
3.2.2 Grammar reference: the passive voice . . . . .	58



## Introduction

The present unit is called 'People' and it describes the interactions between the agents of business activity. These interactions may take place between sellers and buyers, between people within the company, or with people from other countries. In all these situations, there are different people with different interests, customs and points of view, and this may generate problems and conflicts. The emphasis is not on the language, but on the attitude that you should take in your relationships with other people within the context of a business organization.

The section called 'Communication' deals with this basic activity in our relationships with other people. The ability to transmit our message clearly is vital in business relationships. To do this, you will need a good knowledge of the language (the English language in the case of international relationships) and a good command of what is called body language. The reading text in this unit is precisely devoted to the non-verbal communication, which is often as important as verbal communication. The glossary of terms lists a number of words that will be useful to talk about and interpret non-verbal communication. The grammar subsection introduces the modal verbs, which are a special form of verbs that do not have a specific meaning but serve to add some meaning to other verbs. The communication subsection introduces some words and expressions commonly used to speak on the telephone.

The section called 'International relationships' focuses its attention in the relationship with people and companies from other countries. Apart from the language barrier, one of the problems that we may have in our interactions with foreigners are the cultural differences, which are reflected on people's values, customs and points of view. We should have all this into account when we deal with people from other countries. This is the topic of the reading text in this section. The glossary of terms includes a list of words related to international business, which is the field where the cultural differences are most obvious. The section also includes a vocabulary subsection devoted to the false friends. These are words that are similar to words in another language but have a different meaning, so they may create confusion in their use. The grammar introduces the conditional sentences. You will learn the differences in form and use between the types of conditional sentences. The communication subsection explains the differences between the British and the American varieties of English. It is important to learn such differences because American English has become the most widely-used variety in the world, although all English speakers can easily understand other varieties of the language.

The section called 'Conflict resolution' is about the relationships between the members of the same organization or between sellers and buyers. The focus is on the conflicts that may arise as a consequence of the differences in character or interests. The reading text describes the conflicts that take place at the workplace

and proposes a way of dealing with such conflicts. The text also includes a model dialogue to exemplify the attitude that we should adopt when we receive a complaint in the customer service. The dialogue also serves to illustrate the type of conflicts that may arise between a company and its customers. The glossary of terms includes words that may be useful when dealing with conflicts at work. The grammar subsections introduces the structure of the sentences in the reported speech. The reported speech refers to the situation in which we transmit (or report) other people's words, or the situation in which we repeat our own words. The communication subsection explains how to give and respond to opinions, with a special reference to the question tags, which are some small questions that we add at the end of a statement to ask for other people's confirmation.

In this unit you will learn to use the English language in your dealings with people from other countries, but most specially you will learn to adopt the right attitude to guarantee your success in your business interactions.



## Learning objectives

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

1. Understand oral messages in standard language through any means of communication, both in daily life situations and in the professional field of administration and finance, and understand the contents of the message accurately.

- Identify the main idea in a message.
- Identify the finality of oral messages in standard language as well as the tone and feelings of the speaker.
- Get information from recorded messages in standard language related to the professional field of administration and finance.
- Identify the points of view and attitude of the speaker.
- Identify the main ideas in a speech in standard language and at normal speed about specific and abstract issues related to the field of administration and finance.
- Understand the details of a message in standard language, even with background noises.
- Identify the main ideas in a speeches, reports and professional presentations related to the field of administration and finance.
- Be conscious of the importance of understanding a message as a whole, even if you don't understand all the words.

2. Understand complex written texts related to the field of administration and finance and analyze the contents comprehensively.

- Read a text with a high degree of autonomy, adapting the style and speed of the reading to different types of text and objectives.
- Read the details of long and relatively complex texts related to the field of administration and finance.
- Relate the text to its corresponding context.
- Quickly identify the contents and importance of pieces of news, articles and reports related to the field of administration and finance and decide whether a deeper analysis is necessary.
- Translate complex texts related to the field of administration and finance using reference materials, if necessary.

- Interpret technical messages in different means: post, fax and email, among others.
- Interpret long and complex instructions related to the professional field.
- Choose reference material and technical dictionaries and use automatic translators.

3. Produce clear, well-organized oral messages frequently used in jobs related to the field of administration and finance and analyze the context of the situation, adapting yourself to the other's linguistic register.

- Identify the registers used in oral messages.
- Express yourself fluently, accurately and efficiently in a great variety of professional and daily life situations, clearly establishing the relationship between the different ideas.
- Express yourself spontaneously with the appropriate degree of formality according to the situation.
- Use the appropriate protocol in formal and informal introductions.
- Make a correct use of the technical words related to the field of administration and finance as normally used in your profession.
- Express and defend your points of view clearly by using the appropriate explanations and reasoning.
- Describe the steps in a process related to your professional field.
- Explain the choice of a specific option in detail.
- Require the repetition of a speech or part of a speech when necessary.
- Apply the appropriate interaction formulas normally used in your professional field.

4. Write texts normally used at work and in the daily life and use the appropriate register for each situation.

- Write clear, detailed texts about a variety of issues related to the professional field, summarizing and considering the information from different sources.
- Organize the information correctly, accurately and coherently and ask for and/or give general and detailed information.
- Write reports related to the professional field pointing out the relevant aspects and giving details to support your points.
- Fill in documents related to the professional field.
- Apply the standard rules and the specific vocabulary used to fill in administrative, accounting, fiscal and financial documents.

- Summarize articles, pieces of news and other types of information related to the professional field using a great variety of words to avoid frequent repetitions.
- Understand the most important points in manuals, regulations, legislations and other written texts as normally used in the field of administration and finance.
- Use the appropriate protocol rules that apply to a specific document.

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

- Define the most distinctive aspects of the customs of your professional field in the use of a foreign language.
- Describe the social conventions of the English-speaking countries.
- Identify the values and beliefs which are characteristic of English-speaking countries.
- Apply the social conventions in English-speaking communities.
- Identify the language traits of different regions.



## 1. Communication

In a general meaning, we understand the term ‘communication’ as the process in which a message is transmitted between two or more participants. Depending on the means which are used to transmit the message, we can distinguish between ‘verbal communication’ and ‘non-verbal communication’, which is often called ‘body language’ although non-verbal communication includes more things than body language alone.

When we learn a foreign language, we obviously learn ‘verbal communication’ because this is the most important means of communication among human beings, but we should also learn ‘non-verbal communication’ because, like words, body language usually differs from one culture to another.

The text in this section describes the characteristics of non-verbal communication and explains some differences with other cultures. This will help us understand other people better.

### 1.1 Reading: non-verbal communication

In general terms, we could describe communication as the process in which we send or exchange information by means of speech, writing or signs. The different ways of transmitting a message have given rise to two types of communication: verbal communication and non-verbal communication.

Verbal communication is the process in which information is exchanged through the use of sounds. These sounds are usually assembled to form words, and these words are organised in sentences in accordance to the syntactical rules of a particular language. For this reason, verbal communication is commonly used as a synonym of articulated language (like English, Catalan, Spanish or French, for example), but it also includes such unarticulated sounds as a baby’s crying or a shout of pain, which are also forms of verbal communication.

On the other hand, non-verbal communication refers to the communicative process in which the information is transmitted by means of what is called body language, which includes gestures, body position, face expressions and specific behaviour. In our daily life, we normally use a combination of verbal and non-verbal communication.

When we speak of communication, we usually think of language, that is, we think of verbal communication. However, non-verbal communication is often more important than language itself. For this reason, understanding non-verbal communication is very important when we have to deal with other people in

our daily work because this type of communication can reinforce our messages or it can conceal the messages that we do not want to transmit. Non-verbal communication covers a range of factors, which include body language, tone, appearance and physical surroundings.

Body language is very much used in the sales field, for example. Salespeople are trained to observe and interpret the body language of potential customers in order to understand their non-verbal signals and so increase the probability of sales success. The careful control of body position, eye contact and hand movements will contribute to a better communication with the public. For this reason, it is very important to control your non-verbal communication skills. The figure below shows some examples of body language.

**FIGURA 1.1.** Examples of body language



Some behaviours are considered positive as they are commonly seen as encouraging communication, whereas others are considered negative because they show anxiety, aggressiveness, 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. Therefore, it is very important to control these gestures and use them consciously to transmit the appropriate message in each specific situation. However, focusing on body language alone can cause some misunderstandings.

There are other aspects which we should consider, as for example personal space. When two people are talking to each other, they tend to stand at a specific distance apart. The average personal distance is different from one culture to another, but it also depends on the relationship between the people. In general, in the Anglo-

Saxon cultures people tend to require more personal space than in Latin cultures, where the distance is smaller and people usually feel more comfortable standing closer to each other.

Another issue to take into account when we want to communicate effectively is physical contact. In Anglo-Saxon cultures, touching the other person while speaking is considered a bit too intimate for casual acquaintances and may lead to discomfort for the person with whom we are talking, whereas in Latin cultures there is a greater tendency to touching the other person.

Learning a foreign language does not only mean to practise the different skills and learn the words and grammar rules, but it also means to control the body language that is used in a particular context.

### Language notes

- **Expressing the means:** to express how an action is done, we have different possibilities in English. In the text, we can see examples with the expression *by means of* (Cat. mitjançant) and with the preposition *through* (Cat. a través de): *we exchange information by means of speech, writing or signs; information is transmitted by means of what is called body language; information is exchanged through the use of sounds. By means of and through are followed by a noun. Another way of saying how we do an action is with: by + verb (ending in -ing): In non-verbal communication we transmit our message by using body language.*
- **Expressing reason:** to express the reason why we do something, we can use the conjunctions *as* (Cat. ja que) or *because* (Cat perquè). We can see some examples of this in the text: *Some behaviours are considered positive as they are commonly seen as encouraging communication; other behaviours are considered negative because they show anxiety.* In both cases, the conjunction is followed by a clause (remember that a clause is composed of: subject + verb + complements). If we want to express the reason with a noun, the correct conjunction is *because of* (Cat. degut a, a causa de): *We didn't understand him because of language barriers.* We can combine these forms to add variety to a text.
- **Prefix mis-:** the prefix *mis-* is added to a verb or a noun. It has the meaning of 'wrong' or 'wrongly'. There is an example in the text: *misunderstanding* (Cat. manca de comprensió), from the verb *to misunderstand* (Cat. entendre malament). Other examples: *to misplace* (Cat. posar al lloc equivocat), *to misbehave* (Cat. portar-se malament), *to mispronounce* (Cat. pronunciar malament).
- **Prefix un-:** this prefix is added to adjectives and verbs to indicate the opposite quality or action. In the text, we can see the example *unarticulated* (Cat. inarticulat). Other examples: *to undo* (Cat. desfer), *unthinkable* (Cat. impensable), *uncertain* (Cat. incert/a). This prefix may sometimes take the form *in-* or *im-*, as in *incredible* (Cat. increïble) and *impossible* (Cat. impossible).
- **Language:** this word has the double sense of the human capacity of communication through the use of words (Cat. llenguatge) and the particular language of a group of people (Cat. llengua, idioma). On the other hand, the organ is called *tongue* (Cat. llengua). Notice the expression *mother tongue* (Cat. llengua materna). There is also the term *idiom* (Cat. refrany), which you should not confuse with the Catalan and Spanish word *idioma*.

## 1.2 Glossary of terms: communication

- *acquaintance*: conegut/da (persona)
- *appearance*: aparença, aspecte
- *articulated*: articulat/da, ordenat/da
- *behaviour*: comportament
- *body language*: llenguatge corporal
- *communication*: comunicació
- *communicative*: comunicatiu/va
- *discomfort*: incomoditat
- *facial expression*: expressió de la cara, gest facial
- *gesture*: gest
- *issue*: aspecte, qüestió
- *information*: informació
- *language*: idioma, llengua
- *message*: missatge
- *misunderstanding*: confusió, malentès
- *non-verbal communication*: comunicació no-verbal
- *personal space*: espai personal
- *physical surroundings*: entorn físic
- *process*: procés
- *sign*: signe
- *signal*: senyal
- *sound*: so
- *speech*: parla, discurs
- *to assemble*: organitzar, articular, ordenar, ajuntar
- *to communicate*: comunicar
- *to conceal*: amagar, ocultar
- *to encourage*: animar, fomentar
- *to exchange*: intercanviar



- *to give rise to*: originar
- *to interpret*: interpretar
- *to reinforce*: reforçar
- *to take into account*: tenir en compte
- *to transmit*: transmetre
- *tone*: to (de la veu)
- *unarticulated*: inarticulat/da, no ordenat/da
- *verbal communication*: comunicació verbal

### 1.2.1 Communication: instructions and commands

There is a specific type of language that is used in certain situations. This language is sometimes called *social language* and it is composed of some words and expressions which are used for a variety of purposes, as for example, to give instructions, to give commands, to make suggestions, to make an invitation, to make a request, to give advice or to express wishes and opinions.

Giving instructions means explaining someone how to do certain tasks. We can give instructions to operate a machine, to do a certain task, to cook a dish or to go to a certain place, and although the vocabulary changes in each situation, the way of giving the instructions remains the same. On the other hand, a command (also called *an order*) is very much the same as an instruction, but the meaning is more intense.

Both for instructions and commands, we must use a form of the verb called the *imperative*.

#### Instructions and commands

The most common way of giving instructions and commands is by using the imperative form of the verb.

#### Instructions:

##### The imperative form

The main characteristics of the imperative are:

- It has the same form as the infinitive: *work!*.
- The negative is formed by adding *do not (don't)* before the verb: *don't work!*.
- The sentence has no explicit subject (but the implicit subject is *you*).
- In the written form, we must add an exclamation mark (!) at the end of the sentence.
- We often use the word *please* to soften the command: *work please!*.

Here is an example of a text giving some instructions to send an email (the imperative forms are in **bold type**):

##### How to send an email

First of all, **locate** your email 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** if there are any mistakes. Finally, **click** on the button "Send" and the message will reach its destination in a few seconds.

When you give instructions, especially in a written text, it is very important to make a good use of connectors. In written instructions, you will generally need time connectors. Notice the connectors in our example (in **bold type**):

#### How to send an email

**First of all**, locate your email 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 if there are any mistakes. **Finally**, click on the button "Send" and the message will reach its destination in a few seconds.

Another way of giving instructions is with the modal verbs *should* or *must*. By using *should*, you are in fact giving advice, or recommending things to do. With *must*, you are implying an obligation, so you can use this modal verb when you think that the instruction is very important.

Here is the text of our example with modal verbs:

#### How to write an email

First of all, you **must locate** your email 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 **should type** the receiver's address in the word field called "To..." and next (...) the subject of your message in the corresponding field. *After this*, you **must write** the text of your message in the text editor. *When you finish*, you **should review** the spelling and **check** if there are any mistakes. Finally, you **must click** on the button "Send" and the message will reach its destination in a few seconds.

You can respond to a person giving you instructions with a variety of expressions. For example, you can say:

- Ok, thank you, I'll do that (Cat. D'acord gràcies, així ho faré).
- Yes, great, thanks for telling me (Cat. Perfecte, gràcies per explicar-m'ho).
- Thanks a lot (Cat. Moltes gràcies).
- I'm sorry, but I'm afraid I can't do that (Cat. Em sap greu però això no ho puc fer).

#### Commands:

We give a command when we need someone to do something immediately, or when we think that it is very important, but we can only give commands in informal situations. In formal situations, or when we are talking to a superior, we must make a request.

A command, which is usually accompanied by an imperative tone of voice, often implies a certain degree of impatience.

Examples of commands are:

- Come here! (Cat. Vine aquí!)
- Sit down! (Cat. seu!)
- Take off your cap! (Treu-te la gorra!)
- Go! (Cat. Ves-te'n!)
- Give me alone! (Cat. Deixa'm en pau!)
- Don't shout! (Cat. No cridis!)
- Don't talk to me like that! (Cat. A mi no em parlis d'aquesta manera!)
- Shut up! (Cat. Calla!)

We can add *please* to soften the command: *come here please!*, *don't shout please!*, *please, shut up!*.

We can respond to a command like this:

- Yes, sir/madam (Cat. Sí, senyor/senyora)
- Yes, of course (Cat. Sí, és clar)
- No, I won't (Cat. No ho penso fer)
- Of course I won't (Cat. Ni pensar-ho!)

### Directions

Sometimes, we must give instructions to go to a certain place. This is called *giving directions*. To give directions, we normally use the imperative form of the verb together with certain words and expressions which are specific of this context.

#### Asking for directions:

We can ask for directions in the following way:

- *Excuse me, how can I go to a bank?* (Cat. Perdona, com puc anar a un banc?).
- *Excuse me, can you tell me the way to the bank?* (Cat. Perdona, em podries dir com anar a un banc?).
- *Excuse me, is there a bank nearby?* (Cat. Perdona, hi ha un banc per aquí?)

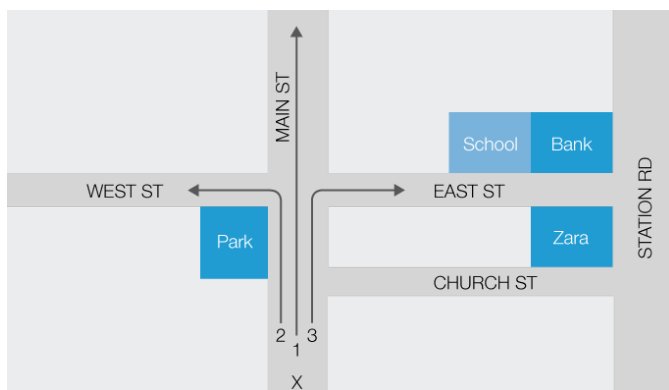
#### Giving directions:

---

When you want to call somebody's attention, in English you must use the expression *excuse me* (Cat. Perdoni, disculpi).

---

FIGURA 1.2. Map



The three basic expressions to give directions are (see the map):

- (1) *Go straight ahead* (Cat. Vés recte)
- (2) *Turn (first) left* (Cat. Gira (pel primer carrer) a l'esquerra).
- (3) *Turn (second) right* (Cat. Gira (pel segon carrer) a la dreta).

With these three directions you can direct a person anywhere, but there are others which are also very useful. For example:

- *Go/walk along (West St.)* (Cat. Vés/Camina per [West St.]).
- *Go/walk across (West St.)* (Cat. Travessa [West St.]).
- *Turn left/right into (West St.)* (Cat. Gira a l'esquerra/dreta [per West St.]).
- *Take (West St.)* (Cat. Agafa [West St.]).
- *Turn left/right outside (the bank)* (Cat. Gira a l'esquerra/dreta en sortir [del banc]).
- *Go straight on* (Cat. Continua recte).
- *Go straight on until you come to (West St.)* (Cat. Continua recte fins a [West St.]).

### ***Go straight ahead vs go along...***

*Go straight ahead* is an adverbial expression that indicates the direction of the movement (*Go straight ahead and turn left*). *Go along...* is a prepositional phrase that requires the name of the street (*Go along West St*). It is wrong to say: *Go straight ahead West St*.

**Until vs until you come to...**

*Until* (Cat. fins) is a preposition of time which is only used with time adverbials. For example: *until 6 oc'clock, until the evening, until 2019*, etc. It is wrong to say: *until West St*).

When giving directions, we must use the expression *until you come to...* when we refer to a point in space. For example: *Go straight ahead until you come to West St*.

When giving directions, the common pattern is first to show the way and then to explain the location of the place. Some common expressions to indicate location are (see map for reference):

- **In...street** (Cat. al carrer...): *The bank is in East St.*
- **On the corner of...\*** (Cat. a la cantonada de...): *The park is on the corner of West St and Main St.*
- **Next to ...** (Cat. al costat de...) *The school is next to the bank.*
- **Opposite ...** (Cat. davant de...) *The bank is opposite Zara*
- **Near ...** (Cat. a prop de... a la vora de...): *The school is near Zara.*
- **Between ...** (Cat. entre...): *The school is in East St between Main St and Station Rd.*
- **At the end of...** (Cat. al final de...): *The bank is at the end of East St.*
- **Round the corner** (Cat. al girar la cantonada): *Zara is round the corner.*

**The names of the streets**

Common abbreviations added to the name of the streets are:

- **St:** street
- **Rd:** road
- **Ave:** avenue
- **Sq:** square

The names of the streets are proper names, so we must always write them with a capital letter. The abbreviation is part of the name, so it is also written with a capital letter (*West St, Station Rd*).

When we talk about the names of the streets, we must not say or write the article *the*. For example: *the school is in East St*. It is wrong to say: *the school is in the East St*. But we must write the article when *street* is a common name. For example: *The bank is at the end of the street*.

Sometimes we may also need to show the way inside a building or within a company's premises. Here are some common expressions which we can use in this situation:

- **Take the lift** (Cat. Agafa l'ascensor).
- **Go up/down to (the second floor)** (Cat. Puja/baixa al [segon pis]).
- **Go to the end of the corridor** (Cat. Vés fins al final del passadís).
- **It's the (third) door on the left/right** (Cat. És la [tercera] porta a l'esquerra/dreta).
- **Go across the courtyard** (Cat. Travessa el pati).
- **It's on the (second) floor** (Cat. Està en el [segon] pis).
- **It's in the hall** (Cat. És al vestíbul).
- **It's next to the reception desk** (Cat. Està al costat de la recepció).
- **Ask at the reception desk** (Cat. Pregunta a recepció).

Now read the following conversation as an example (see map for reference):

#### Asking for and giving directions in the street

*Jordi is in London. He asks Phil for directions to go to a bank.*

**Jordi:** Excuse me, is there a bank nearby?

**Phil:** Yes, there's one in East St.

**Jordi:** Good, how can I go there?

**Phil:** Well, go straight ahead and then turn second right. That's East St. Go straight on until you come to Station Rd. The bank is on the left, on the corner with Station Rd and next to a school.

**Jordi:** Ok, so I go straight ahead and then second right, is that it?

**Phil:** Yes, that's right.

**Jordi:** Thank you very much.

#### Language notes:

- Notice the use of the imperative form to give directions (*Go straight ahead*, etc.). Do not use *must* or *should* in this situation.
- **Nearby** (Cat. a prop): this is an adverb. Do not confuse with the preposition *near*, which requires a noun (*near the school*).
- **Is that it?** (Cat. és això?): this expression is used to confirm that you understood correctly. Notice Phil's answer to this small question.

## 1.2.2 Grammar reference: speaking about the future

In English, there is no specific verb tense to speak about the future, but we can refer to future events by using a modal verb (*will*), the expression *be going to* or even the present continuous and present simple tenses.

### The future with 'will'

We normally express the future with the modal verb *will*. The syntactical structure is the following:

- WILL + BASE FORM

### Conjugation of the future with 'will':

The following table shows the conjugation of the verb *work* in the future with *will*:

TAULA 1.1. Conjugation of the future with //will// (work)

	Affirmative Long form	Short form	Negative Long form	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/she/it 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?

#### Notes:

- *Will* has short forms in the affirmative and in the negative. In negative, the short form is *won't* (=will + not).
- The modal *will* is the same for all persons.
- As all modals, *will* is used in the same way as an auxiliary verb, adding *not* in the negative and changing the order S-V in the interrogative.

#### Use of the future with *will*:

We use the future with *will*:

1) To give information about the future:

- They *will go* on strike tomorrow. (Cat. Demà *faran vaga*).



- *Will you come* to work next Monday? (Cat. *Vindràs a treballar el dilluns que ve?*).
- *I will retire* next year. (Cat. *Em jubilaré l'any que ve*).
- *I will be* 38 next week. (Cat. La setmana que ve *compliré* 38 anys).

2) To make predictions and talk about what we think or guess that will happen:

- *It will rain* all the week (Cat. *Plourà* tota la setmana).
- I think that *I will stay* at home tonight (Cat. *Crec que em quedaré* a casa aquesta nit).
- I'm sure that you *will all pass* the exams (Cat. *Estic segur que tots aprovareu* els exàmens).
- I guess that you *will come*, won't you? (Cat: *Suposo que vindràs, no?*).

3) In conditional sentences, to say what will happen if the condition becomes true:

- If I pass the exams, *I will be* very happy (Cat. *Si aprovo els exàmens, estaré* molt content).
- What *will you do* if you are fired? (Cat. *Què faràs* si et despatxen de la feina?).

4) In a series of interpersonal meanings to express requests, offers, promises, etc.

- *Will you come* here, please? (a request) (Cat. *Pots venir, si us plau?*).
- Don't worry, *I'll help* you with your English (an offer or a promise) (Cat. *No t'amoïnis, t'ajudaré* amb l'anglès).

When say what we think that will happen in the future, we often use an expression to explain how we conceive the future event. Some of the expressions commonly used for this are:

- I'm sure that ... (Cat. *Estic segur que ...*)
- I think that ... (Cat. *Crec que..., opino que ...*)
- I believe that ... (Cat. *Crec que ...*)
- I'm sure that ... (Cat. *Estic segur que ...*)
- I'm not sure that ... (Cat. *No estic segur que...*)
- I'm convinced that ... (Cat. *Estic convençut que ...*)

### Time adverbials:

We commonly use the *will*-form with time adverbials that refer to the future. For example:

- **Tomorrow** (Cat. demà): *Tomorrow* I'll call you *tomorrow*, is that ok?
- **Next week, next month**, etc. (Cat. la setmana que ve, el mes que ve, etc.): I think she'll be 60 *next year*.
- **Tonight** (Cat. aquesta nit): it won't rain *tonight* so we can go out.
- **In the future** (Cat. en el futur): *in the future*, we'll do everything with computers.
- **One day** (Cat. un dia): you will understand me *one day*, don't worry.

### The future with 'be going to'

In this form of the future, we must conjugate the verb *be* in the present simple. The syntactical structure is the following:

- AM/IS/ARE + GOING TO + BASE FORM

### Conjugation of the future with *be going to*:

The following table shows the conjugation of the verb *work* in the *be going to*-form.

TAULA 1.2. Conjugation of the future with //be going to// (/work/)

	Affirmative Long form	Short form	Negative Long form	Short form	Interrogative
I	am going to work	I'm going to work	am not going to work	I'm not going to work	Am I going to work?
You	are going to work	You'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	He's/She's/It's going to work	is not going to work	isn't going to work	Is he/she/it going to work?
We	are going to work	We're going to work	are not going to work	aren't going to work	Are we going to work?
You	are going to work	You're going to work	are not going to work	aren't going to work	Are you going to work?
They	are going to work	They're going to work	are not going to work	aren't going to work	Are they going to work?

When we use the verb *to go* in this form of the future, we can omit the base form *go* in order to avoid repetition, so we can say: *I'm going out tonight* instead of *I'm going to go out tonight*.

**Notes:**

- *Be going to* has short forms in the affirmative and in the interrogative.
- The expression *going to* and the base form of the verb are invariable. The only element that changes is the verb *be*, which agrees with the subject.

**Use of the future with *be going to*:**

We use the future with *be going to*:

1) To express a future event which is already planned and decided:

- *We are going to buy* a new car next year (Cat. L'any que ve *comprarem* un cotxe nou).
- *Are you going to study* for the exam tonight? (Cat *Estudiaràs* per a l'examen aquesta nit?).
- *I'm going (to go)* to France next summer (Cat: El proper estiu *aniré* a França).

2) To predict the future on the basis of present evidence and say that something will happen very soon in the future.

- *She is going to have* a baby in May (Cat. *Tindrà* un bebè al mes de maig).
- Look at those clouds! *It's going to rain* (Cat. Mira aquells núvols! *Està a punt de ploure*).

**Time adverbials:**

The future forms with *be going to* are commonly used with some time adverbials that refer to a near future. For example:

- **Tomorrow** (Cat. demà): *Tomorrow* I'm going to stay until 10 in the evening .
- **Next week, next month**, etc. (Cat. la setmana que ve, el mes que ve, etc.): he's going to start *next week*.
- **Tonight** (Cat. aquesta nit): are you going to have dinner at home *tonight*?

**The future with the present simple and the present continuous**

We can use the present simple and the present continuous tenses to speak about the future. In this case, the sentence must include a reference to the future (*tomorrow, tonight*, etc) to distinguish the verb tense from its present meanings.

### The present simple:

The present simple with a future meaning is used to:

1) Speak about future events which are part of a timetable or a regular schedule:

- The sun *sets* at 7:34pm tomorrow (Cat. Demà el sol *es pon* a les 7:34 de la tarda)
- The classes *start* at 8 next Monday. (Cat. El proper dilluns les classes *comencen* a les 8)
- What time *does* your train *leave* tomorrow? (Cat. A quina hora *surt* el tren demà?)
- *Do you work* next weekend? (Cat *Treballes* el proper cap se de setmana?)

### The present continuous:

The present continuous with a future meaning is used:

1) To express arrangements and fixed plans, when the time and date have already been decided. For example:

- What *are you doing* this evening? (Cat. Què *fas* aquesta nit?, què *tens pensat fer* aquesta nit?).
- *I'm staying* at home tonight (Cat. Aquesta nit *em quedaré* a casa).
- He's *retiring* next year. (Cat. L'any que ve *es jubila*; l'any que ve *té la intenció de jubilar-se*).

### The future with *be going to* and with the present continuous

There is very little difference between the *be going to*-form and the present continuous. We can say: *I'm going to stay at home tonight* and *I'm staying at home tonight* with no difference in meaning.

However, when we need to express decisions and intentions, we normally use the *be going to*-form. When we speak about fixed arrangements, we prefer the present continuous. Compare these sentences:

- *I'm going to cook today* (Cat. Avui *cuinaré* jo) (The emphasis is on the intention; the idea is: it's my intention to cook).
- *I'm cooking today* (Cat. Avui *cuino* jo) (The emphasis is on the arrangement; the idea is: it has been decided that I'm cooking today, so I will cook)

### Other forms of the future

Other forms of expressing the future are the *future continuous* and the *future perfect*. Their use is the same as in all the continuous and perfect tenses, but the action takes place in the future. The syntactical structures of these forms are the following:

- Future continuous: WILL + BE + GERUND (-ING): *I will be working.*
- Future perfect: WILL + HAVE + PAST PARTICIPLE: *I will have worked, I will have gone.*

### 'Will' vs 'be going to'

The main difference between the future with *will* and the future with *be going to* is the intentionality of the action. If we need to express our intention of doing something, we must use the *be going to*-form; if we just want to express something that will happen independently of our intention, we must use *will*. Compare these sentences:

- *I'm going to help you* (=I have thought about it and it is my intention to help you).
- *I will help you* (=I didn't think about it, but I will help you; I take the decision at the moment of speaking).

For this reason, when speaking about a person's age, we must always use 'will':

- *I will be 50 next week* (Cat. La setmana que ve compliré 50 anys).

It is wrong to say: *I'm going to be 50 next week.*



## 2. International relationships

Apart from verbal and non-verbal communication, when we learn a foreign language we should also consider another important aspect. The cultural differences refer to the differences in values, religion and customs between people from different countries.

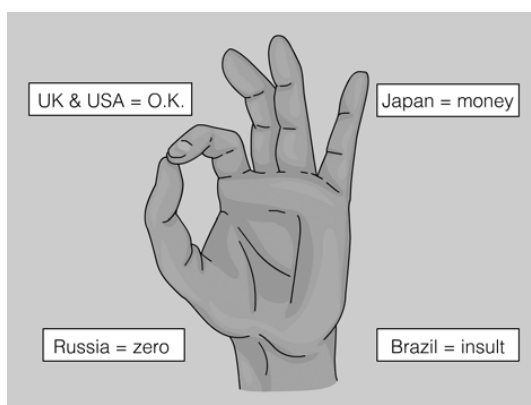
We should be especially aware of these differences in the context of formal business contacts with other countries because a lack of cultural sensitivity on our part may ruin all the efforts to establish profitable business contacts.

The text in this section explains some of these cultural differences.

### 2.1 Reading: cultural differences

Success in today's global economy very often depends on the ability to establish international relations. The improvement in the cost and quality of the means of transport and the great technological advances in the communications make the contact with other countries very easy, but the great diversity of customs and points of view demands flexibility and awareness of our similarities and differences with other cultures. Different cultural backgrounds imply obstacles, challenges and difficulties that are obvious in general areas such as language, values, etiquette, behaviour and non-verbal communication in general.

FIGURA 2.1



One gesture, four meanings

These cultural differences may create misunderstandings between members of an organisation even before they have started to know one another. The consequences of this lack of cultural understanding may seriously affect your performance at work. A certain knowledge of religion, politics, history, gender roles, business ethics, social institutions, humour, values and non-verbal communication will help

you determine the value and the role of your service in another country. Cultural competence can help you avoid cultural blunders, which may make the difference between your success and your failure.

The most basic thing to be successful in international relationships is the knowledge of a foreign language, especially English, as this has become the international language for business. Foreign languages are important for two reasons. On the one hand, we need to use language to communicate with people from other countries. On the other hand, there are certain items, such as business letters, cards, company brochures or leaflets, that must probably be translated for the benefit of others. International business interactions are filled with cultural mistakes and poor translations that may cause great embarrassment, so you should try to avoid such mistakes.

Apart from speaking a foreign language, it is also necessary to be aware of the differences in behaviour and values of other people. We should always think that what is generally accepted in our country may not be acceptable in another. For example, if we are introduced to an English woman for the first time, we should not kiss her on the cheeks, as it is common in Spain and other countries. In Anglo-Saxon cultures, kissing a woman in a first meeting is not considered proper, so we must shake hands instead. Touching someone while speaking is also considered very rude, so we must keep a certain distance with the other person and avoid physical contact. Also, we should not ask personal questions to someone that we have just met. We might do that for the sake of conversation, but asking a person where he was born, where he lives, what he likes, etc. is seen as an intolerable interference into one's personal life. However, we can safely talk about the weather, which is England's favourite topic for conversation.

Like most other people, the English appreciate polite language. Words like 'please' and 'thank you' are more frequently used than in other languages, so you should remember to use them when you speak in English. When you make a request, it is almost obligatory to say 'please'. In English, the difference between formal and informal language is greater than in other languages, so you must be careful to choose the most appropriate form depending on the person you are talking to. If you are talking to a superior at work or to an older person that you do not know well, you should always make requests by using the word 'would': *would you like a coffee?*, *would you mind sitting down?*, *would you mind if I smoke?*, etc. If you are ever late to a meeting or an appointment, you must always apologise and add the reason for being late. For example, you can say: *I'm really sorry I'm late. I couldn't find a taxi.*

These are only a few examples applied to the Anglo-Saxon culture, which is the dominant culture in the mass media today, so we are probably well acquainted with the people's customs. However, things are different when we must deal with Japanese, Chinese or Arab people because their cultures are much more different from our own culture. When we try to make business contacts with those cultures, it is necessary to be very conscious of the cultural differences.

Becoming aware of the differences between cultures and exploring cultural similarities are very important skills in international relationships because they may help



us communicate with others more harmoniously and establish a positive working environment.

### Language notes

- **Saxon genitive:** this particular structure is often used to indicate possession with people, as in *the people's customs*. However, the Saxon Genitive is also used with adverbs of time (*today's global economy*) and countries (*England's favourite topic of conversation*).
- **Expressing the result:** to express the result of an action or situation, the most common word is *so* (Cat. *així que, per tant, en conseqüència...*). There are many examples in the text: *kissing a woman in a first meeting is not considered proper, so we must shake hands instead, touching someone while speaking is also considered very rude, so we must keep a certain distance, the Anglo-Saxon culture is the dominant culture in the mass media today, so we are probably well acquainted with the people's customs*. Other words that express result are: *for this reason, consequently* and *therefore*

## 2.2 Glossary of terms: international business

- *banknote*: bitllet (also: *bill*)
- *bank rate*: tipus d'interès
- *behaviour*: comportament
- *bill*: bitllet (also: *banknote*)
- *cash*: efectiu, diners en efectiu
- *coin*: moneda
- *credit*: crèdit
- *cultural competence*: competència cultural, coneixement de la cultura aliena
- *currency*: moneda, divisa
- *custom*: costum
- *customs*: frontera, duana
- *difference*: diferència
- *dollar*: dòlar
- *euro*: euro
- *exchange rate*: tipus de canvi
- *foreign currency*: moneda estrangera, divises
- *foreign language*: llengua estrangera
- *international relations*: relacions internacionals

- *investment*: inversió
- *investor*: inversor
- *mass media*: mitjans de comunicació de masses
- *point of view*: punt de vista
- *pound*: lliura esterlina
- *similarity*: similitud
- *tax haven*: paradís fiscal
- *to exchange foreign currency*: canviar moneda estrangera
- *to make a transfer*: fer una transferència
- *to shake hands*: donar la mà
- *to transfer money*: transferir diners, fer una transferència
- *value*: valor (monetari), valors, punt de vista
- *yen*: ien

## 2.2.1 Communication: suggestions and invitations

Suggestions and invitations are two instances of the so called *social language*. We make a suggestion when we propose a course of action. In this sense, it is very much like giving advice because in both cases we say what we think should be done. The difference is that a piece of advice is always directed to a second person (*you*) whereas suggestions have a wider range.

An invitation is very similar to a suggestion. When you invite somebody, you are in fact suggesting a course of action.

### Suggestions

We can make suggestions in different ways. Some are used in formal situations whereas others are used in informal situations. Next there is a list of some of these expressions.

#### Making formal suggestions:

##### A) SUGGEST + GERUND (-ING)

- I suggest speaking in English (Cat. Suggerixo parlar en anglès)
- He suggested talking to the head of our department first (Cat. Va suggerir parlar primer amb el cap del nostre departament).

##### B) SUGGEST + THAT-CLAUSE

- I suggest that we speak in English (Cat. Suggerixo que parlem en anglès).
- In the next meeting, I'll suggest that we can finish work earlier (Cat. A la següent reunió, suggeriré que poguem plegar abans).

##### C) SUGGEST + NOUN

- I suggest a Japanese restaurant (Cat. Suggerixo un restaurant japonès).
- I would suggest a break (Cat. Jo suggeriria un descans).

#### Making informal suggestions:

##### A) WHAT ABOUT + GERUND (-ING) ...?

- What about speaking in English? (Cat. Què tal si parlem en anglès?).
- What about having a coffee? (Cat. Què et sembla si prenem un cafè?).

##### B) WHAT ABOUT + NOUN ...?

- What about a break? (Cat. I si fem un descans?).
- What about a coffee? (Cat. Què tal un cafè?).

#### C) WHAT ABOUT IF + YOU/WE + V. IN PRESENT SIMPLE ...?

- What about if we speak English? (Cat. Què tal si parlem anglès?).
- What about if you help me with this? (Què et sembla si m'ajudes amb això?).

#### D) WHY DON'T YOU/WE + BASE FORM ...?

- Why don't we speak in English? (Cat. Per què no parlem en anglès?).
- Why don't you wait a little longer? (Cat. Per què no t'esperes una mica més?).

#### E) YOU/WE COULD + BASE FORM

- We could speak in English (Cat. Podríem parlar en anglès).
- You could go and speak to the director (Cat. Podries anar a parlar amb el director).

#### F) LET'S + BASE FORM ...!

- Let's speak in English! (Anem a parlar anglès!)
- Let's organize a big party (Organitzem una gran festa!)

#### Notes:

- *What about...?* and *why don't you...?* are questions. Do not forget to write the question mark (?) at the end of the sentence. In speech, we must give it the intonation of a question.
- *Let's* is the short form of *let us*, but we never write (or say) the long form. This expression usually has an exclamation mark (!) at the end.
- *Let's* is used to include both the speaker and the other people in the suggestion.

#### Responding to a suggestion:

We can respond in different ways, depending on whether we agree or disagree with the suggestion. In general, all these expressions can be used in formal and informal contexts and they are independent of the way in which the suggestion was made. The translations are not literal, but just reflect equivalent expressions in Catalan used in the same context.

*Agree:*

- Yes, we could do that (Cat. Sí, podríem fer això).
- Yes, that's a good idea! (Cat. Sí, bona idea!).
- Ok, let's do that (Cat. D'acord, endavant!).
- Yes, why not? (Cat. Sí, per què no?)
- Ok, that's great! (Cat. Excel·lent!)

### Disagree:

- I'm afraid it's not a good idea (Cat. Em temo que no és gaire bona idea).
- I'm afraid we can't do that (Cat. Em temo que això no és possible).
- I'd rather not (Cat. Millor que no).
- No, we can't do that (Cat. No, això no ho podem fer).
- No, we shouldn't do that (Cat. això no ho hauríem de fer).

---

When we disagree with a suggestion, the social protocol requires to explain the reason. For example: **A:** Why don't we go to a restaurant? - **B:** No, I'd rather not. *I've got no time and no money.*

---

Here are examples of suggestions in a context.

#### Suggestions (formal)

*Jordi Planes is at a job interview for a post in an American company. Mrs Jenkins, the head of Human Resources, asks him for suggestions to improve the company's sales.*

**Mrs Jenkins:** Well, Mr Planes, I can see in your résumé that you worked as a market analyst for an electrical company. Perhaps you could give us some suggestions to increase our sales...

**Jordi:** To increase the sales... Ok, I suggest an aggressive marketing campaign.

**Mrs Jenkins:** Good, and what else?

**Jordi:** I would suggest a TV commercial directed by some well-known figure, Spielberg, Scorsese... someone really famous who can attract people's attention.

**Mrs Jenkins:** I'm afraid we can't do that, Mr Planes. That would be too expensive, don't you think so?

**Jordi:** Yes, well, then you could make a standard commercial and perhaps sponsor a basketball team.

**Mrs Jenkins:** Yes, we could do that.

#### Suggestions (informal)

*Jordi Planes works in a company in Manchester. He and a group of his British colleagues are discussing what to do to celebrate the retirement of their director, Mr Connor.*

**Peter:** OK, people, as you know Mr Connor is retiring next month. Any suggestions?

**Mary:** We could go to a restaurant. He loves good food and, most of all, good drinking.

**Tom:** Come on, Mary! We can't do that! You know that would cost a lot of money.

**Jordi:** Why don't we organize a small party here in the office?

**Susan:** Yes, why not? That would be cheaper.

**Daniel:** What about a surprise party?

**Peter:** Yeah, that's a good idea, too.

**Jordi:** We could each give £5 for a present, what do you think?

**Mike:** Great!

**Susan:** OK, let's collect the money!

**Tom:** Wait, wait! What present can we buy? Have you got any suggestions?

### Language notes:

- In the first dialogue, we must use a formal language because it takes place at a job interview. In the second dialogue, the situation is informal, as reflected in the language.
- **Résumé:** Mrs Jenkins uses this term instead of CV because she's American. The word is spelt with the graphical accents because it is taken from the French language.
- **Yeah:** colloquial form of *yes*. The spelling reproduces the pronunciation of the word: /jeə/.
- **£5:** we must say *five pounds*. In the Anglo-Saxon world, the currency symbols are placed before the amount: £5, \$5 (= five dollars), but we write 5€ (= five euros).

### Invitations

To invite people, we can use different expressions and syntactical structures.

#### Making formal invitations:

To make invitations in formal situations, we can use the following expressions:

#### A) I (WOULD LIKE TO) INVITE + INDIRECT OBJECT + TO + BASE FORM...

- I would like to invite you to go out with me (Cat. M'agradaria invitar-te a sortir amb mi).
- I would like to invite my friends to spend the summer with me (Cat. M'agadaria invitar els meus amics a passar l'estiu amb mi).
- I invite you to come with me (Cat. T'invito a venir amb mi).
- I'll invite him to sing at my party (Cat. L'invitaré a cantar a la meva festa)

#### B) I (WOULD LIKE TO) INVITE + INDIRECT OBJECT + TO + NOUN...

- He would like to invite you to a coffee (Cat. A ell li agradaria invitar-te a un cafè).

- I would like to invite you to a party (Cat. M'agradaria invitar-vos a una festa).
- I invite you to a concert (Cat. T'invito a un concert).

### Formal invitations

We can use the form *would like* with the verb *invite* to make the invitation more formal.

In the formal written language, as for example, in invitation cards, the passive voice is frequently used. For example:

- *You **are invited** to Mr Jones' reception, which will take place on 23rd March in ...* (Cat: *Està vostè invitat a la recepció del Sr Jones, que tindrà lloc el 23 de març a ...*)

### Making informal invitations:

#### C) WOULD YOU LIKE + TO + BASE FORM +...?

- Would you like to have a walk with me? (Cat. Vens a passejar amb mi?).
- Would you like to come? (Cat. Vols venir?).

#### D) WOULD YOU LIKE + NOUN +...?

- Would you like some help? (Cat. Vols que t'ajudi?).
- Would you like a cold drink? (Cat. Vols una beguda fresca?).

### Invitations and suggestions:

An invitation is very similar to a suggestion so the two language functions can share some expressions. To make invitations, we can also say:

- How about...? (Cat. Què tal si...?)
- What about...? (Cat. Què et sembla si...?)
- Why don't we...? (Cat. Per què no ...?)

### Responding to invitations:

When someone invites you to do something, you can accept or you can reject the invitation.

Here are some possible responses.

*To accept the invitation:*

- Thank you very much. That would be very nice (formal) (Cat. Moltes gràcies. Serà un plaer).

- Thank you. You're very kind indeed (formal) (Cat. Gràcies. És vostè molt amable).
- Thanks. That would be great (informal) (Cat. Gràcies. Això estaria molt bé).
- Ok, I'd like to. Thanks (informal) (Cat. Sí, m'agradaria. Gràcies).

*To reject the invitation:*

- I'm sorry. I'm afraid (I'm not free tonight) (Cat: Ho sento. Em temo que [aquesta nit estic ocupat]).
- No, thanks, anyway. (I don't feel like it now) (Cat. No, gràcies de totes maneres, però [ara no en tinc ganes]).
- Thank you but I can't. (I must go immediately) (Cat. Gràcies però ara no puc . [Me'n he d'anar de seguida]).

### **Invitations and social protocol**

When you reject an invitation, the social protocol requires to explain the reason. The protocol also demands that if you have been invited to a person's house, you thank that person for his/her hospitality. For example, you can say:

- *Thank you very much. That was a wonderful evening.* (Cat. Moltes gràcies. Ha estat una vetllada magnífica.)

## **2.2.2 Grammar referece: the modal verbs**

The modal verbs form a class of verbs that have some special characteristics. These verbs are:

- Can
- Could
- Must
- Should
- May
- Might
- Will
- Would

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From a syntactical point of view, the modal verbs have the same characteristics of the auxiliary verbs *be*, *have* and *do*.

The characteristics of the modal verbs are the following:



1. They have no meaning of their own: modal verbs must always be accompanied by another verb in the base form. They are used to express certain ideas like obligation, possibility, advice, etc.
2. They only have one form, which is normally used to speak about the present and sometimes about the future. If we need to express the modal verbs in other tenses (like the past tense, the present perfect, etc.), we must use an alternative verb or expression. However, the verb *can* has a present form (*can*) and a past form (*could*).
3. The modal verbs form the negative and the interrogative as the auxiliary verbs.

Therefore, the syntactical structures of sentences with a modal verb are these:

- Affirmative: SUBJECT + MODAL + BASE FORM: *I should work.*
- Negative: SUBJECT + MODAL + NOT + BASE FORM: *I should not work.*
- Interrogative: MODAL + SUBJECT + BASE FORM: *Should I work?*

### Can, could

The modal verbs *can* and *could* are the present and the past forms, but they may have different meanings.

#### Can:

*Can* is used to express:

- **Present ability:** He can cook. (Cat. Ell sap/pot cuinar.)
- **Certain possibility:** It can rain. (Cat. Pot ser que plougui.)
- **Informal permission:** Can I go, please? (Cat. Puc marxar, si us plau?)
- **Informal request:** Can you open the window, please? (Cat. Pots obrir la finestra, si us plau?)

#### Could:

*Could* is used to express:

- **Past ability:** He could swim. (Cat. Ell podia/sabia nedar.)
- **Uncertain possibility:** It could rain. (Cat. Podria ser que plougués.)
- **Formal permission:** Could I go, please? (Cat. Podria marxar, si us plau?)
- **Polite request:** Could you open the window, please? (Cat. Podries obrir la finestra, si us plau?)

The following table shows the complete conjugation of *can*.

TAULA 2.1. The modal verb can

	Affirmative	Negative Long form	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 table below shows the forms of *could*.

TAULA 2.2. The modal verb could

	Affirmative	Negative Long form	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:

1) To express ability:

**Be able to** (Cat. ser capaç de)

In this form, the verb *be* must be conjugated in the correct tense. The syntactical structure is:

- SUBJECT + BE (conjugated) + ABLE TO + BASE FORM: *I am able to work.*

Examples:

- *I haven't been able to open that box.* (Cat. No he estat capaç d'obrir aquesta capsà or Cat. No he pogut obrir aquesta capsà.)
- *I would like to be able to do it.* (Cat. M'agradaria ser capaç de fer-ho) or Cat. M'agradaria poder/saber fer-ho.)

**am able to / was able to**

We can use the form *be able to* in the present and the past. In these cases, the forms with *be able to* and with *can/could* have the same meaning:

- *I am able to work* or *I can work*.
- *He was able to work* or *he could work*.

**Must, should**

The modal verbs *must* and *should* have similar meanings. We can normally use them in the same context, but we must choose one or the other depending on the idea that we want to transmit.

**Must:**

*Must* is used to express:

- **Obligation:** *We must eat to live.* (Cat. Hem de menjar per viure.)
- **Prohibition** (negative): *You mustn't smoke.* (Cat. No has de fumar.)
- **Predictions:** *This must be Mary.* (Cat. Aquesta deu ser Mary.)

**Should:**

*Should* is used to express:

- **Advice:** *You should come.* (Cat. Hauries de venir.)
- **Moral obligation:** *We should eat something.* (Cat. Hauríem de menjar alguna cosa.)

**Obligation and moral obligation**

The difference between “obligation” and “moral obligation” often depends on the circumstances or on the person’s point of view. An obligation is something that we must do because there is a law or because it is strictly necessary. An obligation depends on external circumstances.

On the other hand, a moral obligation is something that we should do because we feel that it is necessary. It depends on our own feelings. For example, the sentence *We must eat to live* is an obligation because if we do not eat, we die. The sentence *We should eat something* is a moral obligation because it is not necessary to eat anything in that moment to live, but I think that we should eat something because we might feel hungry.

The table shows the complete conjugation of *must*.

TAULA 2.3. The modal verb *must*

	Affirmative	Negative Long form	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...?

The following table shows the conjugation of *should*.

TAULA 2.4. The modal verb *should*

	Affirmative	Negative Long form	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:

1) To express obligation:

***have to*** (Cat: haver de)

- I *had to* go to the dentist yesterday. (Cat. *Ahir vaig haver d'anar al dentista.*)
- *Have you had to* do anything special? (Cat. *Has hagut de fer alguna cosa especial?*)

2) To indicate prohibition:

***be prohibited/forbidden*** (Cat. Estar prohibit)

- In the present society, we *are being prohibited* to do more and more things everyday. (Cat. A la societat actual, cada dia *se'ns prohibeix* fer més i més coses.).
- We can't *be forbidden* to express our ideas. (Cat. No se'ns pot *prohibir* expressar les idees.)

**must and have to**

We can use *have to* in the present simple with little difference in meaning with *must*. We can say:

- *We must eat to live* or *We have to eat to live*.

There are no alternative forms for *should*.

**May, might**

As with *must* and *should*, the meanings of *may* and *might* are very similar and they can normally be used in the same way.

**May:**

*May* is used to express:

- **Possibility:** *It may rain tonight.* (Cat. Pot ser que plougui aquesta nit.)
- **Ask for permission** (formal): *May I take this seat, please?* (Cat. Puc agafar aquesta cadira, si us plau?)
- **Give permission** (formal): *You may go now.* (Cat. Ja pots marxar.)

**Might:**

*Might* expresses:

- **Remote possibility:** *It might rain tonight, but I don't think so.* (Cat. Podria ser que plougués aquesta nit, però no ho crec.)
- **Ask for permission** (very formal): *Might I speak to you for a moment?* (Cat. Podria parlar amb vostè un moment?)
- **Give permission** (very formal): *You might come in.* (Cat. Pot entrar.)

Both *may* and *might* are used to express possibility, but there is a difference:

- *May* indicates a possibility that the speaker sees as possible.
- *Might* indicates a possibility which will not probably happen from the point of view of the speaker.

The following table shows the complete conjugation of *may*.

TAULA 2.5. The modal verb *may*

	Affirmative	Negative Long form	Short form	Interrogative
I	may	may not	'	may I...?
	.....	.....	.....	.....

TAULA 2.5 (continuació)

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...?

The table below shows the conjugation of *might*.

TAULA 2.6. The modal verb might

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

**Note:**

- *May* and *might* have no short forms in the negative.

**Alternative forms:**

1) To express possibility:

***Be possible ...*** (Cat. Ser possible...):

- I've tried, but it *hasn't been possible* to make it work. (Cat. Ho he intentat, però no ha estat possible fer-lo funcionar.)
- We had a meeting yesterday, but it *was not possible* to reach an agreement. (Cat. Ahir ens vam reunir, però no va ser possible arribar a un acord.)

**Will, would****Will:**

*Will* is used to express:

- **The future:** *I think that it will rain tomorrow.* (Cat. Crec que demà plourà.)
- **Requests:** *Will you open the window, please?* (Cat. Obriràs la finestra, si us plau?)

**Would:**

*would* is used to express:

- **Conditional forms:** *If I had time, I would go.* (Cat. Si tingués temps, hi aniria.)
- **Polite requests:** *Would you open the window, please?* (Cat. Obriries la finestra, si us plau?)

The following table shows the forms of *will*.

**TAULA 2.7.** The modal verb *will*

	<b>Affirmative</b>	<b>Negative Long form</b>	<b>Short form</b>	<b>Interrogative</b>
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...?

The following table shows the conjugation of *would*.

**TAULA 2.8.** The modal verb *would*

	<b>Affirmative</b>	<b>Negative Long form</b>	<b>Short form</b>	<b>Interrogative</b>
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...?

There are no alternative forms to *will* and *would*.

**Must have, should have, can't have, might have**

These forms are all used to refer to the past. They have different meanings, but the syntactical structure is the same for all of them:

- MUST/SHOULD/CAN'T/MAY HAVE + PAST PARTICIPLE

The meanings are the following:

**Must have:** it means that we are certain that something has happened, and because there is no other logical explanation. For example:

- *I can't see Mr Johnson's car. He must have left.* (Cat. No veig el cotxe de Mr Johnson. Deu haver marxat.)
- *Roger has moved to the third floor. He must have got a promotion.* (Cat. Roger s'ha traslladat a la tercera planta. Deu haver aconseguit un ascens.)

**Should have:** it is used to express an action in the past that was not done, but which would have been the best option. Examples:

- *You should have told me if you had problems.* (Cat. M'ho hauries d'haver dit si vas tenir problemes.)
- *They shouldn't have fired him without a good reason.* (Cat. No l'haurien d'haver acomiadat sense una bona raó.)

**Can't have:** it is very similar in meaning to *must have*. It is used when we are certain that something has not happened because there is no other logical explanation:

- *He can't have met Mr Black because he was not in the city last night.* (Cat. No pot haver-se trobat amb Mr Black perquè ahir a la nit no era a la ciutat.)
- *She didn't eat anything. She can't have been so hungry as you say.* (Cat. No va menjar res. No pot haver tingut tanta gana com dius.)

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The meaning of *may have* can also be expressed with *could have*. If we use *might have*, the possibility is more remote.

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**May have:** it is used to say that it is possible that something happened in the past. Examples:

- *Mr Simpson has not arrived yet. His flight may have been delayed.* (Cat. El Sr Simpson encara no ha arribat. Es pot haver endarrerit el vol.)
- *Nobody answers the phone. They may have closed down the office.* (Cat. No contesten al telèfon. És possible que hagin tancat l'oficina.)

### **Don't have to, didn't have to**

These forms have the following syntactical structure:

- DON'T HAVE TO + BASE FORM
- DIDN'T HAVE TO + BASE FORM

The verb *don't have to* is actually the negative form of the modal verb *must*, whereas *didn't have to* is the negative form of *had to* (past tense of *must*).



In accordance with this, these forms are used in these cases:

**Don't have to:** it is used to say that there is no obligation of doing an action in the present or in the future. For example:

- *Tomorrow is Sunday. You don't have to come to the office.* (Cat. Demà és diumenge. No cal que vinguis al despatx.)
- *You don't have to tell me if you don't want to.* (Cat. No és necessari que m'ho diguis, si no vols.)

**Didn't have to:** it is used to say that there was no obligation of doing an action in the past. For example:

- *This present is too expensive. You didn't have to give me anything.* (Cat. Aquest regal és massa car. No era necessari regalar-me res.)
- *We didn't have to spend so much money.* (Cat. No calia gastar-se tants diners.)

#### **Other ways of expressing lack of necessity**

We can use these other expressions with the same meaning as *don't have to*:

- *Don't need to*
- *It's not necessary to*
- *There's no need to*

They all have their corresponding form in the past: *didn't need to*, *was not necessary to* and *there was no need to*.



### 3. Conflict resolution

An organization is composed of people who have different interests, opinions, characters and backgrounds. Disagreements and conflicts are therefore very common at work. There may be disagreements between the management and the workers, between the sellers and the buyers, or between workmates. Sometimes there are established procedures to deal with conflicts, as for example, a negotiating table between the management and the trade unions or a customer service, but very often the conflicts arise at an individual level and then we need to find the right way of dealing with them.

The conflicts may create disruptions at work, but they can also become a creative force if they are managed skilfully.

In the text, we give some clues to deal with personal conflicts. It also includes a dialogue with an angry customer which reflects the right attitude in this type of situations.

#### 3.1 Reading: conflicts at work

When people work together, there is an unavoidable potential for conflict because individuals often disagree and therefore conflicts arise in the workplace. Broadly speaking, there are two kinds of workplace conflicts: *conflicts of ideas*, which happen when two people have opposite ideas about a specific issue, and a *personality clash*, that is, when two members of an organization simply do not get along.

Although workplace conflicts are bad for business because they can lead to downturns in productivity and increases in absenteeism, a conflict over business ideas may result a valuable personal and organizational tool as well as a source of learning, development and growth.

When a conflict at work arises, it is important to recognize and understand the possible causes, characteristics and solutions in order to solve the problem. To do so, it is advisable to follow these steps:

- Identify the problem.
- Talk it out until everyone agrees that there is a problem.
- Allow every person involved to clarify their perspectives and opinions about the problem.
- Identify the ideal end result from each party's point of view.

- Figure out what can realistically be done to discover newer and deeper levels of understanding.
- Find an area of compromise or try to identify long-term goals which mean something to everyone.

Most conflicts at work happen between the workers and the management as a result of the difference in their respective interests. In order to defend their rights, the workers have organized themselves in trade unions. In many companies, the unions and the management have signed a collective bargaining agreement, a document which guarantees the rights of the workers. When a conflict between the workers and the management arises, the former may go on strike and stop the production of a company in order to put pressure on the management.

Conflict is a costly problem, but it may also be productive if it is managed skilfully. Therefore, an effective conflict management will neither affect work productivity nor the health and quality of life of people at the workplace. On the contrary, it might be a good opportunity of improving the work conditions and the productivity of the business.

See Unit 'Organizations', section 'Sales and orders', for more details about the customer service.

Very often, conflicts also arise between the company and the customers, especially when the customer is not satisfied with the service received. To deal with this type of conflicts, many companies have a customer service.

If you are in charge of a customer service and receive a complaint, you should remember to remain always polite no matter how aggressively the customer might be. Explain things clearly and be sure that the other person understands what can be done. Do not hesitate to admit your own fault, if this might be the case, and do not promise any action that cannot be accomplished.

Here is an example of a dialogue between a dissatisfied customer and the receptionist at the customer service.

*Anna Jiménez works at the customer service of a department store called Galerías Méndez. She receives a call from John Reynolds, an angry British customer.*

**Anna:** *Galerías Méndez, le atiende Anna... ¿dígame?*

**John:** Good evening. This is John Reynolds, from Fun Computers in London.

**Anna:** Yes, Mr Reynolds. What can I do for you?

**John:** Well, listen, I placed a bulk order of 25 computers and 15 printers with you in March, but they didn't arrive until the end of May. By then, we had run out of stock so we had to turn customers away. We've lost a lot of money and probably some customers as well.

**Anna:** As far as I can remember, we had some distribution problems in March due to severe weather conditions. Did you make a complaint in writing about it?

**John:** I certainly did. I've made several complaints, both in person and in writing. However, nobody seems to take this matter seriously. I feel indignant and I'm getting fed up with the whole issue.

**Anna:** Calm down, Mr Reynolds, I promise we'll get to the bottom of this. Now tell me, what is your complaint exactly?

**John:** Well, as I said, I placed an order, it didn't arrive and then I made a complaint, but nothing happened. I waited and waited but the computers and the printers didn't arrive. Then I tried to cancel the order, but the fact is that the whole amount had already been debited from our account. I wrote a letter to your company asking for a reimbursement of the money we had paid plus a percentage of the money we estimated we had lost as a result of your negligence.

**Anna:** I understand. Let me see what I can do about it.

**John:** I'm sorry but this is not enough. If I've not been refunded the full amount of the order within eight days, I'll contact our lawyers and we'll take prompt action.

**Anna:** I hope this is not necessary, Mr Reynolds. I'm sure we can solve this problem in a friendly way.

**John:** I'm afraid we've lost our patience with your company. I've made it quite clear what our position is. I expect a whole refund or we'll take your company to court.

**Anna:** I'll get onto this matter immediately, sir. I'll call you back as soon as we've found a solution. All I can say for the moment is that I hope you can accept our apologies.

**John:** Ok, thanks. I'll be expecting your call. Don't disappoint us again!

**Anna:** Sorry again, Mr Reynolds. I'll contact you as soon as possible.

### Language notes

- **Disagree** (Cat. *estar en desacord*): this verb is a more formal alternative to the negative form *do not agree*. We can say: *individuals often disagree* or *individual don't often agree*. Remember that it is wrong to say: *I am agree* and *I am not agree*.
- **Phrasal verbs**: notice these examples of phrasal verbs found in the text: *get along* (Cat. *mantenir bones relacions amb una persona*), *calm down* (Cat. *calmar-se, tranquilitzar-se*), *talk out* (Cat. *parlar a fons*), *figure out* (Cat. *descobrir, esbrinar*), *run out of* (Cat. *acabar, esgotar*), *turn away* (Cat. *rebutjar, girar l'esquena a, deixar de banda*).
- **Expressing negative addition**: notice the use of the connector *neither... nor* (Cat. *ni...ni*) to link two negative sentences. Here is an example from the text: *an effective conflict management will neither affect work productivity nor the health and quality of life of people at the workplace*. If the verb is in the negative form, then the connector is *either... or*: *an effective conflict management won't either affect work productivity or the health and quality of life of people at the workplace*.
- **Spelling**: in English, the names of the months are spelt with a capital letter: *I placed an order in March, but it didn't arrive until the end of May*.
- **Dialogue**: when writing a dialogue, we should try to use contractions to reproduce the spoken language more faithfully. See examples in the text above.

### 3.2 Glossary of terms: conflicts

- *absenteeism*: absentisme laboral
- *agreement*: acord
- *collective bargaining agreement*: conveni col·lectiu
- *complaint*: queixa
- *conflict*: conflicte
- *conflict management*: gestió de conflictes
- *disagreement*: desacord
- *downturn*: caiguda de les vendes, recessió, caiguda del negoci
- *gender pay gap*: diferència de salaris entre homes i dones
- *indignant*: indignat/da
- *issue*: tema, assumpte (also: *matter*)
- *management*: gestió, patronal, equip directiu
- *matter*: tema, assumpte (also: *issue*)
- *negligence*: negligència
- *negotiating table*: taula de negociació
- *personality clash*: xoc de personalitats
- *resignation*: dimissió, baixa voluntaria
- *skilfully*: amb habilitat
- *strike*: vaga
- *to agree*: estar d'acord
- *to be disappointed*: estar decepcionat/da
- *to be fed up*: estar tip, estar fart
- *to be on leave*: estar de baixa
- *to be on strike*: estar en vaga
- *to go on strike*: fer vaga
- *to complain*: queixar-se
- *to disagree*: estar en desacord
- *to disappoint*: decepcionar

- *to find a solution*: trobar una solució
- *to fire*: despatxar, acomiadar (de la feina)
- *to get along with*: tenir una bona relació amb, mantenir bones relacions amb
- *to get to the bottom of*: arribar al fons de
- *to manage*: gestionar
- *to raise a complaint*: formular una queixa
- *to reach an agreement*: arribar a un acord
- *to solve a problem*: solucionar un problema
- *to take action*: emprendre mesures, posar-se en acció
- *trade union*: sindicat
- *work leave*: baixa laboral

### 3.2.1 Communication: requests and advice

A request and a piece of advice are two examples of social language. We make a request when we want someone to do something. A request is like a command, but not as strong.

On the other hand, we give advice when we say what should be done. In this sense, it is very similar to a suggestion.

#### Requests

When making a requests, there are different degrees of politeness and formality to make requests. We must choose one form or another depending on the situation and on the person we are talking to.

The most imperative way of making a request is in fact an command.

#### Making a request:

The following sentences express the same request in an increasing degree of politeness:

1. Open the window! (order) (Cat. Obre la finestra!)
2. Open the window, please! (order) (Cat. Obre la finestra si us plau!)
3. Can you open the window (please)? (Cat. Pots obrir la finestra [si us plau])?
4. Could you open the window? (please)? (Cat. Podries obrir la finestra [si us plau])?
5. Will you open the window (please)? (Cat. Obriràs la finestra [si us plau])?
6. Would you open the window (please)? (Cat. Obriries la finestra [si us plau])?
7. Do you mind opening the window (please)? (Cat. T'importa obrir la finestra [si us plau])?
8. Would you mind opening the window (please)? (Cat. T'importaria obrir la finestra [si us plau])?

Notice the following:

- Requests are made with a variety of modal verbs (*can*, *could*, *will* and *would*).
- Examples 1 and 2 use the imperative form because they are strong requests (commands). The order in example 2 is softened by the use of *please*.



- Examples 3, 4 and 5 are quite neutral in terms of politeness. They are mostly used with friends, relatives and colleagues.
- Examples 6, 7 and 8 reflect the highest degrees of politeness. They are appropriate in formal situations.
- Example 8 is used in very formal situations.

### Responding to a request:

There are different ways of responding to a request. For example:

*To agree with the request:*

- Yes, of course.
- Ok, no problem.
- Yes, of course I (can).
- Of course I don't mind.
- Certainly.
- Sure.

*To disagree with 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).

### Advice

The noun *advice* is uncountable in English. This means that it has no plural form and that we cannot use the indeterminate article *an* or the numeral *one*. For example, it is wrong to say: *I'll give you some advices* or *I'll give you an advice*. We must say: *I'll give you some advice* and *I'll give you a piece of advice*.

On the other hand, there is a difference in the spelling between the noun *advice* (Cat. consell) and the verb *advise* (Cat. aconsellar, donar consells).

### Giving advice:

There are different ways of giving advice:

A) SUBJECT + ADVISE + GERUND (-ING)

- *I usually advise getting up earlier.* (Cat. Normalment aconsello llevar-se més d'hora.)
- *We advised waiting a little longer.* (Cat. Vam aconsellar esperar una mica més.)

### Countable and uncountable nouns

Countable nouns: the nouns that can be separated into units (*a book, some books*). Uncountable nouns: the nouns that cannot be separated into units (*some money*).

### B) SUBJECT + ADVISE + INDIRECT OBJECT + TO + BASE FORM

- *We advise you to see a doctor.* (Cat. T'aconsellem que vagis al metge.)
- *I would advise them to be patient.* (Cat. Jo els aconsellaria que tenguessin paciència.)

### C) SUBJECT + SHOULD + BASE FORM

- *You should work hard.* (Cat. Hauries de treballar molt.)
- *I think you should save money.* (Cat. Crec que hauries d'estalviar diners.)
- *He shouldn't go back to work.* (Cat. No hauria de tornar a la feina.)

### D) SUBJECT + HAD BETTER (NOT) + BASE FORM

- *You had better work harder.* (Cat. És millor que treballis més.)
- *We had better go.* (Cat. El millor és que anar-se'n.)
- *He had better speak.* (Cat. Més li val parlar.)

### E) IF I WERE YOU, + I + WOULD + BASE FORM

- *If I were you, I would work harder.* (Cat. Si jo estigués en el teu lloc, treballaria més.)
- *If I were you, I would save money.* (Cat. Si jo fos tu, estalviaria diners.)

### Responding to advice:

When responding to advice, it is customary to thank the other person. On the other hand, if we decide to refuse, we must also thank the other person and then justify our response.

Here are some possible replies:

*To accept advice:*

- *Thank you, I'll do that.* (Cat. Gràcies, així ho faré.)
- *You're right. Thanks.* (Cat. Tens tota la raó, gràcies.)
- *Yes, that's a good idea, thanks!* (Cat. Sí, bona idea, gràcies!)

*To refuse advice:*

- *No, I'd rather not do that. (It's too difficult for me.) Thanks anyway!* (Cat. M'estimaria més no fer-ho. (És massa difícil per a mi). Gràcies de totes maneres!)

---

The expression *had better* is mostly used in spoken English, where *had* is often contracted or simply omitted (*You'd better work harder* or *You better work harder*).

---

- *Thank you, but I'm afraid I can't do that. (It's too difficult for me.)* (Gràcies, però em temo que això no ho puc fer. (És massa difícil per a mi.)
- *No, thank you, I can't do that! (It's too difficult for me.)* (Cat. No, gràcies, això no ho puc fer! (És massa difícil per a mi.)

Here is an example of conversation in which a person is giving some advice:

### Giving advice

*Montse Carreras is talking to Joan Murphy, an Irish colleague who needs to learn Spanish. Joan asks Montse for some advice.*

**Joan:** You know, Montse, I've applied for a post in our office in Seville and I need to learn Spanish as soon as possible. Could you give some advice please?

**Montse:** Well, first of all, I think you should take up a Spanish course in a good language school.

**Joan:** Yeah, that's a good idea, of course. I know a good school in Dublin. what else?

**Montse:** If I were you, I would find a Spanish speaker for the oral practice.

**Joan:** A Spanish speaker! You're right. Sounds fine!

**Montse:** Oh, and Joan, you had better be patient. The Spanish verb system is very complicated, but don't worry, you just need practice.

**Joan:** OK.

**Montse:** One more thing. If I were you, I would look for a nice Andalusian boyfriend to help you with the language. It's the best way of learning!

**Joan:** For goodness sake, Montse! You know I can't do that! I've already got a boyfriend, and I'm sure Sean wouldn't like the idea....

### Language notes

- Notice that Montse has used different ways of giving advice. This introduces some variety to the speech when you must give different pieces of advice. Also notice Joan's responses to each piece of advice.
- **Joan:** this is a female name in English, a short form of *Joanna*. The male counterpart is *John*. In the dialogue, you can also find the Irish name *Sean*, which is equivalent to the English *John*.
- **Seville:** notice that the name of this Spanish city has an English spelling.
- **For goodness sake!:** an expression showing surprise. The word *goodness* is an euphemism that stands for the word *God's*. The Catalan equivalent expression would be *Per l'amor de Déu!* or *Mare meva!*

### 3.2.2 Grammar reference: the passive voice

The passive voice is a form of the verb that stands in opposition to the active voice.

Do not confuse the voice with the verb tenses: the verb tenses (present simple, past simple, etc.) express time reference (present, past, future) and how the action takes place (simple, continuous, perfect). The grammatical voice (active or passive) reflects the relationship between the subject and the objects.

Here is one sentence in the active voice and one in the passive voice:

- **Active voice:** *Sandra calls the English customers.* (Cat. La Sandra truca els clients anglesos.)
- **Passive voice:** *The English customers are called by Sandra.* (Cat. Els clients anglesos són trucats per la Sandra.)

The table shows the parts of the speech in each voice:

TAULA 3.1. Active voice vs passive voice

	Subject	Verb	Direct object	Agent
<b>Active voice</b>	Sandra	will call	the customers	-
<b>Passive voice</b>	The customers	will be called	-	by Sandra

---

The transitive verbs are the verbs that have a direct object.

---

The main characteristics of the passive voice are the following:

- The subject of the passive voice (*The English customers*) is the direct object in the active voice.
- The subject of the passive voice is **not** the person that does the action of the verb.
- In the passive voice, the person (or thing) that does the action of the verb is called the *agent*. The agent is introduced with the preposition *by*.
- The agent of the passive voice (*by Sandra*) is the subject of the active voice.
- Sometimes the agent is omitted from the passive sentence.

**The indirect object and the passive voice**

In a passive sentence, the subject can also be the indirect object of the active sentence. For example:

- Active voice: *Peter called **me** last night.*
- Passive voice: ***I** was called by Peter last night.*

Sometimes, we can express the passive voice in two different ways:

- Active voice: *John gave me **the answer** (direct object).*
- Passive voice: ***The answer** was given to me by John.*
- Active voice: *John gave **me** the answer (indirect object).*
- Passive voice: ***I** was given the answer by John.*

**The structure of the passive voice**

The structure of the verbs in the passive voice is the following:

- BE (conjugated) + PAST PARTICIPLE

The passive voice can be conjugated in most of the verb tenses. On the other hand, remember that some verbs have irregular past participle forms whereas the past participles of regular verbs end in -ed.

The structure of a passive sentence is:

- SUBJECT + PASSIVE VERB + (AGENT) + ...

**Use of the agent**

The agent of the passive voice is often omitted when it has an impersonal meaning. For example: *English is spoken in India* and not: *English is spoken in India by people.*

The table shows the passive voice in different verb tenses:

**TAULA 3.2.** The forms of the passive voice

Tense	Example	Translation
present simple	I <b>am invited</b> to his party.	<b>Estic convidat</b> a la seva festa.
present continuous	He <b>is being spied</b> by the FBI.	<b>Està sent espiat</b> per l’FBI.
past simple	I <b>was criticized</b> for my article.	<b>Vaig ser criticat</b> pel meu article.
past continuous	They <b>were being helped</b> by a man.	<b>Estaven sent ajudats</b> per un home.
present perfect	He <b>has been killed</b> by his servant.	<b>Ha estat assassinat</b> pel seu criat.

TAULA 3.2 (continuació)

Tense	Example	Translation
past perfect	She <b>had been chosen</b> Miss America.	<b>Havia estat elegida</b> Miss America.
future	The computer <b>will be repaired</b> tonight.	L'ordinador <b>serà reparat</b> aquest nit.

The future perfect (*has been being invited*, Cat. *ha estat sent invitat*) and future continuous (*will be being invited*, Cat. *estarà sent invitat*) also exist in the passive voice, but they are very unusual.

### The uses of the passive voice

In general, we use the passive voice in these cases:

1) When the person or thing that does the action is not important or it is unknown. The emphasis is on the action of the verb:

- English is widely spoken in India (Cat. *L'anglès es parla molt a la Índia*).
- The results will be analysed in one week (Cat. *Els resultats s'analitzaran en una setmana*).
- The elections have been won by unexpected candidates (Cat. *Les eleccions han estat guanyades per candidats inesperats*).

2) When the subject is too long:

- I was annoyed by Mary's insistence on staying at home all day (much better than: *Mary's insistence on staying at home all day annoyed me*) (Cat. *La insistència de Mary a quedar-se a casa tot el dia em va molestar*).

#### To be born

The English verb *to be born* (Cat: *néixer*) is only used in the passive form: *I was born in 1967*. *Born* is the irregular past participle of the verb *to bear* (Cat. *donar a llum*).

### Changing from the active to the passive voice

This section offers some help in case you need to change a sentence from the active to the passive voice.

Imagine that you need to change the following sentence:

- *They will sell the company next year.*

Ask yourself the following questions:

1. **Which are the elements of the active voice?** They are the subject (*they*), the verb (*will sell*), the direct object (*the company*) and an adverbial of time (*next year*).

2. **Which is the subject of the passive voice?** The subject is the direct object of the active sentence: *The company...*
3. **Which tense of the verb do I need?:** I need the future with *will* (we must not change the verb tense of the active sentence).
4. **How do I express the future with *will* in the passive voice?** The structure of the passive verb is: BE (conjugated) + PAST PARTICIPLE, so: *The company will be...*
5. **Is the verb *to sell* regular or irregular?** If we have any doubts, we can check a dictionary or a list of irregular verbs. *Sell* is irregular, and the correct form of the past participle is *sold*, so: *The company will be sold...*
6. **Do I need the agent in the passive voice?** No, it is not necessary because the subject of the active sentence is impersonal (*they*).
7. **But what if I insist on expressing the agent?** In that case, I must write *by*, which is the correct way of introducing the agent: *The company will be sold by...*
8. **Which form of the pronoun do I need?** *They* is not possible because it is the subject pronoun and it must go after the preposition *by*, so I need the object pronoun *them*: *The company will be sold by them...*
9. **Did I really need to write the agent if I almost made a mistake with the pronoun?** No, I didn't because it was not necessary.
10. **And what do I do with the adverbial of time?** Adverbials are not affected by the passive, so I just add it to the sentence in the same form and position of the active voice: *The company will be sold (by them) next year.*





# Work

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**Adaptació de continguts:** Carles Mora

Anglès



# Índex

<b>Introduction</b>	<b>5</b>
<b>Learning objectives</b>	<b>7</b>
<b>1 Looking for a job</b>	<b>11</b>
1.1 Reading: job search . . . . .	11
1.2 Glossary of terms: looking for a job . . . . .	13
1.2.1 Communication: wishes and opinions . . . . .	16
1.2.2 Grammar reference: the reported speech . . . . .	24
<b>2 Job recruitment</b>	<b>31</b>
2.1 The recruitment process . . . . .	31
2.2 Glossary of terms: job recruitment . . . . .	33
2.2.1 Communication: looking for a job . . . . .	34
2.2.2 Grammar reference: the conditional sentences . . . . .	38
<b>3 Working abroad</b>	<b>43</b>
3.1 Reading: working abroad . . . . .	43
3.2 Glossary of terms: working abroad . . . . .	45
3.2.1 Communication: translations and summaries . . . . .	47
3.2.2 Grammar reference: the comparative and the relative sentences . . . . .	51



## Introduction

This unit is called 'Work' because it deals with a very important activity in a person's life, that of looking for a job. Nowadays, finding a job is not an easy task. With so much competition, it is important to be well-prepared for the job that we want to apply to. The preparation implies having the necessary qualifications in the field of your interest, in your particular case, a degree in 'Administració i finances' as well as some additional knowledge to increase the possibilities of getting a job, for example, a knowledge of the English language, which you may achieve by completing the present course. In addition, you will also need to have a certain character and adopt a special attitude if you want to progress in your job. All this is the topic of the present unit.

The first section is called 'Looking for a job'. It offers some tips and ideas to all those who need to undertake the important task of finding a job in their field of studies. You will find these ideas in the reading text, which describes the elements that compose the process of looking for a job. The glossary of terms includes a list of words that may be useful when you elaborate your CV (curriculum vitae) in English. The vocabulary subsection is devoted to the personality adjectives. You will find a complete list of adjectives that you can use to describe your special competence for the job, either in the CV or during a job interview. The grammar subsection continues the topic of the sentence structure that was started in the unit called 'Organizations'. On this occasion, you will learn about a syntactical structure of English that implies the use of the gerund and the infinitive forms of the verbs. Also related to the topic of looking for a job, in the communication subsection you will learn how to write a CV and a cover letter, two important elements in the job search process.

The section called 'Job recruitment' looks at the job search process from the opposite point of view: that of the employer trying to find the right people for a post in the company. This task is generally carried out by the Human Resources Department. If you work in this department, you may find yourself in the situation of having to prepare the necessary procedures for advertising the job and selecting the candidates. The reading text in this section is about the job recruitment process and it describes the different stages and methods implied in this process. The glossary of terms complements the topic by including a list of useful words in the job recruitment. The grammar subsection introduces the topic of the relative sentences, which are very much used to make definitions. You will learn about the relative pronouns used in this context and you will distinguish between two types of relative sentences. The communication subsection deals with another communicative situation. This time you will learn how to give and respond to advice, which you do when you recommend someone to do certain actions.

The section 'Working abroad' deals with the possibility of looking for a job in another country. You may want to do so to have a new experience and broaden

your horizon or you may have to do so just because you cannot find a job in your own country. Whatever the case is, this section will offer you some ideas in case you want to move abroad. You will find these ideas in the reading text of this section. On the other hand, the glossary of terms offers you a list of words that may be very useful if you ever decide to take such an important step. In the grammar subsection you will find information about the comparative forms of adjectives and adverbs, which are used to speak about the differences between two or more things. Finally, the communication subsection deals with a new situation. On this occasion, you will learn how to make and respond to suggestions by using the appropriate language and syntactical structures.

This unit will especially help you in your task of looking for a job, but also in the task of finding the right candidates for a job in your company. You will also find information in case you want to move to another country. In all these situations, the knowledge of the English language will be an added value which will guarantee your success.

## Learning objectives

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

1. Understand oral messages in standard language through any means of communication, both in daily life situations and in the professional field of administration and finance, and understand the contents of the message accurately.

- Identify the main idea in a message.
- Identify the finality of oral messages in standard language as well as the tone and feelings of the speaker.
- Get information from recorded messages in standard language related to the professional field of administration and finance.
- Identify the points of view and attitude of the speaker.
- Identify the main ideas in a speech in standard language and at normal speed about specific and abstract issues related to the field of administration and finance.
- Understand the details of a message in standard language, even with background noises.
- Identify the main ideas in a speeches, reports and professional presentations related to the field of administration and finance.
- Be conscious of the importance of understanding a message as a whole, even if you don't understand all the words.

2. Understand complex written texts related to the field of administration and finance and analyze the contents comprehensively.

- Read a text with a high degree of autonomy, adapting the style and speed of the reading to different types of text and objectives.
- Read the details of long and relatively complex texts related to the field of administration and finance.
- Relate the text to its corresponding context.
- Quickly identify the contents and importance of pieces of news, articles and reports related to the field of administration and finance and decide whether a deeper analysis is necessary.
- Translate complex texts related to the field of administration and finance using reference materials, if necessary.

- Interpret technical messages in different means: post, fax and email, among others.
- Interpret long and complex instructions related to the professional field.
- Choose reference material and technical dictionaries and use automatic translators.

3. Produce clear, well-organized oral messages frequently used in jobs related to the field of administration and finance and analyze the context of the situation, adapting yourself to the other's linguistic register.

- Identify the registers used in oral messages.
- Express yourself fluently, accurately and efficiently in a great variety of professional and daily life situations, clearly establishing the relationship between the different ideas.
- Express yourself spontaneously with the appropriate degree of formality according to the situation.
- Use the appropriate protocol in formal and informal introductions.
- Make a correct use of the technical words related to the field of administration and finance as normally used in your profession.
- Express and defend your points of view clearly by using the appropriate explanations and reasoning.
- Describe the steps in a process related to your professional field.
- Explain the choice of a specific option in detail.
- Require the repetition of a speech or part of a speech when necessary.
- Apply the appropriate interaction formulas normally used in your professional field.

4. Write texts normally used at work and in the daily life and use the appropriate register for each situation.

- Write clear, detailed texts about a variety of issues related to the professional field, summarizing and considering the information from different sources.
- Organize the information correctly, accurately and coherently and ask for and/or give general and detailed information.
- Write reports related to the professional field pointing out the relevant aspects and giving details to support your points.
- Fill in documents related to the professional field.
- Apply the standard rules and the specific vocabulary used to fill in administrative, accounting, fiscal and financial documents.



- Summarize articles, pieces of news and other types of information related to the professional field using a great variety of words to avoid frequent repetitions.
- Understand the most important points in manuals, regulations, legislations and other written texts as normally used in the field of administration and finance.
- Use the appropriate protocol rules that apply to a specific document.

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

- Define the most distinctive aspects of the customs of your professional field in the use of a foreign language.
- Describe the social conventions of the English-speaking countries.
- Identify the values and beliefs which are characteristic of English-speaking countries.
- Apply the social conventions in English-speaking communities.
- Identify the language traits of different regions.



## 1. Looking for a job

Looking for a job! Very often, this is a necessary activity in the lives of many people, young people who have just finished their studies, people with a long experience who have become unemployed, or people who just want to change their jobs. Whatever the reason, looking for a job may become a long, frustrating process.

One of the difficulties in finding a job is the great number of applicants for a few jobs. In this context, the clue to success is to acquire as many abilities as possible in order to stand out over the competitors. One of these abilities is the knowledge of the English language. This is always an added value to your application, but very often it is also a necessity.

The text in this section explains how to apply for a job in English.

### 1.1 Reading: job search

Looking for a job is the main concern for many young people who have finished their formal education, but also for many experienced workers who have either lost their jobs or just want to find a different job. However, the current economical situation in the world, together with the government employment policies, have created such unemployment rates that the task of finding a job is a very difficult one.

The basic thing for finding a job is to be as well prepared as possible in order to gain advantage over your competitors. You will need to have a degree (or degrees) in the field of your interest as well as a good knowledge of at least one foreign language, especially English. Good social skills, that is, the ability to interact with people in a positive and efficient way, will be an additional value to your application.

You will also need to look at the right places for finding the job offers available: check the newspaper advertisements and select those which might fit into your profile; you can also look at the websites of particular companies, which usually include job offers; or you can go to specialized websites, like Infojobs, where you can find a great variety of jobs.

Most important of all, do not despair. Finding the job of your life might take a long time. Be patient and try to do things consciously. Think that most of the jobs that are available will probably be below your own capacities, with low salaries and long working hours. Do not be too fussy, but do not take everything that you are offered. The choice will depend on your own circumstances, but whatever you

do, be sure that you update your knowledge constantly. This will allow you to keep up with the times and apply for better jobs.

When looking for a job, it is very important that you draw an appropriate search action plan. This action plan should include the following elements:

**A curriculum vitae (CV):** this is the way of providing employers with written evidence of your qualifications and skills. The main purpose of a CV (which is called *résumé* in the US) is to get an interview.

**A cover letter:** it accompanies your CV and its purpose is to introduce you to the employer and highlight your most relevant skills for the job. A cover letter should be written in formal language and include the following information:

- Name and address of the person the letter is addressed to
- Reason for your interest in the company or position
- Your qualifications for the position
- Request for an interview
- Your home and telephone numbers
- Your e-mail

**The interview:** the job interview is the most decisive moment in the process of applying for a job. It is the time when you meet the employer so he/she can find out more about you. It is also a chance of learning if the job is right for you. You will be asked about your experience and qualifications and you will also need to show the skills that you have related to the job that you are applying to. For certain positions, job interviews are often carried out in English in order to check the applicant's knowledge of the language. These interviews are generally face-to-face, but nowadays telephone interviews or video-conferences are also common. You should also think about the importance of the non-verbal communication. Interviews are often carried out by experts on body language, and they will probably scrutinise you to the smallest details. The way you look will tell them a lot about your character, so try to look tidy and dress appropriately. Your tone, your gestures, your attitude in general, should not contradict, but reinforce, your message.

#### Language notes

- **Expressing a high degree:** to express a high degree with a noun, we can use the adverb *such* + a noun, as in: *I'll never earn such a salary* (Cat. No guanyaré mai un sou com aquest). This adverb is also common in the syntactical structure *such* + *that*-clause, as in this example from the text: *the current economical situation has created such unemployment rates that the task of finding a job is a very difficult one* (Cat. La situació econòmica actual ha originat taxes d'atur tan grans que la tasca de trobar feina es molt difícil). With adjectives, we can express intensity with *very* + adjective (Cat. molt), as in *the unemployment rate is very high* (Cat. la taxa d'atur és molt alta), or with *so* + *that*-clause, as in: *the unemployment rate is so high that it is very difficult to find a job* (Cat, la taxa d'atur és tan alta que és molt difícil trobar feina).

See the annex 'Models of business letters and emails' in the unit 'Organizations', section 'Sales and orders', to see an example of cover letter.

- **The adjective *current*** (Cat. actual): other adjectives with the same meaning are: *present* and *present-day*. The adverbs are: *currently*, *presently*. Do not confuse with the words *actual* (Cat. real) and *actually* (Cat. realment, de fet), which have a totally different meaning.
- **Expressing purpose:** to express purpose, we can use two different syntactical structures: 1) *for* + verb in the *-ing* form (*the basic thing for finding a job is...*); 2) *to* + verb in the base form (*the basic thing to find a job is...*). *In order to* is a more formal version of *to*.
- **Job/work:** these two words have a similar meaning, but you should not confuse them. *Job* (Cat. feina) is a countable noun that has the specific meaning of *postor task*. We can use the word in plural: *he has two jobs*. On the other hand, *work* (Cat. treball) is an uncountable noun which is used in a general sense. We cannot use these word in plural, so it is wrong to say: *he has two works*.
- **Use of *he/she*:** when a noun has no gender marker (like in *employer*, *director*, *secretary*, etc.), the pronoun reference is usually *he/she* (and also: *his/her*, *him/her*) to prevent a sexist use of the masculine form *he*, which originally was the sole reference in these cases. We can sometimes avoid the ambiguity by expressing the sentence in the passive voice.

## 1.2 Glossary of terms: looking for a job

- *applicant*: candidat/a, persona que demana una feina
- *application*: sol·licitud
- *application form*: formulari de sol·licitud
- *cover letter*: carta de sol·licitud de feina
- *curriculum vitae* (GB): currículum
- *CV* (GB): CV, currículum
- *day shift*: torn de dia
- *degree*: títol acadèmic
- *education*: educació acadèmica
- *employee*: empleat/da
- *employer*: empresari, el que dóna feina
- *employment*: feina, professió
- *employment rate*: tasa d'ocupació
- *full-time job*: feina a temps complert
- *high salary*: bon sou, salari alt
- *interviewer*: entrevistador
- *job*: feina, professió
- *job interview*: entrevista de feina

- *job offer*: oferta de feina
- *low salary*: mal sou, salari baix
- *night shift*: torn de nit
- *non-qualified*: no qualificat/da
- *part-time job*: feina a temps parcial
- *position*: lloc de treball, feina, càrrec
- *post*: lloc de treball
- *professional*: professional (adj.) professional (n.)
- *profile*: perfil
- *qualification*: qualificació (per fer una feina); conjunt de títols (per a una feina)
- *qualified*: qualificat/da
- *résumé* (US): currículum
- *salary*: salari, sou
- *skill*: habilitat
- *steady job*: treball fix
- *temporary job*: treball temporal
- *to apply for*: sol·licitar, demanar (una feina)
- *to be unemployed*: estar a l'atur, no tenir feina
- *to earn*: guanyar (un salari), cobrar (per la feina)
- *to fill in*: omplir, emplenar (un formulari)
- *to find a job*: trobar feina
- *to get a job*: aconseguir una feina
- *to have a degree on (Finance)*: tenir el títol de (Finances)
- *to have a job*: tenir feina
- *to look for a job*: buscar feina
- *to lose one's job*: perdre la feina
- *to stand out*: destacar, destacar-se
- *to work*: treballar
- *to work hard*: treballar molt
- *unemployed*: aturat/da (adj.)

- *unemployed person*: aturat (n.)
- *unemployment*: atur
- *unemployment rate*: taxa d'atur
- *work*: treball
- *worker*: treballador
- *workshift*: torn de treball

### 1.2.1 Communication: wishes and opinions

Expressing a wish or give an opinion are very common functions in oral communication. We spend most of our time expressing our wishes and our opinions, or listening to other people's. There are different ways of expressing a wish and giving opinions, so we should be familiar with all of them to choose the most appropriate way in each situation.

#### Wishes

There are different options to express a wish in English. The most common one is with the expression *would like*, but we can also use the verb *wish* (Cat. desitjar) and a number of other expressions.

#### Would like

We can use *would like* in different sentence structures to refer either to the present, to the past and to the future.

##### 1. *Wishes referring to the present and to the future:*

A) I WOULD LIKE + TO + BASE FORM + ...

- I would like to see you. (Cat. Et voldria veure.)
- I would like to stay a little longer. (Cat. Em voldria quedar una mica més / M'agradaria quedar-me una mica més.)

B) I WOULD LIKE + DIRECT OBJECT + TO + BASE FORM + ...

- I would like Mr Johnson to be nicer. (Cat. M'agradaria que Mr Johnson fos més simpàtic.)
- I would like you to call the director right now. (Cat. Voldria que truquessis al director ara mateix.)

C) I WOULD LIKE + NOUN

- I would like a coffee. (Cat. Voldria un cafè.)
- I would like a new opportunity. (Cat. Voldria una nova oportunitat.)

##### 2. *Wishes referring to the past:*

D) I WOULD HAVE LIKED + TO + BASE FORM ...

- I would have liked to be elected. (Cat. M'hagués agradat haver sortit elegit.)



- I would have liked to speak better French. (Cat. M'hagués agradat parlar millor el francès.)

#### E) I WOULD HAVE LIKED + DIRECT OBJECT + TO + BASE FORM...

- I would have liked him to be more polite. (Cat. M'hagués agradat que [ell] hagués estat més educat.)
- I would have liked the job to be more interesting. (Cat. M'hagués agradat que la feina fos més interessant.)

### The verb 'wish'

#### The meaning of *I wish that ...*

The expression *I wish that* is not usually translated literally into Catalan or Spanish. These two languages use an equivalent expression instead (Cat. Tant de bo..., Sp. Ojalá...) For example: *I wish (that) it rained.* (Cat. Tant de bo ploqués!, Sp. ¡Ojalá lloviera!)

This verb appears in different sentence structures to express a wish in the past, the present or the future. The past tense of *wish* (wished) is very little used.

#### 1. Wishes referring to the present and to the future:

##### A) I WISH + (THAT) + SUBJECT + VERB IN PAST SIMPLE + ...

- I wish (that) you were more sociable. (Cat. Tant de bo fossis més sociable.)
- I wish (that) you came with us next week. (Cat. Tant de bo vinguessis amb nosaltres la setmana que ve.)

##### B) I WISH + TO + BASE FORM

- I wish to speak to you as soon as possible. (Cat. Voldria parlar amb tu el més aviat possible.)
- I wish to tell you something. (Cat. Voldria dir-te una cosa.)

##### C) I WISH + INDIRECT OBJECT + DIRECT OBJECT

- I wish you a very good morning. (Cat. Et desitjo un molt bon dia.)
- I wish the new secretary good luck. (Cat. A la nova secretària li desitjo bona sort.)

##### D) I WISH + FOR + NOUN

- I wish for a glass of water. (Cat. Voldria un got d'aigua.)
- I wish for a better salary. (Cat. Voldria un salari millor.)

## 2. Wishes referring to the past:

E) I WISH + (THAT) + SUBJECT + VERB IN PAST PERFECT (had + past participle)...

- I wish (that) I had been here before. (Cat. Tant de bo hagués estat aquí abans.)
- I wish (that) I had taken an umbrella. (Cat. Tant de bo hagués agafat un paraigua.)

In a that-clause, *that* can be omitted from the sentence, as it usually happens with this conjunction. On the other hand, the form of the verb *be* in the that-clause is *were* for all persons, including the first and third persons. So we must say:

- I wish I *were* richer. (Cat. Tant de bo fos més ric.)
- I wish Sam *were* here to watch all this. (Cat. Tant de bo Sam fos aquí per a veure tot això.)

### Other ways of expressing a wish

Other verbs that can be used to express wishes are *want* (Cat. voler) and *desire* (Cat. desitjar). The difference in the use of *want* and *wish* is that *want* is used for something which is possible to obtain, whereas *wish* usually refers to something which is more difficult to obtain. On the other hand, *Desire* has the same meaning as *wish*, but it is used in more formal situations. Sometimes, the expression *If only ...* (Cat. Si almenys ...) is used instead of *wish*.

The uses of these forms are the following:

A) I WANT/DESIRE + TO + BASE FORM + ...

- I want to go to Mr Smith's speech tonight. (Cat. Aquesta nit vull anar a la conferència de Mr Smith.)
- I desire to be alone, please. (Cat. desitjo estar sol, si us plau.)
- I wanted to come earlier, but it was impossible. (Cat. Volia venir abans, però ha estat impossible.)

B) I WANT/DESIRE + DIRECT OBJECT + TO + BASE FORM + ...

- I want you to sit down and listen. (Cat. Vull que seguis i escoltis.)

- I desired him to relax, but he was hysterical. (Cat. Desitjava que es calmés, però estava histèric.)

### C) I WANT/DESIRE + NOUN

- I wanted some paper for the printer. (Cat. Volia paper per a la impressora.)
- I desire a peaceful evening. (Cat. Desitjo una tarda tranquil·la.)

### D) IF ONLY + SUBJECT + VERB IN PAST SIMPLE... (referring to the present and to the future)

- If only I had money! (Cat. Si almenys tingués diners!)
- If only you were a little more intelligent! (Cat. Si almenys fossis una mica més intel·ligent!)

### E) IF ONLY + SUBJECT + VERB IN PAST PERFECT... (referring to the past)

- If only I had taken the mobile! (Cat. Si almenys hagués agafat el mòbil!)
- If only they had finished their work! (Cat. Si almenys haguessin acabat la feina!)

## Opinions

There are different ways of expressing our opinions and asking for and responding to other people's opinions.

### Asking for an opinion:

- What do you think of (the salaries)? (Cat. Què opines [dels salaris]?)
- Do you think that (the salaries are good)? (Cat. Creus que [els salaris estan bé]?)
- Do you believe in (justice)? (Cat. Creus en [la justícia]?)
- What's your opinion about (the salaries)? (Cat. Quina és la teva opinió sobre [els salaris]?)
- What does the company think about (the present crisis)? (Cat. Què en pensa l'empresa de [la crisi actual]?)

### Giving an opinion:

The most common ways of expressing opinions are:

- With the verb *think* (Cat. creure, opinar)

- With the verb *believe* (Cat. creure)

We can use both verbs indistinctly, but *believe* expresses a stronger opinion than *think*.

The common syntactical structure to these verbs is:

A) SUBJECT + THINK/BELIEVE + (THAT) + CLAUSE

In the spoken language, we can omit the conjunction *that*.

Here are some examples:

- I think (that) the film is very interesting. (Cat. Crec/Opino que la pel·lícula és molt interessant.)
- I think (that) you should wait a little longer. (Cat. Crec/Opino que hauries d'esperar una mica més.)
- I think (that) you shouldn't talk to your boss like that. (Cat. Crec/Opino que no hauries de parlar-li així, al teu cap.)
- I believe (that) he has been wrong to leave his wife. (Cat. Crec que ha fet malament de deixar la seva dona.)
- I don't believe (that) we can get out of this crisis so easily. (Cat. No crec que puguem sortir tan fàcilment d'aquesta crisi.)

The verb *believe* can also have the following structure:

B) SUBJECT + BELIEVE + IN + NOUN

For example:

- I believe in justice. (Cat. crec en la justícia.)
- I don't believe in people's stupidity. (Cat. No crec en l'estupidesa de la gent.)

### Negative opinions

To express a negative opinion, we can change the main verb (*think*, *believe*) or the verb in the subordinate clause into the negative form. For example, we can say:

- *I don't think (that) this is correct.*
- *I think (that) this is not correct.*

Apart from verbs *think* and *believe*, we can introduce an opinion with a some expressions, as for example:

- In my opinion,... (Cat. En la meva opinió,...)

- In my view,... (Cat. En la meva opinió,...)
- From my point of view,... (Cat. Des del meu punt de vista,...)
- As far as I'm concerned,... (Cat. Pel que a mi respecta,...)
- As I see it,... (Cat. Tal com jo ho veig,...)

All these expressions are placed at the beginning of the sentence and, in the written form, they are separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma (,).

Examples:

- In my opinion, the director should resign. (Cat. En la meva opinió, el director hauria de dimitir.)
- In my view, you should take the bus to come to work. (Cat. En la meva opinió, hauries de venir a treballar en autobús.)
- From my point of view, the salaries are too low. (Cat. Des del meu punt de vista, els salaris són massa baixos.)
- As far as I'm concerned, I wouldn't say anything. (Cat. Pel que a mi respecta, jo no diria res.)
- As I see it, we shouldn't go on strike. (Cat. Tal com jo ho veig, no hauríem de fer vaga.)

### Responding to opinions

When people respond to an opinion, they can agree or disagree with that opinion. Accordingly, we can respond to an opinion in the following way:

- I agree. (Cat. Hi estic d'acord.)
- I don't agree. (Cat. No hi estic d'acord.)
- I disagree. (Cat. No hi estic d'acord.)

For example:

- I think we should do something big. - *Yes, I agree.*
- I think Emma should learn English. - *I disagree/I don't agree (I think French is more appropriate in her case).*

Be careful with the verbs *agree* and *disagree*. It is wrong to say: *I am agree*, *I am disagree*, *I am not agree*, etc.

Other options to respond to opinions are these:

- I share/don't share your opinion. (Cat. Comparteixo/No comparteixo la teva opinió.)
- I'm of the same opinion as you. (Cat. Sóc de la teva mateixa opinió.)
- I've got the same/a different opinion. (Cat. Tinc la mateixa/una altra opinió.)
- I don't see things that way. (Cat. Jo no ho veig d'aquesta manera.)

To respond to opinions, it is very common to use expressions like: *so do I*, *neither do I*, etc. These expressions have a special structure:

- To agree: I believe he should wait. - *So do I*. (Cat. Jo també.)
- To agree: I believe he shouldn't wait. - *Neither do I*. (Cat. Jo tampoc.)
- To disagree: I think he should wait. - *But I don't*. (Cat. Doncs jo no.)
- To disagree: I think he shouldn't wait. - *But I do*. (Cat. Doncs jo sí.)

The correct structures are the following:

1. Agree to affirmative statements:

- SO + AUXILIARY VERB/MODAL + SUBJECT

Examples:

- I like swimming. - *So do I / So does John*, etc.
- He's very intelligent. - *So am I / So are we / So is my little daughter*, etc.
- You can speak English very well. - *So can you / So can Laura*, etc.

2. Agree to negative statements:

- NEITHER + AUXILIARY VERB/MODAL + SUBJECT

Examples:

- I don't like swimming. - *Neither do I / Neither do we / Neither does she*, etc.
- He's not very intelligent. - *Neither are you / Neither am I / Neither is my daughter*, etc.
- You can't speak English very well. - *Neither can you / Neither can Mr Larson*, etc.

3) Disagree to affirmative statements:

- BUT + SUBJECT + AUXILIARY VERB/MODAL (in negative)

Examples:

- I like swimming. - *But I don't / But John doesn't*, etc.
- He's very intelligent. - *But I'm not / But we aren't / But my daughter isn't*, etc.
- You can speak English very well. - *But you can't / But Mr Larson can't*, etc.

4) Disagree to negative statements:

- BUT + SUBJECT + AUXILIARY VERB/MODAL (in affirmative)

Examples:

- I don't like swimming. - *But I do / But John does*, etc.
- He isn't very intelligent. - *But I am / But we are / But my daughter is*, etc.
- You can't speak English very well. - *But you can / But Mr Larson can*, etc.

## Question tags

The term 'question tag' refers to a short question which we add to a statement to make sure that the other person has heard or understood what said. Question tags are used in the spoken language. The Catalan equivalent to an English question tag would be: *oi?, no és cert?* The Spanish equivalent would be *¿verdad?, ¿no es cierto?*

In English, the question tags are more complex than in Catalan or Spanish because the structure depends on the sentence to which it is attached.

Here are the different structures of the question tags.

### 1) Affirmative statements:

- AUXILIARY/MODAL VERB (in negative) + SUBJECT (pronoun)

Examples:

- Peter is always on time, *isn't he?* (Cat. En Peter sempre és puntual, *oi?*)
- You can come at the weekends, *can't you?* (Cat. Pots venir els caps de setmana, *oi que sí?*)
- Mary speaks German, *doesn't she?* (Cat. la Mary parla alemany, *no?*)

### 2) Negative statements:

- AUXILIARY/MODAL VERB (in affirmative) + SUBJECT (pronoun)

Examples:

- They haven't had dinner yet, *have they?* (Cat. Encara no has sopat, *oi que no?*)
- We shouldn't eat in the office, *should we?* (Cat. No hauriem de menjar al despatx, *oi que no?*)
- You don't like computers, *do you?* (Cat. No t'agraden els ordinadors, *oi que no?*)

### 1.2.2 Grammar reference: the reported speech

We use a type of sentence called the *reported speech* when we repeat or explain what has been said before. What people actually say is called *direct speech*. In the written language, the direct speech is always in inverted commas ("...").

Here is an example of a sentence in direct speech and in the reported speech:

- **Direct speech:** "*I never get up before eight,*" *John said.*
- **Reported speech:** *John said that he never got up before eight.*

A sentence in the reported speech is composed of:

- 1) A main clause: *John said...*
- 2) A subordinate clause: *...that he never got up before eight.*

The verb in the main clause is called *reporting verb*. Typically, the reporting verbs are: *say, tell, explain, ask*, etc. They are generally in the past simple. The structure of the subordinate (or reported) clause depends on whether we are reporting a statement, a question, a command, a request or a suggestion.

#### Reporting statements

The reported statements have the following characteristics:

- The most common reporting verbs are: *said, told, explained*, and a few others. Their use depends on how accurate we want to be in our description, but *said* and *told* are good for all occasions.
- The reported statement is introduced by the conjunction *that*. In spoken language, *that* is often omitted.

Examples of reported statements:



- Direct speech: “*We don’t like sports very much*”, *Stephanie said*.
- Reported speech: *Stephanie said that they didn’t like sports very much*.
  
- Direct speech: *Mr Larson: “The company will invest in new areas”*.
- Reported speech: *Mr Larson explained that the company would invest in new areas*.
  
- Direct speech: “*I wasn’t at home last night*”, *Jack told me*.
- Reported speech: *Jack told me that he hadn’t been at home the night before*.
  
- Direct speech: *Mary Anne: “Look! My parents have given me these earrings as a Christmas present”*.
- Reported speech: *Mary Anne said that her parents had given her those earrings as a Christmas present*.

### Say/tell

The verbs *say* and *tell* have similar meanings (Cat: dir, explicar), but they are used differently:

- *say* does not admit an indirect object. For example, it is wrong to say: *He said me that...* If we need to include the object, we must say: *he said to me that...*
- *tell* admits an indirect object. We can say: *he told me that..., I told John that..., etc.* We must use the verb *tell* when we want to express the indirect object.

### Reporting questions

We should distinguish between *yes/no questions* and *wh-questions*. The structure is a little different in one case or the other.

#### Reporting yes/no questions:

The characteristics of reported yes/no questions are the following:

- The most common reporting verb is *asked*.
- The reported question is introduced with the conjunction *if* or *whether* (Cat. si), with no difference in meaning. This conjunction is never omitted in the spoken language.
- The reported question has the same syntactical structure of a statement.

Here are some examples of reported yes/no questions:

- Direct speech: *“Are you happy in your new job, Matias?”*, I asked him.
- Reported speech: *I asked Matias if he was happy in his new job.*
  
- Direct speech: *Sandra: “Did you go out yesterday?”*
- Reported speech: *Sandra asked me if I had gone out the night before.*
  
- Direct speech: *“Have you ever been to New Zealand?”, Maggie asked me.”*
- Reported speech: *Maggie asked me whether I had ever been to New Zealand.*

### **Reported wh-questions:**

The characteristics of wh-questions are the same as those of yes/no questions, except for the following:

- the reported wh-question is introduced by the interrogative pronoun of the direct speech.

Examples of reported wh-questions:

- Direct speech: *Danny: “How old are your children?”*
- Reported speech: *Danny asked me how old my children were.*
  
- Direct speech: *“When did you start working in this company?”, Peter asked Laura.*
- Reported speech: *Peter asked Laura when she had started working in that company.*
  
- Direct speech: *Bob: “Why didn’t you tell me that you had no money?”*
- Reported speech: *Bob asked me why I hadn’t told him that I had no money.*

### **Reporting commands, suggestions and requests**

Reported commands, suggestions and requests have some distinctive characteristics. For this reason, it is necessary to study them in a separate section.

#### **Reported commands:**

The characteristics of reported commands are these:

- Typical reporting verbs are: *asked (me), told (me), ordered (me)*.
- There is no conjunction to introduce the reported command.
- In reported commands, the verb is expressed in the infinitive form with the preposition *to*. In negative, the correct form is *not to*.

Examples of reported commands:

- Direct speech: *Mr Wilson: "Come here, Jane!"*.
- Reported speech: *Mr Wilson asked Jane to go there.*
  
- Direct speech: *"Don't leave until you finish your work!", the boss ordered Jim.*
- Reported speech: *The boss ordered Jim not to leave until he had finished his work.*

### **Reported suggestions:**

The characteristics of reported suggestions are these:

- The reporting verb is: *suggested (me)*.
- The reporting clause is with *that* and (usually) the modal *should*.
- With the reporting verb *suggest*, we can also use the gerund (V-ing) in the reported suggestion.

Examples of reported suggestions:

- Direct speech: *"Let's go to the mountains next summer", Teresa suggested.*
- Reported speech (I): *Teresa suggested that we should go to the mountains the following summer/next summer.*
- Reported speech (II): *Teresa suggested going to the mountains the following summer/next summer.*
  
- Direct speech: *"Why don't you speak to Mr Jameson about this?", Peter suggested.*
- Reported speech (I): *Peter suggested that I should speak to Mr Jameson about that.*
- Reported speech (II): *Peter suggested speaking to Mr Jameson about that.*

### **Reported requests:**

The characteristics of reported requests are these:

- Requests are very much like commands.
- The reporting verbs are usually *asked (me)* or *told (me)*.
- In reported requests, the verb is expressed in the infinitive form with the preposition *to*.
- In reported requests, we can also use the modal verbs *could* or *would*.

Examples of reported requests:

- Direct speech: “*Could you speak louder, please?*”, *the audience told me*.
- Reported speech (I): *The audience told me to speak louder*.
- Reported speech (II): *The audience asked me if I could speak louder*.
  
- Direct speech: “*Will you translate this text for me please?*”, *Mark asked me*”.
- Reported speech (I): *Peter asked me to translate that text for him*.
- Reported speech (II): *Peter asked me if I would translate that text for him*”.
  
- Direct speech: *Can you help me?*”, *Sarah asked me*.
- Reported speech (I): *Sarah asked me to help her*.
- Reported speech (II): *Sarah asked me if I could help her*.

### **Ask/Tell in the reported speech**

The verbs *ask* and *tell* have two meanings. Their primary meanings are:

- *Ask* (Cat. preguntar): used to report questions.
- *Tell* (Cat: dir, explicar): commonly used to report statements.

Another meaning of these verbs is:

- *Ask/Tell* (Cat. demanar): used to report commands and requests.

### **Changing from direct to reported speech**

When we need to change a sentence from direct speech to reported speech, we should consider the following:

- In the reported statement, the pronouns must maintain the same reference as in the direct speech. This means that we must often change the pronouns to adapt them to the new point of view.

- We must change the verb tense in the reported statement because there is a change in the time reference. The reported statement usually refers to words that were pronounced in the past.
- We must also change other elements like demonstratives and adverbial expressions of time to adapt them to the new point of view and maintain their validity.

The table shows the different changes that take place when changing from direct speech into reported speech.

**TAULA 1.1.** Changes in reported speech

Direct speech	Reported speech	Direct speech	Reported speech
<b>Verb tenses</b>		<b>Adverbials of time</b>	
present simple	past simple	today	that day
present continuous	past continuous	yesterday	the day before
present perfect	past perfect	tomorrow	the next day the following day
past simple	past perfect	tonight	that night
past continuous	past continuous	next week, etc.	the next week the following week
past perfect	past perfect	last week, etc.	the week before
will	would	now	then
can	could	<b>Adverbials of place</b>	
must	had to	here	there
should	should	<b>Demonstratives</b>	
may	might	this	that
might	might	these	those

### Adverbials of time in the reported speech

We do not always need to change the adverbials of time. The changes only occur when at the moment of speaking the time reference is no longer true. For example, if we report the sentence: *I'll go next week*, we must not change the adverbial if we report within the same week. In this case, we must say: *he said he would go next week* because at the moment of speaking the expression *next week* is still true.

On the other hand, if we report the sentence after the week has passed, we must say: *he said he would go the following week* because the expression *next week* is no longer true at the moment of speaking.

Here is a practical example to help you change a sentence from the direct speech to the reported speech.

Imagine that you need to report the following question:

- “Where does your brother live?”, Mr Smith asked me.

Ask yourself the following questions:

1. **What type of sentence do I need to report?** It is a wh-question, so I must think about the characteristics of reported wh-questions and remember an example that can serve me as a guide.
2. **Which is the structure of the reported speech?** The structure is: a main clause (which includes the reporting verb) and a subordinate clause (the reported question).
3. **Which are the subject and the verb of the main clause?** The subject is *Mr Smith* and the verb is *asked me*. So I can start like this: *Mr Smith asked me...*
4. **How do I introduce a reported wh-question?** I introduce it with the interrogative pronoun, so I must say: *Mr Smith asked me where....*
5. **Which is the correct structure of a reported question?** It is the same structure of a statement, so I must not use the auxiliary verb *does*. The correct structure is: S+V (conjugated in the correct tense).
6. **What elements of the question do I need to change?:** I need to change the verb tense because we change the time reference, and also the pronoun *you* because we change our point of view.
7. **Do I need to change the subject, too?** Sometimes we must change it, but not in this example because it is in the third person (*your brother*).
8. **How do I change the verb and the pronoun?** For the verb, I can check the list of changes: the verb in direct speech is *does live* and this is present simple, and the table says that the present simple changes to past simple, so the form must be *lived* (I should remember not to use the auxiliary verb *do* because it is a reported question, not a direct question).
9. **And the pronoun?** I must adapt it to my point of view because I am the person speaking. Mr Smith said to me: *your bother*, so this is *my brother*.
10. **Is that all?** Yes, that's all. Now I can write the reported sentence: *Mr Smith asked me where...*, but I must think of the correct order: *where lived my brother* or *where my brother lived?* The correct order is: S+V, as in a statement, so it is: *...where my brother lived*.
11. **Therefore, which is the correct sentence?** The correct sentence is: *Mr Smith asked me where my brother lived*.

## 2. Job recruitment

Looking for a job may be a long, frustrating process, but once we are lucky enough to get one, we may find ourselves in the opposite situation. We may need to find employees for our company and initiate what is called a job recruitment process. Apparently, it should be easy to find employees because there are so many people looking for a job, but it is not so easy to find the right employees, so we should be very careful in the planning of our recruitment process to make sure we choose the right applicants.

The reading text in this section briefly describes the steps in the recruitment process and explains the different methods that we can use to recruit employees for our company.

### 2.1 The recruitment process

In the course of your working life, you may find yourself in the position of having to find employees for your company. You may need to do so if you have your own business, or if you work in the Human Resources Department of a big company, for example. Finding employees may seem a very easy task if we consider that there are so many people looking for a job, but it is actually very hard to find the appropriate person to fill in a post. Like looking for a job, finding employees can sometimes be long process full of doubts and obstacles.

In order to find the right people for a post, companies usually design what is called a 'recruitment process'. We could describe the recruitment process as the strategy to deal effectively with employment recruitment.

The whole process is composed of several stages:

- Identifying a vacancy
- Drawing up job and person specification
- Advertising
- Managing candidates' responses and documentation
- Selecting candidates
- Arranging interviews
- Making a job offer
- Appointing action

The process is designed specifically for each job. Depending on the type of position that we need to cover, we may need to apply all or some of these stages.

We could distinguish several methods of recruitment:

- **Internal recruitment:** the existing employees are given the opportunity of applying for a vacancy. The greatest advantage of this type of recruitment is that it does not only reward employees, but it also retains the organization's investment in that employee. At the same time, it reduces the amount of time necessary to train the person for the new position as well as the costs of recruitment.
- **Employee referrals:** the current employees are required to suggest a person for the vacancy because employees mostly recommend people who would be a good match for the position and for the company. The main advantage of this type of recruitment is that the applicants are usually familiar with the work of the organization.
- **Print advertisements:** the job vacancy is posted in a newspaper or professional journal. The advantage of this method is that it attracts a large number of applicants from very different backgrounds so there is a great variety of people to choose from. The main disadvantage is that the employer must go through all the stages of the recruitment process, so it can take a long time to find the right person. With this method there's also a greater possibility of making mistakes in the selection.
- **Internet recruitment:** the job is posted on the company's own website or on general job websites. This method attracts even more applicants than the print advertisements because the Internet is the most popular means of looking for a job and moreover it is available 24 hours a day and seven days a week. On the other hand, this method makes the whole process even longer because the employer must select the applicants very carefully and go through a great number of job interviews.
- **Recruitment agencies:** the employer sends the job specifications to a recruitment agency, which is specialised in finding candidates for a job. This might be a good option for non-qualified and seasonal jobs. The agency just puts the candidate and the employer in contact, and then the recruitment process must continue. The main advantage of this method is that the applicants have been pre-selected by the agency and they are sure to fit in the post.

#### Language notes

- **May/can (possibility):** in the text, these modal verbs are frequently used to express possibility. Notice some examples: *you may find yourself* (Cat. és possible que et trobis), *you may need to do so* (Cat. és possible que hakis de fer això); *finding employees may seem a very easy task* (Cat. trobar empleats pot semblar una tasca molt fàcil); *finding employees can sometimes be long process* (Cat. trobar empleats pot ser de vegades un procés llarg).
- **Job/post/position** (Cat. feina, lloc de treball): in the text, these three terms are used indistinctly, as they all have the same meaning.



- **Response/answer** (Cat. resposta): these two nouns are translated in the same way, but there is a difference in meaning. We give a *response* to a remark; for example: *good morning*, the response is *good morning*. We give an *answer* to a question; for example: *what's your job?*, the answer is: *I'm an administrative assistant*. The corresponding verbs are *to respond* and *to answer*.

## 2.2 Glossary of terms: job recruitment

- *candidate*: candidat/a
- *employee referral*: referències internes, referències dels empleats
- *Human Resources Department*: Departament de Recursos Humans
- *internal recruitment*: promoció interna
- *job specification*: descripció del lloc de treball
- *personnel*: personal d'una empresa, conjunt de treballadors
- *recruitment agency*: agència de col·locació, empresa de treball temporal
- *recruitment process*: procés de selecció de personal
- *requirement*: requeriment, obligació
- *seasonal job*: treball de temporada
- *staff*: personal d'una empresa, conjunt de treballadors
- *to fill in*: omplir, cobrir una vacant
- *to fit in*: encaixar, anar bé
- *to recruit*: contractar, seleccionar
- *to sign a contract*: signar un contracte
- *vacancy*: vacant, lloc de treball
- *work conditions*: condicions laborals
- *work contract*: contracte laboral

See glossary in the section 'Looking for a job' of this unit for more words related to the topic.

## 2.2.1 Communication: looking for a job

Looking for a job is a very important process in a person's life. We live in a highly competitive world with many people looking for a few jobs, so the process can be long and discouraging sometimes. For this reason, it is necessary to plan the job searching process carefully. This process usually includes the following elements:

- Curriculum vitae
- Cover letter
- Job interview

### Writing a CV

#### Curriculum vitae vs. résumé

The term *curriculum vitae* (or CV) is mostly used in BrE whereas AmE prefers the term *résumé* (spelt with the two graphical accents).

We have probably learned that we must not judge people on first impressions, but that we must know them to appreciate their good qualities. However, when an employer looks at a curriculum 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 a CV should be carefully elaborated. It must convince the employer that you might become an 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.

To attract the employer's attention, however, 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 of CVs, but the basic elements are:

- **Contact information:** your name and surnames should be prominent (usually centered and in bold type). Then add your telephone number, your address and your e-mail address.
- **Summary:** probably the most important section in a CV. You must express in a few sentences your good qualities, your skills and your achievements for the job you are applying for. Here is where the employer will look first of all and you need to impress him/her discreetly so he/she wants to read more details about you.
- **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 special skills and relevant achievements for the job.

See the annex called "CV and cover letter" for an example of CV and its corresponding cover letter.

- **Education:** you must list the school/s you attended and the degree you had in each one.
- **References:** you should simply write 'Available upon request', which means that you will give the information when necessary. Employers do not look for references until the end of the interview, so it is not necessary to include them in your CV.

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 later on in the job seeking process, usually during the interview.
- **Irrelevant information:** you should only include the information which is relevant for the job and that which can benefit your interests. For example, do not include an average mark in a course if it is not a good one. Do not specify hobbies which have nothing to do with the job. They might probably tell about your character, but they will waste the reader's time.

Now, what information can you include in your CV if you have little or no work experience? In this case, you can list your school and social activities and link them to the job you are applying for.

A CV should always go together with a cover letter. A cover letter is one in which you explain why you are the ideal candidate for the job. It has no special format, but it follows the standards applied to all the other formal letters.

### Writing a cover letter

In a cover letter, we should include the most relevant aspects of our experience and education for the post that we are applying to. To do that, we must select the aspects from the CV that can contribute to raise the company's interest in your application.

Some useful expressions which we can use in a cover letter are:

- I am writing to you in response to your advertisement for the post of...
- As you can see from my enclosed CV, my experience and qualifications match this position's requirements.

- I would like to point out... .
- I look forward to an opportunity to speak with you in person (o personally)

### 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 2.1.** Academic degrees

Spanish school system	British 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)

### The job interview

If the employer has considered your CV, you will be called for the job interview. This is the time when you meet the employer so he/she can find out more things about you. 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 which are frequently asked 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 in the business world, 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. Also, 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. Also, 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.

### 2.2.2 Grammar reference: the conditional sentences

The conditional sentences are those which include a condition and the expected result if the condition becomes true. Here is a typical example of conditional sentence: *If you call me tonight, I will explain everything.*

The conditional sentences are composed of:

- 1) A subordinate clause (the condition): usually introduced by *if* (Cat. Si)
- 2) A main clause (the result)

There are different types of conditional sentences. From a syntactical point of view, they differ in the verb tenses used in each clause. These types are generally called:

- Conditional type 0 (or: zero conditional)
- Conditional type 1 (or: first conditional)
- Conditional type 2 (or: second conditional)
- Conditional type 3 (or: third conditional)

#### Conditional sentences: type 0

The possible structures of the conditional sentences of type 0 are:

A) IF + SUBJECT + PRESENT SIMPLE , SUBJECT + PRESENT SIMPLE

- *If I don't get enough sleep, I feel tired in the evening.* (Cat. Si no dormo prou, al vespre estic cansat.)

#### B) SUBJECT + PRESENT SIMPLE ... IF + SUBJECT + PRESENT SIMPLE

- *I feel tired in the evening if I don't get enough sleep.* (Cat. Al vespre estic cansat si no dormo prou.)

We can change the order of the subordinate clause (condition) and the main clause (result) without any difference in meaning, but we must write a comma between both clauses if the subordinate clause comes first (as in structure A).

The conditional structure of type 0 is used to say that the result always happens in the same way if the condition becomes true.

Other examples of conditional sentences of type 0:

- If you *practise* a lot, you certainly *learn* how to speak. (Cat. Si practiques molt, realment aprens a parlar.)
- If you *drop* a stone, it *falls* to the ground. (Cat. si deixes anar una pedra, aquesta cau a terra.)
- If it *rains*, the garden *gets* wet. (Cat, Si plou, el jardí es mulla.)
- If a plant *is not watered*, it *dies*. (Cat. si una planta no es rega, es mor.)

#### Conditional sentences: type 1

The structures of the first conditional sentences are the following:

A) IF + SUBJECT + PRESENT SIMPLE , SUBJECT + WILL/MAY/CAN/SHOULD + BASE FORM

- *If it rains tonight, I will stay at home.* (Cat. Si plou aquesta nit, em quedaré a casa.)

B) SUBJECT + WILL/MAY/CAN/SHOULD + BASE FORM... IF + SUBJECT + PRESENT SIMPLE

- *I will stay at home if it rains tonight.* (Cat. Em quedaré a casa si plou aquesta nit.)

These conditional sentences refer to future results if the condition becomes true.

In first conditional sentences, we often use the **imperative form** instead of a modal verb in the main clause. For example:

- If you need any help, please *call* me. (Cat. Si necessites ajuda, si us plau *truca*'m.)
- *Don't forget* to turn off the lights if you leave the room. (Cat. No oblidis apagar els llums si surts de l'habitació.)
- If you don't understand a word, *look it up* in the dictionary. (Cat. Si no entens alguna paraula, consulta el diccionari.)

We use the first conditional sentences when we say that the result will happen only if the condition becomes true. We speak about real conditions, that is, the speaker sees the condition as possible.

Examples of first conditional sentences:

- If you *don't wait* a little longer, you *won't meet* Mr Turner. (Cat. Si no t'esperes una mica més, no coneixeràs el Sr Turner.)
- *Raise* your hand if you *want* to ask a question. (Cat. Aixeca la mà si vols fer una pregunta.)
- If we *start* now, we *may arrive* in the evening. (Cat. Si ens posem en marxa ara, podem arribar al vespre.)
- They *should find* the report if they *look into* that drawer. (Cat. Haurien de trobar l'informe si miren en aquell calaix.)
- *Can* you *keep* the secret if I *tell* you something? (Cat. Sabràs mantenir el secret si t'explico una cosa?)

## Conditional sentences: type 2

The structures of the second conditional sentences are:

A) IF + SUBJECT + PAST SIMPLE , SUBJECT + WOULD/COULD/MIGHT + BASE FORM

- *If it rained* tonight, *I would stay* at home. (Cat. Si plagués aquesta nit, em quedaria a casa.)

B) SUBJECT + WOULD/COULD/MIGHT + BASE FORM... IF + SUBJECT + PAST SIMPLE

- *I would stay* at home *if it rained* tonight. (Cat. em quedaria a casa si plagués aquesta nit.)



These conditional sentences refer to future results if the condition becomes true.

In the second conditional sentences, the past tense of the verb *be* is *were* in all persons (*If he were here ...*). The form *was* is not generally accepted, except in the informal spoken language, where it is possible to say: *If he was here ....*

We use the second conditional sentences to speak about hypothetical or impossible conditions. The speaker thinks the condition is not probable that happens or it is impossible.

Examples of second conditional sentences:

- If I *had* more time, I *would go out* more. (Cat. Si tingués més temps, sortiria més.)
- If I *were* the director of this company, I *would raise* the workers' salaries. (Cat. Si jo fos el director d'aquesta empresa, pujaria 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.)
- If you *didn't get up* earlier, you *couldn't* arrive on time. (Cat. Si no et llevessis més d'hora, no podries arribar a temps.)
- If we *had* more money, we *might invest* in new machinery. (Cat. Si tinguéssim més diners, podríem invertir en maquinària nova.)
- If I *could be* like you, I *would be* much happier. (Cat. Si jo pogués ser com tu, seria molt més feliç.)

### Conditional sentences: type 3

The structures of the third conditional sentences are the following:

A) IF + SUBJECT + PAST PERFECT , SUBJECT + WOULD HAVE + PAST PARTICIPLE

- *If it had rained last night, I would have stayed at home.* (Cat. Si hagués plogut ahir a la nit, m'hagués quedat a casa.)

B) SUBJECT + WOULD HAVE + PAST PARTICIPLE... IF + SUBJECT + PAST PERFECT

- *I would have stayed at home if it had rained last night.* (Cat. M'hagués quedat a casa si hagués plogut ahir a la nit.)

Unlike the other types of conditional sentences, the third conditional sentences only refer to the past.

The third conditional is used to speak about something that we did not do in the past because the condition did not become true.

Examples of third conditional sentences:

- If I *hadn't come* earlier, I *wouldn't have met* John. (Cat. Si no hagués vingut abans, no m'hauria trobat amb John.)
- If you *had been* here before, you *would have known*. (Cat. Si haguéssis estat aquí abans, ho hauries sabut.)
- If he *had had* time, *would he have finished* the report. (Cat. Si hagués tingut temps, hauria acabat l'informe.)

### 3. Working abroad

You may sometimes feel the need to leave everything behind and start a new life in another country. You may want to do that for personal or for economical reasons. Sometimes there is even no choice. The high unemployment rates in Spain impel many people to look for job opportunities in other countries. Looking for a job in another country is not easy. Apart from the personal implications, the legal procedures are long and complex and they require a certain preparation.

The text in this section gives some ideas in case you decide to take the important step of looking for a job and moving out to another country.

#### 3.1 Reading: working abroad

In a changing world like the present one, we do not know what the future holds in store for us. Our society is characterised by an economic model that implies a fierce competition to get the few jobs available. If you are lucky enough to have a job, however, you will notice that the working conditions are getting worse and worse, with lower salaries and long working hours, and it may also happen that you are overqualified for the job that you are doing, what might generate a deep feeling of frustration. For many qualified people, especially for young people or people with no family ties, the only way out of this situation might be to go and work in another country, a process usually called 'brain drain'.

People look for jobs in another country because they cannot find a job in their own country or simply because they want to live a new experience. If you are one of these people and you have thought of going out, you will need to know where you can look for job opportunities in other countries and how to apply for a job.

If you have any doubts, think that working abroad can be very helpful to promote yourself in your career and expand your horizons. Companies favour applicants who have initiative and show motivation and self-reliance. Apart from this, working with people from other countries and different cultural backgrounds will give you new points of view and a new perspective.

Here is some advice in case you decide to take the step.

Think about the climate and the culture of the countries where you would like to live and work and decide if you would feel comfortable there. You must consider the cultural differences at work and see what type of jobs are available in those countries.

In order to find job opportunities in other countries, it is necessary to do a lot of research. You can ask your friends, relatives and workmates to help you by giving

you ideas. There are organizations who work online and who help candidates to find jobs in other countries and arrange such needs as accommodation, visas, work permits and health insurances. You can also look for companies who offer internships and contact them directly. You can also consider the possibility of volunteering in a developing country so you can gain valuable skills and a lot of experience.

Finding a job and going through all the necessary procedures can take months, so you must be well-organized and very patient. Think about what you hope to learn from your experience. You should find out as much as you can about the country that you are expecting to visit. Nowadays, the internet makes research extremely easy. Websites can give you a lot of cultural information about other countries and some websites even have a specific section for all those who intend to find a job abroad. These websites generally include information about the legal requirements to work in the country. You should also do some research on the company before choosing a job to prevent any disagreeable surprises later on.

Whatever the country you decide to move in, you will most probably need to have a good knowledge of English because this is the international language for business. Knowing English will be even more important than a knowledge of the local language. However, it is also highly recommended to have a certain level of the native language of the country, but this will depend on the type of job, the employer and the country. However, even an elementary knowledge will show your interest in their culture and will help you get on with people.

Coming back home after a long staying in another country might be more difficult than you think. You may experience a culture shock. People usually change when they work abroad and things will change at home, too, luckily for the best. However, it can take time to adapt back to your own environment.

#### Language notes

- **To hold in store:** this expression has no literal translation into Catalan or Spanish. The approximate meaning is that of Cat. *tenir reservat* and Sp. *deparar, aguardar*. The sentence: *we do not know what the future holds in store for us* could be translated as Cat. *no sabem què ens espera en el futur* and Sp. *no sabemos qué nos depara el futuro*.
- **Worse and worse:** we use this expression, in which we repeat a comparative form, to indicate an increase in the quality described by the comparative adjective. For example: *the working conditions are getting worse and worse* (Cat. *les condicions de treball són cada vegada pitjors*; Sp. *las condiciones de trabajo se están deteriorando más y más*).
- **Permit/permission** (Cat. *permís*): these words have similar meanings but they are not interchangeable. A *permit* is a countable noun that refers to a document that allows you to carry out an action (Cat. *permís, llicència, autorització per escrit*), for example *a work permit* (Cat. *un permís de treball*); *permission* is an uncountable noun which has a more general sense, for example, *to give permission* (Cat. *donar permís*).
- **To intend** (Cat. *tenir la intenció*): this word is a false friend. It does not mean Cat. and Sp. *intentar* (this would be *try* in English), but Cat. *tenir la intenció* and Sp. *tener la intención, pretender*.
- **-ing form as subject:** sometimes, a verb takes the function of the subject in the sentence. When this happens, the verb must go in the -ing form. There are a few examples of this in the text: *working with people from other countries will give you new points of view* (Cat. *treballar amb gent d'altres països et donarà nous punts de vista*), *finding a job can take months* (Cat.

trobar feina pot suposar mesos). Notice that in Catalan (and Spanish) we always use the infinitive when the verb is the subject.

- **Phrasal verb + preposition:** *get on with* (Cat. mantenir bones relacions amb); the opposite meaning is: *not get on with* (Cat. mantenir males relacions amb). Another way of expressing this idea is with the verb *to get along with*.

### 3.2 Glossary of terms: working abroad

- *abroad*: a l'estranger, a un altre país
- *accomodation*: allotjament
- *brain drain*: fuga de cervells
- *career*: carrera (acadèmica, laboral)
- *cultural background*: substracte cultural, cultura
- *culture shock*: xoc cultural, impacte cultural
- *developed country*: país desenvolupat
- *developing country*: país en vies de desenvolupament
- *environment*: entorn
- *health insurance*: assegurança mèdica
- *intern*: treballador/a en pràctiques
- *internship*: pràctiques en una empresa
- *job opportunity*: oportunitat de feina
- *legal requirement*: requisit legal
- *passport*: passaport
- *point of view*: punt de vista
- *procedure*: tràmit
- *salary*: sou, salari
- *the Third World*: el Tercer Món
- *to adapt to*: adaptar-se a
- *to be overqualified*: estar sobrequalificat
- *to be underqualified*: no estar prou qualificat
- *to go abroad*: marxar a l'estranger
- *to live abroad*: viure a l'estranger

- *to meet the requirements*: complir els requisits, tenir els requisits
- *to move in*: fer la mudança, traslladar-se a viure a (un país, una casa)
- *to move out*: anar-se'n, deixar de viure a (un país, una casa)
- *to take the step*: fer el pas
- *to volunteer*: fer de voluntari, fer un treball no remunerat
- *to work abroad*: treballar a l'estranger
- *valid*: valid/vàlida, vigent
- *visa*: visat
- *volunteer*: voluntari/-ària
- *work permit*: permís de treball
- *working hours*: horari laboral, hores de feina

### 3.2.1 Communication: translations and summaries

In the course of your working life, you will probably need to translate a lot of from English into your own language. You may need to translate a manual, a business letter, or a set of instructions, for example. You will do so either for yourself or for the benefit of others. In the latter case, it is very important to produce an accurate translation, so it is necessary to learn the techniques to translate a text.

As a learner of English, a translation will be very useful to become aware of the differences between English and your own language and avoid mistakes in the expression.

In a working environment, summaries are not as common activities as translations, but you may sometimes need to summarize a text, for example, when you look for information to make a presentation, or write a report. In these cases, you do not copy the original text, but summarize it in your own words to transmit only the basic information.

Summarizing a text is especially useful to develop your reading skills because in a summary you must only retain the important information. With good summarizing skills, you will be able to read and understand an English text very quickly.

#### Translating a text

When we learn a foreign language, we translate from our mother tongue into the target language all the time. This is called *direct translation*.

For example, when we read an English text, we mentally translate the text into our own language. When we write, we think what we need to say in our language and then we write it down in English. When we speak, we think in our mother tongue and then we translate our thoughts into the foreign language. This process is normal when we study English outside an English speaking context, but it can generate many mistakes because there are a lot of syntactical and lexical differences between the two languages. In fact, learning a foreign language means learning to 'think' in another language.

Apart from this personal use, we will probably need to make translations at work, especially if we are in frequent contact with other countries. In the business world, most correspondence, professional documents and manuals are in English, so we should learn how to translate a written text as accurately as possible.

The most important thing to make a good translation is to have a good knowledge of the grammatical rules of both your language and of the foreign language. You should remember that we do not only have to translate the words, but also the syntactical structures.

Spanish and Catalan belong to different linguistic families from English (Catalan and Spanish are Romanic languages and English is a Germanic language). This

WordReference is a very good online dictionary. See the 'Interesting links' section for a link to the dictionary.

means that the syntactical structures are often very different. For example, let's consider the English sentence: *I'm 25 years old*. If we translate only the words, the result is: Cat. *Jo sóc 25 anys vell* or Sp. *Soy 25 años viejo*, what makes little sense. We must also translate the syntactical structure, and say: Cat. *Jo tinc 25 anys* or Sp. *Tengo 25 años*.

### Using a dictionary

To find the meaning of words, the most important tool is, of course, a good bilingual dictionary. You may want to use a *pocket* dictionary for the translation of individual words or small texts, but you will need a bigger dictionary for more 'professional' translations. However, the best option is an online dictionary. In the web, you can find thousands of dictionaries: you may choose general language dictionaries or specialized dictionaries of your field of interest.

Finding the right meaning of a word, however, is not always a simple task because words may have a lot of different meanings and we must know which one is correct in a specific context. To illustrate this, let's study a dictionary entry for the word *start* and follow the process for finding the correct meaning:

FIGURA 3.1. Dictionary entry

Principal Translations		
English		Spanish
<b>start</b> <i>vi</i>	(begin)  We're waiting for the movie to start. Estamos esperando que empiece la película. Estamos esperando que comience la película.	empezar ⇒ <i>vtr</i> comenzar ⇒ <i>vtr</i>
<b>start doing [sth]</b> <i>vi</i>	(begin doing)  When she stroked the cat, she started sneezing.	empezar a <i>vtr + prep</i> comenzar a <i>vtr + prep</i>
 <b>start [sth]</b> <i>vtr</i>	(begin)  The chairman started the meeting. El presidente empezó con la reunión. El presidente comenzó con la reunión. El presidente inició la reunión.	empezar ⇒ <i>vtr</i> comenzar ⇒ <i>vtr</i> iniciar ⇒ <i>vtr</i>
<b>start [sth]</b> <i>vtr</i>	(machine)  Start the car. It's time we left. Enciende el automóvil. Es hora de irnos. Pon en marcha el automóvil. Es hora de irnos.	encender ⇒ <i>vtr</i> poner en marcha <i>loc verb</i>
<b>start</b> <i>n</i>	(beginning)  Get ready for the start of the race. Prepárate para el comienzo de la carrera. Prepárate para la largada de la carrera.	comienzo <i>nm</i> (AR, UR) largada <i>nf</i>

Source: [www.wordreference.com](http://www.wordreference.com)

Let's imagine that we need to translate the English sentence *I couldn't start the car* into Spanish. To find the correct translation, we should follow these steps:

1. Is the word *start* a noun? a verb? an adjective? The context will give you the answer. From its position in the sentence (after the modal verb *couldn't*),



the word can only be a verb, which has a direct object (*the car*).

2. Next, look at the abbreviations: *vi* (intransitive verb), *vtr* (transitive verb), *n*(noun). As *start* has a direct object, it is a transitive verb. Therefore, we must look at the translations under the abbreviation *vtr*.
3. There are different translations of *start* as a transitive verb, so which is the correct one? To find out, look at the words in brackets next to the entry: these words either explain the context in which the word appear or they give a synonym. The words say: (*begin*) and (*machine*).
4. The direct object is *a car*, so we look at the Spanish translation when the words refers to a machine. It says: *encender, poner en marcha*.
5. Now we already know the meaning of *start*, so we can translate the sentence: Sp. *No pude poner el coche en marcha*. Once we know the meaning, we can choose the most appropriate translation for that idea. For example, we can also say: Sp. *No pude arrancar el coche*.

See the 'Interesting links' section for a link to the Google Translator.

### Using an automatic translator

In the past few years, automatic translators have become very useful tools for translating texts. Automatic translators are more and more accurate everyday, but they still generate many mistakes, especially because sometimes the programme does not distinguish the context with enough precision. Many mistakes are also produced because the programme cannot recognize a word as a result of misspellings or inappropriate punctuation.

An automatic translator is very useful at work when you need to understand a text, but if you must give the translation to someone else, it is necessary to go through a process of revision and correction to identify all the mistakes.

If you are working on a translation to learn English, then you should not use an automatic translator. There is no point in letting a programme do all the work for you. In this case, the best thing is to translate all the sentences that you can understand and use a dictionary only to look up the unknown words. Remember that you must not translate the words literally: sometimes you may also need to change the syntactical structure.

### **Reversed translations**

Sometimes, we may need to translate a text from our mother tongue into English, especially when we must write a text in English. This is called 'reversed translation'.

The problem of reversed translations is that the text in English is usually full of mistakes, especially if we use an automatic translator. When we write a text in our own language, we tend to use long, complex sentences and a vocabulary with many expressions that do not have equivalent forms in English. We also make frequent spelling mistakes (even in our own language!). All this generates a text full of bad translations, so the text should be corrected very carefully before sending it to other people.

If you must write a text as part of your learning process, you should not use an automatic translator. The objective of writing is that you gradually learn the appropriate words and syntactical structures of another language to express your ideas.

### **Summarizing a text**

The objective of a summary is to explain the main ideas of a text in a few sentences. Summaries are very useful to practise the reading and listening skills because they help to concentrate our attention in the most important information. When we read or listen to a text, we should be able to summarize the contents.

When writing a summary, remember the following:

- Include only the basic information.
- Do not include secondary information, as for example, details, sentences to reinforce the main point, examples to illustrate the ideas, etc.
- Do not express your own opinion, or add information that is not in the text.

Here are some tips to help you write a good summary:

- 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.
- Without looking at the text again, write a few sentences about the text from memory. Try to use your own words.
- 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.
- Check your summary to locate lexical or syntactical mistakes. Correct them, if necessary.

Here is an example of 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 uses of cloning is to 'grow' replacement organs in human clones for people who are ill. 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 Johansson 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 new film 'The Island', which deals with the controversial subject of cloning people, has not been received well in the USA. Although the acting and effects are very good, some audiences may have been disappointed by the moral message of the film.

### **3.2.2 Grammar reference: the comparative and the relative sentences**

Two frequently-used types of sentences are the comparative sentences and the relative sentences. As the name clearly indicates, the former is used to compare two or more things. When this happens, the adjective or the adverb sometimes takes a specific form, which is called the comparative form.

On the other hand, the relative sentences are complex sentences composed of a main clause and a subordinate relative clause. The relative clause expresses some characteristic or adds information about a noun in the main clause. It functions very much like an adjective.

#### **The comparative sentences**

When we need to compare two or more things, we must use the comparative forms of the adjectives or the adverbs. We can distinguish between:

- **Comparative forms (superiority or equality):** they are used to compare one thing to another.
- **Superlative forms:** they are used to compare one to two or more things.

### Comparative of inferiority

There is also a comparative form of inferiority, but it is little used. We normally express the difference with a comparative of superiority.

We express inferiority with:

- LESS: *intelligent* > *less intelligent* (comparative)
- LEAST: *intelligent* > *the least intelligent* (superlative)

There are several rules for the formation of comparatives and superlatives.

### Comparative and superlative adjectives (superiority):

The table shows the rules to form comparative and superlative adjectives:

TAULA 3.1. Comparative and superlative adjectives

Type of word	Comparative form	Superlative form	Example
One-syllable words	-ER	-EST	sad > sadder, the saddest
Two-syllable words ending in -y, -le and -er	-ER	-EST	happy > happier, the happiest noble > nobler, the noblest clever > cleverer, the cleverest
Words of more than 2 syllables	MORE	MOST	interesting > more interesting, the most interesting
Past participles	MORE	MOST	broken > more broken, the most broken
Irregular forms	—	—	good > better, the best bad > worse, the worst

### Comparative and superlative adverbs (superiority):

Here are the rules for the formation of comparative and superlative adverbs.

TAULA 3.2. Comparative and superlative adverbs

Type of word	Comparative form	Superlative form	Example
Adverbs ending in -ly	MORE	MOST	slowly > more slowly, the most slowly
Adverbs not ending in -ly	-ER	-EST	hard > harder, the hardest late > later, the latest
Irregular forms	—	—	well > better, the best badly > worse, the worst far > farther, the farthest little > less, the least

**Notes:**

- In a comparative sentence, we must use the conjunction *than* (Cat. *que*) to link the two terms of the comparison. Do not confuse *than* with *that*. For example: *John is older **than** his brother.*
- The superlative adjectives and adverbs must have the article *the*. For example: *I think she's **the** richest person I've ever known.*
- We can use the quantifiers *much* (Cat. *molt*) and *a little* (Cat. *una mica*) before a comparative form: ***much** bigger, **a little** more slowly*, etc.

**Examples of comparative sentences:**

- *Who came earlier: John or his son?* (Cat. *Qui va arribar abans: John o el seu fill?*).
- *I think John came earlier than his son.* (Cat. *Crec que John va arribar abans que el seu fill.*)
- *I've found today's meeting more interesting than yesterday's.* (Cat. *He trobat la reunió d'avui més interessant que la d'ahir.*)
- *I think we must work much harder.* (Cat. *Crec que hem de treballar molt més*)
- *This programme is a little better than the other one.* (Cat. *Aquest programa és una mica millor que l'altre*)
- *I didn't go to that restaurant because it was more expensive.* (Cat. *No vaig anar a aquell restaurant perquè era més car*)
- *You should take your job more seriously.* (Cat. *T'hauries de prendre la feina més seriosament.*)
- *Could you call back later please?* (Cat. *Podria trucar més tard si us plau?*)

**Examples of superlative sentences:**

- *That's the most stupid thing I've ever heard.* (Cat. *És la cosa més estúpida que he sentit mai.*)
- *You are the best, Maria!* (Cat. *Ets la millor, Maria!*)
- *Could you tell me the quickest way to the Hilton please?* (Cat. *Em podria indicar el camí més ràpid per anar al Hilton si us plau?*)
- *Claire is the most intelligent person I've ever met.* (Cat. *Claire és la persona més intel·ligent que he conegut mai.*)
- *I had the worst experience in my life.* (Cat. *Vaig tenir la pitjor experiència de la meva vida.*)

- *I'd like to escape to the farthest country in the world.* (Cat. M'agradaria escapar-me al país més llunyà del món.)
- *The meeting lasted three minutes, the shortest in my life!* (Cat. la reunió va durar tres minuts, la més curta de la meva vida!)
- *After his retirement, Mr Green is the happiest man on earth.* (Cat. Després de la seva jubilació, el Sr Green és l'home més feliç de la terra.)

Some expressions are commonly associated with superlative sentences. For example:

- ... *in my life* (Cat. ...de la meva vida)
- ... *in town* (Cat. ...de la ciutat)
- ... *on earth* (Cat. ...de la terra)
- ... *in the world* (Cat. ...del món)
- ... *(that) I've ever seen* (Cat. ...que he vist mai)
- ... *(that) I've ever heard* (Cat. ...que he sentit mai)
- ... *(that) I've ever met* (Cat. ...que he conegut mai)
- ... *(that) I've ever had* (Cat. ...que he tingut mai)
- ... *(that) I've ever been to* (Cat. ...on he estat mai)

*That* is often omitted in the spoken language.

### **Comparative adjectives and adverbs (equality):**

All the adjectives and adverbs express equality like this:

- Affirmative sentences: AS...AS: *big* > *as big as*, *early* > *as early as*, *good* > *as good as*
- Negative sentences: NOT SO...AS: *intelligent* > *not so intelligent as*, *well* > *not so well as*, *happy* > *not so happy as*

Examples of **comparative sentences of equality**:

- *Tell me as clearly as possible.* (Cat. Explica-m'ho tan clarament com sigui possible.)
- *I see no difference: Claire is as good as Jenny.* (Cat. No hi veig cap diferència: Claire és tan bona com Jenny / ...Claire val tant com Jenny.)
- *I must walk as far as you.* (Cat. Haig de caminar tan lluny com tu.)
- *You must work as hard as you can.* (Cat. Has de treballar tant com puguis.)

- *The test was not so difficult as I thought.* (Cat. El test no va ser tan difícil com em pensava.)
- *He didn't speak so much as it was expected.* (Cat. No va parlar tant com s'esperava.)
- *English is not so difficult as it seems.* (Cat. L'anglès no és tan difícil com sembla.)
- *Please call me back as soon as possible.* (Cat. Si us plau, truca'm tan aviat com puguis.)

### The relative sentences

A relative sentence is composed of:

- A main clause
- A relative clause

Here is an example of relative sentence:

- *The interview is the moment when the company speaks with the applicants.*

In this sentence, the main clause is: *The interview is the moment...* and the relative clause is: *...when the company speaks with the applicants.*

Here are the characteristics of the relative sentences:

- The objective of a relative clause is to give information about a noun, which is called *the antecedent*. In the example above, the antecedent is *the moment*.
- The relative clause is introduced by the *relative pronoun*. In our example, the relative pronoun is *when*. The use of the relative pronouns depends on the antecedent and also on their function within the relative clause.
- Relative sentences are often used to define concepts. In the example, the sentence defines the term *interview*.
- There are two types of relative clauses: *defining relative clauses* and *non-defining relative clauses*.

### The relative pronouns:

The relative pronouns are the same as the interrogative pronouns, except *that*.

The table shows the English relative pronouns and their use.

TAULA 3.3. The relative pronouns

The relative pronoun is ...	... if the antecedent is ...
who	a person (subject)
whose	a person (possessive) a thing (possessive)
whom	a person (complement)
which	a thing
that	person (subject) a thing (subject)
where	a place adverbial
when	a time adverbial
why	the word <i>reason</i>

**Notes:**

- *That* is used with people and things as an alternative to *who* and *which*.
- The possessive *whose* is used both for people and things.
- *Whom* is used for people, but only when it makes the function of complement in the relative clause. *Whom* is mostly used in formal written texts. In informal texts and in speech, the most common form is *who*.

**The defining relative clauses:**

The defining relative clauses are used to define or give important information about a noun (the antecedent). Without the relative clause, the idea is incomplete and it makes no sense.

Examples:

- Mr Smith is the man *who / that will help you in your new job*. (Cat. Mr Smith és l'home que t'ajudarà a la teva nova feina.)
- That's the park *where I met my wife twenty years ago*. (Cat. Aquest és el parc on vaig conèixer la meva dona fa vint anys.)
- The things *which / that you have bought are on the table*. (Cat. Les coses que has comprat estan sobre la taula.)
- Here is the woman *who/that* knows so much about computers. (Cat. Aquí està la dona *que* sap tant d'ordinadors.)
- Is that the boy *whose* sister died in an accident? (Cat: És aquest el noi la germana *del qual* va morir en un accident?)
- The people *whom* we met in the meeting were all Australian. (Cat. Les persones *que* vam conèixer a la reunió eren totes australianes.)



- The reason *why* they have come is unknown. (Cat. La raó *per la qual* han vingut és desconeguda.)
- He is looking for a job *which /that* suits his interests. (Cat. Està buscant una feina *que* s'avingui amb els seus interessos.)

### The non-defining relative clauses:

This type of relative clause does not define or give important information. It simply adds some extra information about the antecedent. Non-defining relative clauses are always written between commas (sometimes in brackets). We can eliminate the relative clause without affecting the meaning of the sentence.

Examples:

- Mr Smith, *who has a lot of experience*, will help you in your new job. (Cat: Mr Smith, *que té molta experiència*, t'ajudarà en la teva nova feina.)
- This park, *where I met my wife twenty years ago*, is one of the smallest in the town. (Cat: Aquest parc, *on vaig conèixer la meva dona fa vint anys*, és un dels més petits de la ciutat.)
- The things, *which I bought yesterday*, are on the table. (Cat. Les coses *que* vaig comprar ahir són a la taula.)
- This hotel, *where Madonna stays when she's in the city*, is the most expensive I know. (Cat. Aquest hotel, *on s'hi allotja Madonna quan ve a la ciutat*, és el més car que conec.)
- My company, *which repairs computers*, is called HappyComputers Ltd. (Cat. La meva empresa, *que* repara ordinadors, es diu HappyComputers Ltd.)
- Sabrina, *whom I met in a wedding*, is now my wife. (Cat. Sabrina, *a qui* vaig conèixer a un casament, és ara la meva dona.)
- In 1964, *when I was born*, my parents moved to this house. (Cat. L'any 1964, *que és quan* jo vaig néixer, els meus pares es van traslladar a aquesta casa.)

In non-defining relative clauses, the relative pronouns *that* and *why* are not used.

### **Omission of the relative pronoun**

In the spoken language, it is possible to express a relative sentence without the relative pronoun, but only when the relative pronoun is **not** the subject of the relative clause. Compare these two sentences:

- The person (whom) I met last night was Jackson (Cat. La persona a qui vaig conèixer anit era en Jackson): you can say the sentence without *whom* because the pronoun is the indirect object of the relative clause, and not the subject.
- The person who came to the party last night was Jackson (Cat. La persona que va venir a la festa d'anit era en Jackson): you cannot eliminate *who* because it is the subject of the relative clause.