

1.30

**Presenter:** 1.30. Lesson 1.9. Grammar for speaking: Showing surprise with *think* and *realize*

**Grammar box 2. Listen to each statement and comment.**

Voice A: The aquifers are thousands of years old.  
Voice B: I thought they were *millions* of years old.

Voice A: The reservoir provides half of all the water for irrigation.  
Voice B: I thought that it provided a *third* of all the water.

1.31

**Presenter:** 1.31. Grammar box 3. Listen to each statement and comment.

Voice A: The aquifer provides a third of all US irrigation water.  
Voice B: I didn't realize it provided a *third*.

Voice A: The level is falling by one metre every year.  
Voice B: I didn't realize that it was falling by *one metre*.

2.1

**Presenter:** 2.1. Theme 2: Communication

**Lesson 2.1. Vocabulary for listening: Communication mediums: benefits and drawbacks**

**Exercise A1. Listen to some students working with Table 1. Fill in the information for posted letter.**

Student A: OK. So we've got the example here for a posted letter. It is slow but cheap. What does the next bit mean?  
Student B: Well, we have to consider convenience for the sender and for the receiver. It's not the same thing. Posting a letter is not very convenient for the sender ...  
Student C: Because you have to go find a post box or go to a post office.  
Student B: Exactly.  
Student A: Ah, right. I see. But it's very convenient for the receiver.  
Student B: Well, only if there is postal delivery. In my country, you have to go to a post office to collect your letters.  
Student A: Right. So what about letter through a courier. What's a courier? ...

2.2

**Presenter:** 2.2. Exercise B3. Listen and check your answers.

Voice: convenience, convenient, inconvenient  
security, secure, insecure  
expense, expensive, inexpensive  
benefit, beneficial, useless  
scarcity, scarce, common  
complexity, complex, simple

2.3

**Presenter:** 2.3. Exercise C. Listen to some sentences. Number the words in the table above.

1. Mobile phone calls can be very *expensive*.
2. E-mail is very *secure*, even if you don't put your e-mails into code.
3. The postal system is *inconvenient* if there is no home delivery.
4. The speed of e-mail is one of its main *benefits*.
5. The mobile has largely replaced the fixed-line phone because of its *convenience*.
6. Letters are *inexpensive* but very slow, compared with e-mail.
7. Some people don't use e-mail because they think it is too *complex*.
8. You don't see many public phone boxes in some countries now. They are quite *scarce*.

**Presenter: 2.4. Lesson 2.2. Real-time listening: Long-distance communication and business principles**

Lecturer: Everybody here? Yes? OK. I'm going to talk to you today about communication over long distances. It's quite an interesting subject in its own right, but we are not here to learn about smoke signals or telephones specifically. We are going to look at the history of long-distance communication to see what the modern businessperson can learn from it. History is a very good case study. Who said that? That's right. Me.

OK. So, first, a quick outline of the history of long-distance communication *before* the telephone, then we'll see how basic business principles applied, even in those early days. Finally, we'll look at the development of the telephone in the light of these principles.

So, where do we begin with the history of communication over long distances? Obviously, human beings have been able to communicate over *short* distances since ancient tribes in Africa and wherever first learnt to speak. But unless you can shout very, very loudly, you cannot communicate with someone in the next town or city by using your *voice*. You need another medium of communication. First, we had things like smoke signals, I guess. They must be thousands of years old. People used to bang drums as well, in some areas, I suppose. But this kind of signal only works over a few kilometres. People wanted a way of communicating over much longer distances. They couldn't use *spoken* language – that's the telephone and, of course, that came much later. They had to use *written* language.

As you probably know, the Sumerians invented writing in about 3000 BCE – that's over 5,000 years ago. Once people had a script, they could send a letter. In other words, they could write something down and give it to a messenger, who could take it to someone in another town or even another country. There is some evidence that the Sumerians sent written messages to each other but we need to move on a couple of thousand years to ...

... the earliest recorded postal system. That appeared in about 900 BCE. The Chinese invented it. Couriers carried messages around the country, from the national leaders to their local rulers. They were diplomatic messages, in other words, not things like *Having a lovely time. Wish you were here*. The messages didn't travel very fast. The couriers walked, so speed of transmission was about eight kilometres an hour. They weren't very secure either. Thieves could stop a messenger and take the message from him.

In about 150 BCE, the Egyptians started using horses to carry messages more quickly. Horses can go faster than people but they cannot travel for very long carrying a person – and the messages, of course. So the Egyptians set up a system of relay stations for messengers on horseback. Urgent messages now travelled at about 15 kilometres an hour for the next few thousand years. They still weren't secure, of course. *Why is all of this important to the modern businessperson?* I hear you ask. *Why do I need to know all this rubbish?!* Let's go on a bit and then we'll see.

We have to wait a long time for the next big idea. In 1793, a man called Claude Chappe invented the long-distance semaphore in France. The French government built a network of 556 relay stations all over the country. These were houses with arms on the roof. The arms could move to make different symbols. Urgent messages could travel at about 20 miles an hour now – faster and much more secure. It was very difficult to intercept and stop the message from reaching its destination. It was in code, too, so even if you did intercept it, you couldn't understand it. But the system was very expensive, both to build and to maintain. It was very expensive for the customers who wanted to use it, too. But Napoleon used it all the time to send urgent messages about troop movements – you know, how his armies were moving around the country.

Why have we looked at these ancient systems? Well, they demonstrate in a simple way three basic business principles. Firstly, at the centre of any successful business is a benefit. What does that mean? A successful business satisfies a want. Let me explain. A potential customer *wants* to do something. In the case of long-distance communication, people simply wanted to send messages to a distant location. This want did not change, through thousands of years. But it was met in different ways through the generations. The different ways were faster, or more secure, or cheaper, or more convenient. But they always satisfied the basic want.

We can go further. Customers do not buy *products*. They buy *satisfaction of wants*. In other words, they buy *benefits*. Companies sometimes forget this. They try to sell customers products. They give them details of the product. 'It works at three million mega somethings per kilo something.' 'It's got a widget in the thingamabob.' But most customers aren't interested in products. You can't sell customers products. Customers want to enjoy the *benefit* of the product. The Sumerians didn't want *writing*, the Chinese did not want *messengers*, the Egyptians did not want *horse riders* and the French people certainly did not want *semaphore stations* waving their arms all over the place. They simply wanted to send a message over a long distance. So that's the first point. Always think about the customer's wants, about the needs that your product or service satisfies.

Secondly, successful businesses have trained or skilled *personnel*. The Chinese system had men who knew the way to another town or area. The Egyptian system was more complex. It had horse riders and personnel who looked after the horses at each stop. The French system was even more complex. It had skilled operators who worked the semaphore machinery. The Chinese probably didn't teach their couriers the routes – they knew them already. The Egyptians probably didn't train their horse riders. They employed skilled riders. But the French certainly trained their semaphore operators. So here's the second point. A successful business needs skilled personnel. It either employs them or teaches them the special skills which the business needs.

So, to recap. A successful business supplies customers with benefits, and employs or trains skilled people. But successful businesses need something else, and this is sometimes out of their control. What is it?

Well, the Chinese system needed a road between A and B. So did the Egyptian system. The French system didn't need roads, but it needed buildings every few kilometres to relay the signal. This is the third key element. Most businesses need

an *infrastructure* – a system of roads, railway lines, air routes, sea lanes, plus buildings – shops, offices, warehouses. The Chinese and the Egyptian message businesses didn't build the roads. They were there already. But the French message system needed a new infrastructure system, and the French government agreed to build it. Businesses must work with existing infrastructure or they must be prepared to allocate scarce resources to new infrastructure.

Oh, I nearly forgot. Final very important point. The semaphore system was very expensive to build and to maintain. Of course, you can spread the cost over all messages, but still each message was expensive. But the system was very fast and very secure, so the government was prepared to pay the high cost. In this case, the government was also the customer, but the principle is the same. If you provide higher benefits, some people will be prepared to pay more for the same basic product or service.

Right. So, think about the key principles – benefits, personnel and infrastructure – as we consider the next invention. It's the telegraph. First I'll tell you how it worked and then we'll look at how it met the principles. The name *telegraph* comes from two Greek words: *tele*, which means 'distant', and *graph*, which, in Greek, means 'writing'. How did the telegraph work? One person keyed in letters on a machine. They travelled as electrical signals to another machine, in another town. The second machine printed the letters on strips of paper. Mostly, the system was used by the railways, so there were telegraph wires between all the stations to carry the messages. But there were problems with the telegraph. Firstly, the letters were in code. It was called Morse code, after the inventor, Samuel Morse. Someone had to turn the letters into Morse at one end, and decode the Morse into letters at the other end. Secondly, only one message could travel along the telegraph line at one time. That is like a road between two towns which can only carry one car at a time. Thirdly, you needed wires connecting each telegraph office. However, in terms of speed, the telegraph was a big improvement on semaphore – and, of course, couriers on foot or horseback. The message travelled at the speed of electricity along a wire, which is, of course, the speed of light. In some ways, it was secure, because only a Morse operator could decode the message. But, on the other hand, the operator read the message before delivering it, so in that way it was insecure. So, bearing all that in mind, what benefits did the new system deliver for customers? What problems did it pose for the business, in terms of personnel and infrastructure?

So that's how the telegraph worked. Now, how did it meet the principles? Well, first, benefits. It was faster and more secure than the postal system ... Oh, dear. I see we are running out of time. So let me leave those questions with you. Benefits, personnel and infrastructure for the telegraph. We'll look at the answers next time. Then we'll move on to the telephone and the mobile. Dear me, I didn't get through very much, did I? Well, anyway, you've got the basic principles. Thank you. See you next week.

## 2.5

**Presenter:** 2.5. Lesson 2.3. Learning new listening skills: Taking notes onto handouts

### Exercise A2. Listen and check your answers.

- Voice:
- a. electrical device
  - b. Morse code
  - c. postal system
  - d. skilled personnel
  - e. successful business
  - f. human beings
  - g. urgent message

## 2.6

**Presenter:** 2.6. Exercise C2. Listen and add notes to each slide.

### Slide 1.

Lecturer: OK. Let's consider the telephone as a business model. Remember, we need to look at three elements – the benefits of the product or service, the personnel required and the infrastructure. The fixed-line telephone provided lots of benefits over the telegraph. Firstly, it was very fast – in fact, it worked at the speed of light, because that is the speed of electricity. And it went straight from the sender to the receiver – you did not need a person to take down the message and then deliver it. And, of course, because there was no operator, the system was much more secure. It was years before people learnt how to bug, or listen in, to telephone conversations. But, coming onto personnel and infrastructure, there were drawbacks too. First, personnel. Well, of course, when the telephone was invented, there were no trained personnel. In fact, a new word was coined in about 1912, for people who answered telephone calls and connected people – *telephonist*. These people had to be trained. The company also had to train *linesmen* – people who put up the lines between towns and maintained them. They were all men then, but times have moved on a little. Finally, there was no infrastructure. The company needed to build telephone *exchanges* – another new term. They had to put up telephone lines to link the system together, and to lay millions of kilometres of telephone cables, including cables under the Atlantic Ocean and even the Pacific. As a result, the telephone developed really slowly.

**Presenter:** Slide 2.

Lecturer: Right, so let's compare the development of fixed-line phones and mobiles. In the process, we will learn an important business principle. First, the fixed-line phone. The device was invented in 1876 by an American, Alexander Graham Bell, but by 1890 there were only 5 million in use, most of them in the US, and even 30 years later, in 1922, there were only 20 million subscribers – that is, people with a telephone. In 1965, the total reached 300 million, doubling to 600 million by 1995 and doubling again to 1.2 billion in the next 20 years. So it took over 130 years to reach this number.

What about the mobile? Well, the device was invented in 1973 by a researcher working for Motorola, Martin Cooper. By 1985, there were 340,000 subscribers, which rose to 33 million by 1995. In 2003, just 30 years after its invention, there were 1.5 billion mobiles in the world, more mobiles than fixed-line phones. The figure stood at 4.6 billion in 2010. That's almost one telephone for every man, woman and child on Earth!

**Presenter:** Slide 3.

Lecturer: How can we explain the differences? Why did the mobile-phone customer base grow so quickly? Was it because of very high benefits to customers? Well, mobile phones certainly have high benefits for customers – for example, you can use them anywhere. You don't call a place anymore, you call a person. But fixed-line telephones probably had higher benefits back in 1876. What about personnel? To what extent did companies need to train personnel? Well, perhaps not as much as the early days of fixed-line telephones because so much of the system is automatic, so there was a saving there. But in terms of infrastructure – the mobile phone towers, for example – the phone companies had to build everything. So, in many ways, mobile phones had a similar business model to fixed-line phones. But there was one big difference. Mobile phone companies learnt an important lesson from the slow development of the fixed-line telephone. Mobile phones cost about \$500 to make in the early days, but companies did not try to pass on that cost to customers. They did not charge customers \$500 to have a mobile. In many cases, they gave away the handsets in return for a service contract. As a result, the installed customer base grew very quickly. How could the companies afford to give away their products? Well, they got a service contract in return and the customers paid regularly for the calls. If a business has more customers, its unit costs – its cost per customer – usually go down. So the installed customer base grew quickly *and* the mobile phone companies made money.

2.7

**Presenter:** 2.7. Pronunciation Check. Listen to the pronunciation of some pairs of words. Can you hear the first consonant?

Voice:

1. send messages
2. write letters
3. make progress
4. ask questions
5. eat dinner
6. take back
7. lend money
8. find friends

2.8

**Presenter:** 2.8. Lesson 2.4. Grammar for listening: Ditransitive verbs; verbs with prepositions

**Grammar box 6. Table 1.**

Voice: New businesses should offer customers better products.  
Companies give them details of products.  
They didn't teach the couriers the routes.

**Presenter:** Table 2.

Voice: New businesses should offer better products to customers.  
Companies give details of products to them.  
They didn't teach the routes to the couriers.

**Presenter:** Table 3.

Voice: Thieves could steal the messages from the courier.  
Successful companies supply customers with benefits.  
The machine printed the letters on strips of paper.

2.9

**Presenter:** 2.9. Exercise A. Listen to each sentence. Number the two objects you hear in each case.

Voice:

1. I'm going to ask you a question.
2. Can you send me a message?
3. He took a message for me.
4. They told her the truth.
5. I'll bring the book to school tomorrow.
6. Could you lend us some money?
7. We are going to buy the Social Sciences lecturer a present at the end of term.
8. Telephone companies charged customers a lot of money for calls in the early days.
9. Claude Chappe showed the government his invention.
10. The semaphore stations cost thousands of francs for the government to build.

**Presenter:** 2.10. Lesson 2.5. Applying new listening skills: The Internet and business principles

Lecturer:

In our last lecture, we heard about three key principles of business development – real benefits for customers, skilled personnel and effective infrastructure. We looked at the case of long-distance communication where businesses began with a want. But there is another way to develop a new business. We can start with *infrastructure* and think – *What customer wants can I satisfy by using this infrastructure? What benefits can I deliver with this infrastructure?* Am I making sense? You can start with a benefit or with an infrastructure. I suppose you can even start with personnel, but that's a bit weird!

So this week, I'm going to talk about the most important infrastructure of the 21<sup>st</sup> century. No, it's not the M25 or any other road, and it's not Eurostar or any other railway line. It's certainly not British Airways or Ryan Air! It's the international network of computers which now covers the globe – the Internet. First, a brief bit of history, and then we're going to look at the principles of e-tailing – online selling – as opposed to retailing – selling on the high street.

Right, so, let's get the history out of the way. The Internet really starts at the end of the Second World War. In 1945, a man called Bush – no, not *that* one, or his father! This one is called Vannevar Bush. He had a dream. 'It must be possible,' he thought, 'to link all information in a library together.' His dream went further. 'Then we could look at the information on a screen. We wouldn't need to go to the actual books or the documents in the library at all.' He was only thinking about all the information in *one* library, but still, for Bush's dream to become a reality, a lot of inventions had to come together. Let's look at five of them quickly.

Firstly, in 1946, scientists who were working for the US Army built the first real computer. It was called ENIAC. That's E-N-I-A-C. It was enormous and it only worked for a few minutes before breaking down, but it was the start of the computer age.

Secondly, in the 1960s, a man called Ted Nelson invented a name for the connection between documents. He called it *hypertext* because *hyper* means 'over', or 'extra'. We'll come back to this important word later.

Thirdly, in 1974, the first personal computer appeared. Several companies claim the credit, including IBM, of course. The personal computer, or PC, brought the world of computing into the small business and the private home. But these PCs were 'stand-alone'. In other words, they only worked with the information on their own hard drive.

But one year later, in 1975, a man called Vincent Cerf, that's Cerf with a C, invented a way for one computer to talk to another computer. Not chatting about the weather. Sending digital data along a wire. The method was called TCP/IP. The P stands for *protocol* – rules. At that time, the two computers had to be in the same place, the same room or the same building.

But just two years later, in 1977, Dennis Hayes invented the PC modem. This connected one computer to another computer in a *different* location. And yes, you've guessed it, the connection was through the telephone lines. The name *modem* means *modulator / demodulator* by the way, if you are a computer nerd, but that's just another way of saying 'encoder' and 'decoder'. Modems put digital information into analogue form for the telephone lines and turn the analogue back into digital at the other end. This was a very important invention. But it was just like the telegraph of 100 years earlier. The connection was like a single road between two towns. Only one car could travel on it at one time. Bush's dream was still some way away.

Still, by the late 70s, we had most of the parts for the Internet. But two important pieces were missing. The big breakthrough came in 1990. Tim Berners-Lee was a British scientist working in Switzerland. He had the same dream as Bush. He wanted all the scientists in his laboratory to be able to look at each other's documents. For research, of course, not to plagiarize them! He realized that every document needed an address so you could find the document on another computer. He knew about Ted Nelson's word *hypertext*. Berners-Lee invented a way of addressing documents. He said – 'Dear document ...' No, he didn't. He called the address *http* – *hypertext transfer protocol*. Berners-Lee also invented a simple program, called a browser. This program allowed the user of one computer to look at documents on another computer. And, hey presto – we had the Internet. You see, Al Gore really didn't invent it at all.

Berners-Lee's inventions changed the *road* from one computer to another into a *web*. This web allowed documents to appear on any computer screen on the Internet. Berners-Lee called it *the worldwide web* – or *WWW* for short. Actually, it's longer but you get the point.

Before Berners-Lee's inventions of the document address and the browser, the growth of the Internet was slow. In 1981, 213 computers could talk to each other around the world. In 1985, that number was 1,961. Just before Berners-Lee's inventions in 1990, the number reached 150,000. After Berners-Lee's inventions, the growth was incredible. By 1991, 300,000 computers could talk to each other. Five years after that, the number of computers communicating with each other was nearly 6 million and by 2000 it was 80 million. Today, it is over 4 billion.

At first, the Internet was not seen as a business opportunity. This is an important point! Write it down! In its early years, it did what Bush and Lee had imagined. It enabled academics to see the information on other computers in universities. But gradually, some businesspeople began to realize that you could market your company on the Internet. It didn't cost a lot of money to have a web presence. It was much cheaper, for example, than renting or buying advertising space in newspapers or on billboards. So, in the second phase of the Internet, it became a marketing tool. People saw a company on the Internet and then went to that shop, or restaurant, or hotel. Finally, some companies began to see the Internet as the shop itself. *Why do we need expensive high street premises?* they asked themselves. Nobody else was listening! Customers can see our products online and buy them online. Can you see the problem for a company which takes this route to developing a successful business?

To answer that question, we first have to think about how a normal retailer of books or clothes or whatever works. The company has a high street presence – a shop. Why do they have a shop in the high street? Because that's where customers

go. As they say in business, always be where your customers go. Someone goes into the shop, walks around looking at the goods on display, and sees something they want. They talk to a salesperson, who is usually a skilled employee. They buy the item and pay at the till – nowadays, usually with a card. They take it home. If they don't want it, or if there is something wrong with it, they take it back to the shop and, nowadays, in most cases, they can get a full refund.

How is an online retailer – or etailer – different? Well, firstly, of course, there is no shop, no high street presence. Instead, there is a web presence. This can be a good thing. As we have seen, customers go to the web in huge numbers, but, of course, you have to make sure they come to your site – your e-shop – so perhaps you need to spend some money driving customers onto your site. Secondly, there are no salespeople, no skilled personnel. Again, this may not be a problem if customers can navigate around your e-shop easily. Thirdly, there are no tills. Again, no problem, if you have efficient, secure systems for taking payment. Fourthly, you cannot take the goods home with you. The company has to deliver them. So, although the company is an etailer, using the *virtual* infrastructure of the Internet for marketing, sales and payment, it still needs to use the *real* infrastructure of postal delivery to get the goods to you. Finally, you cannot take the goods back, so the company also needs to use the real infrastructure of courier collection to enable you to return the goods – and, of course, it needs an efficient system of crediting back the payment to you.

OK. I see we have overrun again, so I'm going to ask you to do the next bit. Can you research either Boo.com or Amazon.com and be prepared to talk about the reasons for success or failure at the next tutorial? That's Boo – B-double O, and of course Amazon you know anyway. Thank you.

## 2.11

### Presenter: 2.11. Lesson 2.6. Vocabulary for speaking: Living with communication disability

#### Exercise B. Listen to the case studies of Maria, Alfred and Elena from the lecture.

Lecturer: In this lecture, I'm going to talk about communication disability from the point of view of employment. Can people with communication disabilities work? Of course they can. But society needs to help them in many ways to get into the workplace. We need to make sure employers do not discriminate against people because of their disabilities. I mean, employers mustn't reject people for recruitment or promotion simply because of their disability.

OK. We're going to consider three cases during this lecture. We'll come back to them on several occasions. Firstly, we have the case of Maria. Maria is 55 now. She can't see but she was not blind from birth. She lost her sight in a car accident. However, she deals with her blindness extremely well. She has learnt Braille so she can read and write again. She has a guide dog. She now works full time in a call centre. Secondly, there is Alfred. He's 28. Alfred can't hear but he wasn't deaf when he was born. He lost his hearing as a result of an illness when he was 18. He deals with his deafness very well. He has learnt lip-reading and sign language. He now works as a signer at the United Nations. He listens to speeches at meetings and signs the information for people who are deaf or hearing-impaired.

Finally, Elena. Elena is only seven. She can't speak. She has impaired speaking. As you probably know already, it is unacceptable these days to refer to people as *mute* or, even worse, *dumb*. She was born deaf, and deaf people have great difficulty in learning to speak. There is nothing wrong with Elena's speech *organs*, but her deafness means that she does not know how to make speech *sounds*. However, she is working intensively with a speech therapist to help her to produce speech.

OK. So, those are our three cases. As I said, we will return to them several times ...

## 2.12

### Presenter: 2.12. Lesson 2.7. Real-time speaking: Braille – reading and writing for the blind

#### Exercise C1. Listen to a student giving information about Braille to a study group. How does she talk about dates, ages and time periods?

Student A: I'm going to tell you about the inventor of Braille. In fact, he gave his name to the system – I mean, he was called Braille – Louis Braille. He was born in 1809 in a small town near Paris. His father was a saddle-maker. Louis wasn't blind from birth. He had an accident in his father's workshop when he was three. He was playing with an awl when he hit his eye with the tool.

Student C: That's terrible! What an awful thing!

Student B: Sorry. What's a nawl?

Student A: It's not a nawl. It's an awl. A-W-L.

Student C: I don't understand. Was he blinded in both eyes at once?

Student A: No. He damaged his right eye and then his left eye got infected.

Student B: That's dreadful.

Student A: Yes, it is. Anyway, where was I?

Student B: I can't remember.

Student C: I've forgotten, too.

Student B: Oh, yes. You were talking about the accident.

Student A: That's right. He lost his sight in both eyes. He went to normal school for three years but he didn't learn much. From 1815 to 1819 he didn't go to school. Then in 1819, at the age of ten, he went to the National Institute for the Blind in Paris. While he was studying there, he learnt a system of reading for the blind. It involved large raised letters of the normal alphabet. Braille thought there must be a better way.

2.13

**Presenter:** **2.13. Exercise D1. Listen and repeat some of the sentences from the presentation. Copy the pronunciation, including the pauses.**

- Student A:
- a. When he was three, he had an accident in his father's workshop.
  - b. From 1815 to 1819, he didn't go to school.
  - c. At the age of six, he left normal school.
  - d. Then in 1819, at the age of ten, he went to the National Institute for the Blind in Paris.
  - e. Sixteen years after his death, Braille became the worldwide standard.

2.14

**Presenter:** **2.14. Exercise E2. Listen to a student presenting the information. What extra comments do the students make?**

- Student A: For eight years, from 1821, he worked on his own system. He raised dots instead of letters. In his system, he used ...  
Student B: Sorry. What are dots?  
Student A: They're small circles. He used an awl to raise the letters. In fact, he used the same tool which blinded him.  
Student B: That's an incredible coincidence!  
Student C: I don't know. He was probably thinking about the accident all the time.  
Student A: That's true. Now, ... I've forgotten what I was going to say.  
Student B: You were going to tell us about his system.  
Student A: Oh, yes. In his system, he used six dots. He finished it in 1829. A year before then, he became a teacher at the institute. However, he was not allowed to teach his own system. Isn't that stupid?! But while he was teaching the old method, he continued to work on his new one, and in 1837 he added symbols for maths and for music. So he didn't stop with symbols for the alphabet. Braille died in 1852 when he was only 43, but his system went on to be used all around the world. Just six months after his death, the National Institute switched to Braille's method and in 1868, his system was accepted as the world standard. So, a poor blind boy invented a system which is used all over the world today. Isn't it amazing, the way he dealt with his blindness and achieved so much?

2.15

**Presenter:** **2.15. Everyday English: Talking on the phone**

**Exercise B2. Listen and complete the conversations.**

**Conversation 1.**

- Voice A: Hello. Could you give me David Marshall's e-mail address please?  
Voice B: Certainly. It's d dot marshall, with two l's, at hadford dot a-c dot u-k.  
Voice A: Thank you.  
Voice B: You're welcome. Bye.

**Presenter:** **Conversation 2.**

- Voice A: *[recording]* The person you have called is not available. Please leave a message after the tone.  
Voice B: Hi Katia. It's Piera. Give me a call when you pick up this message. OK, talk to you later. Bye.

**Presenter:** **Conversation 3.**

- Voice A: Hi Stef. It's Peter. How are you?  
Voice B: Hi. Fine. I can't hear you very well. Can you speak up?  
Voice A: Do you know Alan's mobile number?  
Voice B: You're breaking up. Can you hang up and redial?

**Presenter:** **Conversation 4.**

- Voice A: Hi, is that Carlo?  
Voice B: Sorry, I think you've got the wrong number.  
Voice A: Oh, sorry.  
Voice B: No problem. Bye.

**Presenter:** **Conversation 5.**

- Voice A: *[recording]* If you are calling about bus times, press 1. If you require information about family or student passes, or about Day Rover tickets, please press 2. For all other enquiries, please hold.  
... You are in a queue. One of our operators will be with you as soon as possible.

**Presenter:** **Conversation 6.**

- Voice A: Send me a text this afternoon. My phone's always on.  
Voice B: OK. What's your number?  
Voice A: It's oh double-seven four, triple-five nine, one seven three.  
Voice B: Got it. I'll text you later.

2.16

**Presenter:** 2.16. Lesson 2.8. Learning new speaking skills: Repairing communication

**Exercise A2. Listen, check and practise.**

Voice: a. accept  
b. accident  
c. adopt  
d. institute  
e. inventor  
f. standard  
g. system  
h. worldwide

2.17

**Presenter:** 2.17. Exercise B3. Listen, check and practise.

Voice: a. He was born in a small town near Paris.  
b. He wasn't blind from birth.  
c. He left normal school three years later.  
d. He invented a system of reading.  
e. He became a teacher at his old school.  
f. He died in Paris in 1852.

2.18

**Presenter:** 2.18. Exercise C3. Listen to the extract. Check your answers.

Voice A: He was playing with an awl when he hit his eye with the tool.  
Voice B: Sorry. What's a nawl?  
Voice A: It's not a nawl. It's an awl.  
Voice C: I don't understand. Was he blinded in both eyes at once?  
Voice A: No. He damaged his right eye and then his left eye got infected.  
Voice B: That's dreadful!  
Voice A: Yes, it is. Anyway, where was I?  
Voice B: I can't remember.  
Voice C: I've forgotten, too.  
Voice B: Oh, yes. You were talking about the accident.  
Voice A: That's right.

2.19

**Presenter:** 2.19. Pronunciation Check. Listen and copy the linking and suppressing.

Voice A: He was blinded in an accident.  
It's a pointed tool.

2.20

**Presenter:** 2.20. Lesson 2.9. Grammar for speaking: Using the past continuous

**Grammar box 7. Listen to the sentences in the tables.**

Voice: Braille was playing with an awl when he hit his eye.  
When he hit his eye, he damaged it.  
While the children were studying at the institute, they learnt a system of reading.

3.1

**Presenter:** 3.1. Theme 3: Media and advertising  
Lesson 3.1. Vocabulary for listening: Violence in stories for children

**Exercise B1. Listen to part of a talk about fairy tales. Answer the questions.**

Lecturer: So, as we have heard, psychologists say that young children need to experience fear. Fairy tales, like Little Red Riding Hood, bring fear into the child's life. Fairy tales were very violent, originally. People were eaten, burnt in an oven, poisoned. The violence is often against children or young people – think of Hansel and Gretel, and Goldilocks. People are aggressive. Even animals are aggressive – the Father Bear in the Goldilocks story deals with Goldilocks with aggression. In the 18<sup>th</sup> century,