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Национальный исследовательский университет   
"Высшая школа экономики"**

Факультет права

Кафедра английского языка

**Учебно-методическое пособие (хрестоматия)**

**по английскому языку**

**для студентов курса**

**«Обучение студентов начального этапа академическим навыкам просмотрового и поискового чтения»**

**SKIM&SCAN**

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кафедры английского языка при факультете права

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Данное учебно-методическое пособие (хрестоматия)предназначено для студентов I курса различных направлений, начинающих изучение английского языка в бакалавриате НИУ ВШЭ, и является составной частью содержательного раздела «Английский язык для академических целей» (“English for academic purposes”) Программы по дисциплине: «Английский язык».

Хрестоматия составлена в соответствии с

* Государственным образовательным стандартом высшего профессионального образования, утвержденного Министерством образования Российской Федерации
* Концепцией преподавания английского языка в Государственном университете – Высшей школе экономики
* Программой дисциплины «Иностранный язык», рекомендованной Научно-методическим советом по иностранным языкам МОН РФ

Хрестоматия нацелена на развитие иноязычной профессионально-коммуникативной компетенции студентов в аспекте формирования навыков просмотрового и поискового чтения и совершенствования стратегий чтения и достижение следующих задач:

* сделать чтение на уровне предложения осмысленным, научить понимать целостный текст
* ознакомить с видами и эффективными стратегиями чтения;
* развивать умения понимания цели чтения, использования разных видов чтения (поисковое, просмотровое), выбора адекватного заданию вид чтения, развивать языковую догадку
* сформировать представление о структурно-смысловой организации текста.
* ознакомить с лексическими, грамматическими, стилистическими, композиционными и прагматическими особенностями научно-теоретических текстов;
* провести анализ заданий модуля “Academic Reading” теста формата IELTS и практического применения различных видов чтения для успешного выполнения этих заданий;
* начать работу по увеличению скорости чтения

Создание данной программы обусловлено новыми задачами обучения по дисциплине «Английский язык», сформулированными в «Концепции преподавания английского языка в Государственном университете – Высшей школе экономики».

Хрестоматия рассчитана на 34 часа (18 часов аудиторной (при интенсивности 2 час./нед.) и 16 часов внеаудиторной работы; включает 7 юнитов, образцы Placement и Progress Tests, раздел Supplementary reading.

Юниты построены по единому принципу и отражают следующие темы:

1) Введение. Виды чтения. Тест на определение сформированности навыков просмотрового и поискового видов чтения. Introduction to types of reading. Placement test

2) Стратегии чтения. Reading strategies.

3) Просмотровое чтение.Skimming

4) Поисковое чтение. Scanning

5) Активное чтение. Approaches to active reading

6) Способы увеличения скорости чтения. How to read fast?

7) Структура и формат IELTS. Модуль Чтение. Типа заданий. IELTS Reading Module

Каждый юнит (урок) состоит из нескольких разделов, направленных на решение различных задач.

* Focus on theory – предполагает получение общего представления о типах и стратегиях чтения, типах заданий раздела Чтение экзамена IELTS и т.д.
* Focus on reading – содержит тексты различной тематики научного стиля, комплекс упражнений на развитие навыков просмотрового и поискового чтения
* Focus on IELTS – содержит задания по чтению академического модуля экзамена IELTS

Reading strategies <http://www.youtube.com/embed/nhXBHlqFHKk>

Skimming and scanning for IELTS <http://www.youtube.com/embed/sbozEcwLhRc>

Speed reading <http://www.youtube.com/embed/E3Gc9vun8zM>

Understanding unknown vocabulary <http://www.youtube.com/embed/Z0NE1lUdTgw>

Active reading strategies <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=DfGJkCfxNv8>

Asking questions while reading <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=H4btc8xwGGg>

IELTS Reading Module <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=mqZ8TmUU0so>

Ресурсы Интернета

[www.cambridgeESOL.org](http://www.cambridgeESOL.org)

[www.ielts.org](http://www.ielts.org)

www.onestopenglish.com

[www.oxfordenglishtesting.com](http://www.oxfordenglishtesting.com)

[http://www.englishteststore.net/](http://livepage.apple.com/)

<http://www.uefap.com/reading/readfram.htm>

[www**.**ieltshelpnow**.**com](http://www.ieltshelpnow.com)

www.examenglish.com/IELTS

<http://www.linguapress.com>

[www.ielts-exam.net](http://www.ielts-exam.net)

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UNIT 1

Introduction into types of reading

*FOCUS ON THEORY*

When you start a university course, you will have the same problem as every other student: how to get through the vast amount of reading given for each course. All academic study requires a lot of reading. There is not enough time to read everything line by line. You need to be able to read efficiently. Competent readers adapt their mode of reading to their reading purpose. The way you read something will depend on your purpose. You need to read quickly to find relevant sections, then read carefully when you have found what you want. General efficient reading strategies such as **scanning** to find the book or chapter, **skimming** to get the gist and **careful reading of important passages** are necessary as well as vocabulary building exercises in your own area. Learning about how texts are structured can also help you to read more efficiently.

When you pick up a book for the first time, use the index, the preface, the blurb (publisher's comments on the cover), the table of contents and glance through it rapidly in order to identify the relevant sections. Look at the chapter titles. If the chapter seems useful, look at the headings and sub-headings. Quickly survey any useful chapters by reading the first few lines of each paragraph or by reading the first and last paragraphs.

When you think you have identified relevant sections, skim through them, read the conclusion perhaps, to be sure they are relevant.

Many students still rely on painstakingly slow word by word reading. It soon becomes clear to them, however, that they cannot read every word in the library.

You will need to practice:

* Understanding meaning: deducing the meaning of unfamiliar words and word groups; relations within the sentence/complex sentences; implications - information not explicitly stated, conceptual meaning, e.g. comparison, purpose, cause, effect.
* Understanding relationships in the text: - text structure; the communicative value of sentences; relations between the parts of a text through lexical and grammatical cohesion devices and indicators in discourse.
* Understanding important points; distinguishing the main ideas from supporting detail; recognizing unsupported claims and claims supported by evidence - fact from opinion; extracting salient points to summarize; following an argument; reading critically/evaluating the text.
* Reading efficiently: surveying the text, chapter/article, paragraphs, skimming for gist/general impression; scanning to locate specifically required information; reading quickly.
* Note taking.

We must also understand that the meaning of a text is not an ‘objective commodity’ that can be taken out of it like physical items can be taken out of a basket. A reading that leads to understanding is a **process** of active **knowledge construction** by the reader. Depending on their age, pre-knowledge, and reading aims different readers come to view and understand the same text differently. Reading offers more than access to new information that can be quantitatively added to what we know already; it can also lead to a qualitative restructuring and re-evaluation of what we know. If we are prepared to imaginatively follow the invitation of a writer to see things from his or her point of view that may add new qualities to our experience of the world. This is why reading does not only widen the horizon but can also change it and enrich our ability to understand the people and world around us.

### Skimming, scanning and intensive reading

Depending on the purpose of their reading, readers choose between either of three modes of reading: skimming, scanning or intensive reading.

**Skimming** means looking for general and main ideas and important points in a reading.

**Scanning** means looking for supporting points and details, provided in body paragraphs. In other words, finding elaborations or sentences including detailed and specific information that support an important point or a topic sentence in a body paragraph.

**Intensive reading** is a mode of reading in which readers focus on a fairly comprehensive understanding of a given text.

**Consider whether you ever read for these purposes and what reading strategy you tend to use:**

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| *Reading purpose* | *Example from daily life* | *Example from academic work* |
|  |  |  |
| 1.  look for specific information when you know how to locate it by following a procedure |     look up the meaning of a word in a dictionary |     look for a particular reference in a reference list of an article |
| 2.  search for specific information that may be somewhere a text |     check particular details of an incident reported in a newspaper article |     check what research methods the authors of a research report article used |
| 3.  look quickly through a text to see what it is about before deciding to read it |     see whether a magazine article will be worth reading |     see whether an academic article is going to be relevant for your task |
| 4.  read quickly through a text to gain an overview of its content |     read through a new recipe |     read a front-line text which is relevant but not central to your task |
| 5.  read through an easy text where it is not important to remember all that you’ve read |     read a novel |     read a textbook chapter to revise a subject that you know well |
| 6.  read a text thoroughly to understand and remember what you’ve read |     read the instructions for booking and paying for a journey on-line |     read a front-line text whose content is central to your task |

***Placement Test (*** [***http://www.ielts-exam.net***](http://www.ielts-exam.net) ***)***

Read the passage and answer the questions. Use your predicting skills. Note the type of questions:

**Zulu Beadwork**

The South African province of KwaZulu-Natal, more commonly referred to as the Zulu Kingdom, is named after the Zulu people who have inhabited the area since the late 1400s. KwaZulu translates to mean "Place of Heaven." "Natal" was the name the Portuguese explorers gave this region when they arrived in 1497. At that time, only a few Zulu clans occupied the area. By the late 1700s, the AmaZulu clan, meaning "People of Heaven," constituted a significant nation. Today the Zulu clan represents the largest ethnic group in South Africa, with at least 11 million people in the kingdom. The Zulu people are known around the world for their elaborate glass beadwork, which they wear not only in their traditional costumes but as part of their everyday apparel. It is possible to learn much about the culture of the Zulu clan through their beadwork.

The glass bead trade in the province of KwaZulu-Natal is believed to be a fairly recent industry. In 1824, an Englishman named Henry Francis Fynn brought glass beads to the region to sell to the African people. Though the British are not considered the first to introduce glass beads, they were a main source through which the Zulu people could access the merchandise they needed. Glass beads had already been manufactured by the Egyptians centuries earlier around the same time when glass was discovered. Some research points to the idea that Egyptians tried to fool South Africans with glass by passing it off as jewels similar in value to gold or ivory. Phoenician mariners brought cargoes of these beads to Africa along with other wares. Before the Europeans arrived, many Arab traders brought glass beads down to the southern countries via camelback. During colonization', the Europeans facilitated and monopolized the glass bead market, and the Zulu nation became even more closely tied to this art form.

The Zulu people were not fooled into believing that glass beads were precious stones but, rather, used the beads to establish certain codes and rituals in their society. In the African tradition, kings were known to wear beaded regalia so heavy that they required the help of attendants to get out of their thrones. Zulu beadwork is involved in every realm of society, from religion and politics to family and marriage. Among the Zulu women, the craft of beadwork is used as an educational tool as well as a source of recreation and fashion. Personal adornment items include jewelry, skirts, neckbands, and aprons. Besides clothing and accessories, there are many other beaded objects in the Zulu culture, such as bead-covered gourds, which are carried around by women who are having fertility problems. Most importantly, however, Zulu beadwork is a source of communication. In the Zulu tradition, beads are a part of the language with certain words and symbols that can be easily read. A finished product is considered by many artists and collectors to be extremely poetic.

The code behind Zulu beadwork is relatively basic and extremely resistant to change. A simple triangle is the geometric shape used in almost all beaded items. A triangle with the apex pointing downward signifies an unmarried man, while one with the tip pointing upward is worn by an unmarried woman. Married women wear items with two triangles that form a diamond shape, and married men signify their marital status with two triangles that form an hourglass shape. Colors are also significant, though slightly more complicated since each color can have a negative and a positive meaning. Educated by their older sisters, young Zulu girls quickly learn how to send the appropriate messages to a courting male. Similarly, males learn how to interpret the messages and how to wear certain beads that express their interest in marriage.

The codes of the beads are so strong that cultural analysts fear that the beadwork tradition could prevent the Zulu people from progressing technologically and economically. Socioeconomic data shows that the more a culture resists change the more risk there is in a value system falling apart. Though traditional beadwork still holds a serious place in Zulu culture, the decorative art form is often modified for tourists, with popular items such as the beaded fertility doll.

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| http://www.ielts-exam.net/images/bl.gif | **Matching** |

**Questions 1-3**  
Match each definition in List A with the term it defines in List B.  
  
Write the correct letter **A - E** in boxes **1 - 3** on your answer sheet. There are more terms than definitions, so you will not use them all.

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| |  |  | | --- | --- | | **List A** | **Definitions** | | **1** | It means Place of Heaven. | | **2** | It is the Portuguese name for southern Africa. | | **3** | It means People of Heaven. | |
|  |
| |  |  | | --- | --- | | **List B** | **Terms** | | **A** | Phoenician | | **B** | Phoenician | | **C** | AmaZulu | | **D** | Explorer | | **E** | KwaZulu | |

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| --- | --- |
| http://www.ielts-exam.net/images/bl.gif | **Short-Answer Questions** |

**Questions 4-6**  
Answer the questions below.  
  
Write **NO MORE THAN THREE WORDS** for each answer.  
Write your answers is boxes 4-6 on your answer sheet.

**4** Which country does the Zulu clan reside in?  
  
**5** When did the Portuguese arrive in KwaZulu-Natal?  
   
**6** How many members of the Zulu Kingdom are there?

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| http://www.ielts-exam.net/images/bl.gif | **True-False-Not Given Questions** |

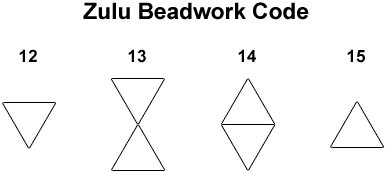
**Questions 7-11**  
Do the following statements agree with the information given in the passage?   
  
In boxes 7-11 on your answer sheet, write

**TRUE**            if the statement is true according to the passage  
**FALSE**          if the statement contradicts the passage  
**NOT GIVEN**    if there is no information about this in the passage

**7** The British were the first people to sell glass beads in Africa.  
  
**8** Henry Frances Flynn made a lot of money selling glass beads to the Zulu people.   
  
**9** The Zulu people believed that glass beads were precious stones.  
  
**10** The Zulu people use glass beads in many aspects of their daily lives.  
  
**11** Zulu women believe that bead-covered gourds can help them have babies.

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| http://www.ielts-exam.net/images/bl.gif | **Labeling a Diagram** |

Label the diagram below. Choose one or two words from the reading passage for each answer. Write your answers in boxes 12-15 on your answer sheet.



UNIT 2

Reading strategies

*FOCUS ON THEORY*

Closely linked with researching is the core skill of reading: It is through the words of others that we are introduced to new ideas and are able to reflect on them.  
    
Reading at university level involves a number of additional skills which are essential to critical analysis:

* knowledge acquisition,
* comprehension and the ability to interpret a text,
* the acquisition of new vocabulary,
* argument development and validation, and
* information evaluation and synthesis.

When you research a topic for an essay or work on a large project such as a thesis, you need to read and critically evaluate a considerable amount of material.   
The following sections discuss three areas which will enable you to undertake your reading more effectively: using reading lists, planning reading time, and adopting reading strategies.

### Using reading lists effectively

Reading lists are provided to guide you to key literature on particular topics. They usually contain a breadth of material that reflects different approaches and views.

You are usually expected to read approximately three key texts per topic. It is therefore important to find which texts make required readings. It is also important to determine whether or not you need to read an entire text. You can start by reviewing

* the abstracts of journal articles,
* the preface and introduction of books, and
* headings and sub-headings of article sections or book chapters.

This step will help you not only conceptualize the text, but also identify the type and amount of information you need to focus on.

### Planning your reading time

Reading requires concentration and time for reflection. As an important step in the learning process, you need to identify:

* how much you need to read,
* the complexity of the text, and
* how you read it.

Understanding these three elements will enable you to map out the amount of reading time you need to include in your study plan.

Think about:

* the purpose of your reading (whether it is to acquire facts or discuss ideas),
* when you are the most alert (whether in the morning, afternoon, or evening),
* whether you have a quiet space away from distractions, and
* how much time you have allocated to read.

You will often be given a reading guide that is directly relevant to your lecture program. Reading before the lecture/class helps you to better understand the material and participate in discussions.

### Adopting effective reading strategies

How you read your material depends on what you are reading and why. Are you trying to gain an overview of a topic, understand the material in depth, or find specific information? Being clear about what you want from a text ensures you read effectively.

Depending on your purpose and the complexity of the material, you can adopt some of the following effective reading strategies:

* Scanning. This is the ability to locate facts quickly and to find answers to specific questions. For example, you scan for information when you try to find a phone number in a directory. Use scanning when you want to locate a specific piece of information in a text.
* Skimming. When you skim, you are reading quickly by skipping details, minor ideas, and examples. Skimming is best used when you are trying to determine if the text is relevant to your study and, if so, which sections you need to read more carefully. While skimming
  + carefully read the introduction,  conclusion, and abstract (if there is one),
  + look at headings and sub-headings,
  + look at diagrams, graphs, tables, images, and
  + read the first and last sentences of each paragraph and sections which present a summary or conclusion.
* Reading in Depth. When you have identified sections you need to read closely, you need to not only understand the content but also ask questions such as: What aspect of the topic is this writing addressing? Does the writer have a particular point of view? How does the writer build that position?
* Reflecting. Time to reflect on read material is critical especially when you are contrasting the ideas and opinions of others or when you are comparing your own with those of others.

*GOING ONLINE*

Reading strategies <http://www.youtube.com/embed/nhXBHlqFHKk>

*FOCUS ON READING*

**Practice 1**

1. **Read the title and the bold subtitles. Make sure you understand all the terms.**
2. **Read the *italics subtitles.* Check the meaning of terms.**
3. **Read each paragraph attentively. Sum up the main idea of each paragraph in your own words.**
4. **Which strategies do you consider most important?**

# 7 Critical reading strategies

**1. Previewing:** Learning about a text before really reading it.

Previewing enables readers to get a sense of what the text is about and how it is organized before reading it closely. This simple strategy includes seeing what you can learn from the head notes or other introductory material, skimming to get an overview of the content and organization, and identifying the rhetorical situation.

**2. Contextualizing:** Placing a text in its historical, biographical, and cultural contexts.

When you read a text, you read it through the lens of your own experience. Your understanding of the words on the page and their significance is informed by what you have come to know and value from living in a particular time and place. But the texts you read were all written in the past, sometimes in a radically different time and place. To read critically, you need to contextualize, to recognize the differences between your contemporary values and attitudes and those represented in the text.

**3. Questioning to understand and remember:** Asking questions about the content.

As students, you are accustomed (I hope) to teachers asking you questions about your reading. These questions are designed to help you understand a reading and respond to it more fully, and often this technique works. When you need to understand and use new information though it is most beneficial if you write the questions, as you read the text for the first time. With this strategy, you can write questions any time, but in difficult academic readings, you will understand the material better and remember it longer if you write a question for every paragraph or brief section. Each question should focus on a main idea, not on illustrations or details, and each should be expressed in your own words, not just copied from parts of the paragraph.

**4. Reflecting on challenges to your beliefs and values:** Examining your personal responses.

The reading that you do for this class might challenge your attitudes, your unconsciously held beliefs, or your positions on current issues. As you read a text for the first time, mark an X in the margin at each point where you feel a personal challenge to your attitudes, beliefs, or status. Make a brief note in the margin about what you feel or about what in the text created the challenge. Now look again at the places you marked in the text where you felt personally challenged. What patterns do you see?

**5. Outlining and summarizing:** Identifying the main ideas and restating them in your own words.

Outlining and summarizing are especially helpful strategies for understanding the content and structure of a reading selection. Whereas outlining reveals the basic structure of the text, summarizing synopsizes a selection's main argument in brief. Outlining may be part of the annotating process, or it may be done separately (as it is in this class). The key to both outlining and summarizing is being able to distinguish between the main ideas and the supporting ideas and examples. The main ideas form the backbone, the strand that holds the various parts and pieces of the text together. Outlining the main ideas helps you to discover this structure. When you make an outline, don't use the text's exact words.

Summarizing begins with outlining, but instead of merely listing the main ideas, a summary recomposes them to form a new text. Whereas outlining depends on a close analysis of each paragraph, summarizing also requires creative synthesis. Putting ideas together again -- in your own words and in a condensed form -- shows how reading critically can lead to deeper understanding of any text.

**6. Evaluating an argument:** Testing the logic of a text as well as its credibility and emotional impact.

All writers make assertions that they want you to accept as true. As a critical reader, you should not accept anything on face value but to recognize every assertion as an argument that must be carefully evaluated. An argument has two essential parts: a claim and support. The claim asserts a conclusion -- an idea, an opinion, a judgment, or a point of view -- that the writer wants you to accept. The support includes reasons (shared beliefs, assumptions, and values) and evidence (facts, examples, statistics, and authorities) that give readers the basis for accepting the conclusion. When you assess an argument, you are concerned with the process of reasoning as well as its truthfulness (these are not the same thing). At the most basic level, in order for an argument to be acceptable, the support must be appropriate to the claim and the statements must be consistent with one another.

**7. Comparing and contrasting related readings:** Exploring likenesses and differences between texts to understand them better.

**Practice 2**

1. **Have a lot at the title of the text. What renewable resources can you name?**
2. **Match paragraphs with the following headings:**
3. **Tidal barrages**
4. **Wind turbines**
5. **Biofuels**
6. **Tidal flow schemes**
7. **Micro generation**
8. **Solar power**

**Renewable resources.**

Energy experts predict that by the end of this century, just 250 years after the start of the Industrial Revolution, we will have burnt all the world’s coal and gas reserves, reserves that took 200 million years to develop.

With fossil fuel reserves running down the search is on for alternative sources of energy. The need for renewable sources of energy is greater than ever. The use of renewable energy is nothing new, in 1086 there were 5600 watermills in England each generating 2kw of energy. With the advent of cheap coal these watermills went into disuse. Here are some of the renewable fuel sources that are making a comeback:

**Wind turbines**: these are now a common site in several European countries. Some people say the turbines are ugly and cause ‘visual pollution’. To minimise their visual impact they can be located out at sea (as long as the sea is not too deep). Obviously, when there’s no wind, no electricity is generated.

**Tidal flow schemes**: an example of tidal flow is the Gulf Stream which flows from Florida to the north west of Scotland at speeds of 1.5 metres per second. There are problems, however, converting this kinetic energy into electricity. Today’s marine current turbines (an underwater version of a wind turbine) operate best in shallow water where they can be fixed to the sea bed. At the moment they are not able to exploit the energy present in tidal flows such as the Gulf Stream where the sea is very deep.

**Tidal barrages**: these can be built in coastal areas where there is a large variation in the levels of high and low tides. Tidal barrages are dams that fill with sea water when the tide comes in, when the tide goes out the water is released. As it escapes it generates electricity. Unfortunately, the number of locations where tidal barrages can be built is limited and they can have a considerable impact on the local marine ecosystem.

**Biofuels**: these fuels come from a wide range of materials from wood to plant waste and waste materials from animals. Firewood is a good source of energy but the wood does have to be cut, transported and trees replanted. Methane gas can be produced from plant and animal waste materials but production rates are slow. Bio diesel can be produced in several ways, for example from maize or from the by-products of wheat production. The potential for biofuel production is great. At the moment, however, there are problems around the issue of scalability as current production levels fall far short of the levels required to substitute fossil fuels.

**Solar power**: for their power supply isolated farms in Australia can choose between traditional diesel generators or stand alone solar power systems using photovoltaic cells. A large amount of capital is required to set up a solar power system. At the moment photovoltaic cells are not very efficient at converting solar power to electricity. It takes 5-6 years for such a system to become cost-efficient. If these cells could be made more efficient experts have calculated that 4% of the earth’s desert areas could supply all of the world’s energy needs.

**Micro generation**: for the last 100 years the main concept in electricity generation has been to ‘think big’ and build large power stations. Now we are beginning to see a new trend, small scale local generation of power using renewable biofuels. In the developing world where funds are scarce experts predict micro generation is the way forward. With time these separate micro generators cab be joined up to form a larger power grid.

**Practice3**

1. **Skim the report about trends in international adoptions and put the points in the order in which they appear in the text**

A The country with the most international adoptions

B Consequences of modern family life

C A country with a few international adoptions

D European countries where adoptions are rising

E Why many people adopted in the past

F The influence of the rich and famous

1. **Read the article again and complete these summary sentences with a word or a number.**
2. The US has the most international adoptions, about ……. In 2005.
3. Most children adopted in recent years in the US come from…….
4. …… is the European country with most inter-country adoptions, about 4,000 a year.
5. There were only … inter-country adoptions in the UK last year.
6. In the 1970s many children were adopted from ….. and ……
7. In the 1990s many children were adopted from orphanages in….. and ……
8. The traditional structure of the family is changing fast in ….. and ……
9. Adoption…… report they receive more enquires whenever a famous person adopts a child.

**Long-distance adoptions.**

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
|  | Inter-country adoptions have existed for a long time but in recent decades international adoptions have become increasingly popular. The US is the country with most international adoptions every year. In fact, the number of inter-country adoptions in the US has tripled in just 15 years. Most children currently come from China, Russia, Guatemala, South Korea and Ukraine. Figures for 2005 show that about 22,700 US visas were given to overseas orphans. Around 7,900 came from China, over 4,600 from Russia, almost 3,800 from Guatemala, over 1600 from South Korea and 820 from the Ukraine.  Today Spain is the second country in the world in actual number of adopted children from other countries. The figure is approximately 4,000 a year but the demand is growing very fast. France has a similar number and Italy 3,000. At the same time as international adoptions have increased in these countries, so has immigration from outside western Europe. Indeed, very often the immigrants and the adopted children come from the same countries.  By contrast, in other parts of Europe inter-country adoptions are actually declining. There were only around 350 international adoptions in the UK last year. The process there is very slow and there are a lot more restrictions on international adoptions than in other parts of Europe.  Why do people adopt children from other countries? In the past, humanitarian reasons were most often cited. Sweden and Norway had the highest levels of international adoptions in the 1970s, mostly Vietnamese and South Korean orphans from the wars. Thousands of children were adopted from Romania in the early 1990s in response to TV documentaries of desperate conditions in orphanages. Similarly, in the mid-1990s film footage of conditions in Chinese orphanages lend to an increase in adoptions from China.  Another factor is the changing structure of society and families in western Europe. Italy and Spain are two countries where the traditional family is seeing an unprecedented period of change. As both men and women now work outside the home, people are starting their families later in life and having fewer children. As fertility rates are falling, people are rushing to adopt children. And since there is more demand than supply within the country for adoptions, people are looking overseas to adopt. People are increasing seeing adoption as another way to have a child. It isn’t just an option for childless people, many families have biological children and choose to adopt as well.  Not surprisingly, the mass media also plays a role in the increased interest in international adoptions. Every time a Hollywood celebrity, a supermodel or a pop star adopts a child, agencies report a 25% increase in enquires from people looking to adopt. |

UNIT 3

Skimming

*FOCUS ON THEORY*

**Skimming** is a mode of fast reading which is used to get a rapid general impression of what a text is about. In this mode of reading, if the text you are reading is a non-fictional text, you may first look at its table of contents, the summary, and subject index. You may next leaf through the text and focus attention on subtitles, headlines, content keywords, or prominent text features (passages printed in bold type, or colour, or with illustrations). Writers often use such features to highlight what they want to say.

If, however, the text which you want to get a first impression of is a fictional text, you may decide to first read the opening scene and the beginning or ending of chapters. Skimming helps you decide if you like a book, its characters and story, its topics and style of writing. It may or may not be followed by some more intensive reading.

Skimming is **useful** in three different situations.

• Pre-reading -Skimming is more thorough than simple previewing and can give a more accurate picture of text to be read later.

• Reviewing -Skimming is useful for reviewing text already read.

• Reading -Skimming is most often used for quickly reading material that, for any number of reasons, does not need more detailed attention.

**Steps** in skimming an article (text)

• Read the title - it is the shortest possible summary of the content.

• Read the introduction or lead-in paragraph.

• Read the first paragraph completely.

• If there are subheadings, read each one, looking for relationships among them.

• Read the first sentence of each remaining paragraph.

a. The main idea of most paragraphs appears in the first sentence.

b. If the author's pattern is to begin with a question or example, you may find the last sentence more valuable.

**How to skim a text**

**(Example of eye movements during skimming)**

*GOING ONLINE*

Skimming and scanning for IELTS <http://www.youtube.com/embed/sbozEcwLhRc>

*FOCUS ON READING* Skimming for gist

**Practice 4**

1. **Read the first sentence of each paragraph in the following text.**
2. **Notice how reading these sentences gives you a good idea about the meaning of the text: six qualities of a teacher. If you need more details, read the text again.**

**The personal qualities of a teacher**

*Here I want to try to give you an answer to the question: What personal qualities are desirable in a teacher*? Probably no two people would draw up exactly similar lists, but I think the following would be generally accepted.

*First, the teacher's personality should be pleasantly live and attractive.* This does not rule out people who are physically plain, or even ugly, because many such have great personal charm. But it does rule out such types as the over-excitable, melancholy, frigid, sarcastic, cynical, frustrated, and over-bearing : I would say too, that it excludes all of dull or purely negative personality. I still stick to what I said in my earlier book: that school children probably 'suffer more from bores than from brutes'.

*Secondly, it is not merely desirable but essential for a teacher to have a genuine capacity for sympathy - in the literal meaning of that word; a capacity to tune in to the minds and feelings of other people, especially, since most teachers are school teachers, to the minds and feelings of children*. Closely related with this is the capacity to be tolerant - not, indeed, of what is wrong, but of the frailty and immaturity of human nature which induce people, and again especially children, to make mistakes.

*Thirdly, I hold it essential for a teacher to be both intellectually and morally honest*. This does not mean being a plaster saint. It means that he will be aware of his intellectual strengths, and limitations, and will have thought about and decided upon the moral principles by which his life shall be guided. There is no contradiction in my going on to say that a teacher should be a bit of an actor. That is part of the technique of teaching, which demands that every now and then a teacher should be able to put on an act - to enliven a lesson, correct a fault, or award praise. Children, especially young children, live in a world that is rather larger than life.

*A teacher must remain mentally alert.* He will not get into the profession if of low intelligence, but it is all too easy, even for people of above-average intelligence, to stagnate intellectually - and that means to deteriorate intellectually. A teacher must be quick to adapt himself to any situation, however improbable and able to improvise, if necessary at less than a moment's notice. (Here I should stress that I use 'he' and 'his' throughout the book simply as a matter of convention and convenience.)

*On the other hand, a teacher must be capable of infinite patience.* This, I may say, is largely a matter of self-discipline and self-training; we are none of us born like that. He must be pretty resilient; teaching makes great demands on nervous energy. And he should be able to take in his stride the innumerable petty irritations any adult dealing with children has to endure.

*Finally, I think a teacher should have the kind of mind which always wants to go on learning.* Teaching is a job at which one will never be perfect; there is always something more to learn about it. There are three principal objects of study: the subject, or subjects, which the teacher is teaching; the methods by which they can best be taught to the particular pupils in the classes he is teaching; and - by far the most important - the children, young people, or adults to whom they are to be taught. The two cardinal principles of British education today are that education is education of the whole person, and that it is best acquired through full and active co-operation between two persons, the teacher and the learner.

**Practice 5**

**Read the following text quickly and answer the questions.**

1. When were X-rays discovered?
2. Who discovered them?
3. What are the four characteristics of X-rays?

**The Discovery of X-rays**

Except for a brief description of the Compton effect, and a few other remarks, we have postponed the discussion of X-rays until the present chapter because it is particularly convenient to treat X-ray spectra after treating optical spectra. Although this ordering may have given the reader a distorted impression of the historical importance of X-rays, this impression will be corrected shortly as we describe the crucial role played by X-rays in the development of modern physics.

X-rays were discovered in 1895 by Roentgen while studying the phenomena of gaseous discharge. Using a cathode ray tube with a high voltage of several tens of kilovolts, he noticed that salts of barium would fluoresce when brought near the tube, although nothing visible was emitted by the tube. This effect persisted when the tube was wrapped with a layer of black cardboard. Roentgen soon established that the agency responsible for the fluorescence originated at the point at which the stream of energetic electrons struck the glass wall of the tube. Because of its unknown nature, he gave this agency the name *X-rays.* He found that X-rays could manifest themselves by darkening wrapped photographic plates, discharging charged electroscopes, as well as by causing fluorescence in a number of different substances. He also found that X-rays can penetrate considerable thicknesses of materials of low atomic number, whereas substances of high atomic number are relatively opaque. Roentgen took the first steps in identifying the nature of X-rays by using a system of slits to show that (1) *they travel in straight lines,* and that (2) *they are uncharged,* because they are not deflected by electric or magnetic fields.

The discovery of X-rays aroused the interest of all physicists, and many joined in the investigation of their properties. In 1899 Haga and Wind performed a single slit diffraction experiment with X-rays which showed that (3) *X-rays are a wave motion phenomenon,* and, from the size of the diffraction pattern, their wavelength could be estimated to be 10-8 cm. In 1906 Barkla proved that (4) *the waves are transverse* by showing that they can be polarized by scattering from many materials.

There is, of course, no longer anything unknown about the nature of X-rays. They are electromagnetic radiation of exactly the same nature as visible light, except that their wavelength is several orders of magnitude shorter. This conclusion follows from comparing properties 1 through 4 with the similar properties of visible light, but it was actually postulated by Thomson several years before all these properties were known.

Thomson argued that X-rays are electromagnetic radiation because such radiation would be expected to be emitted from the point at which the electrons strike the wall of a cathode ray tube. At this point, the electrons suffer very violent accelerations in coming to a stop and, according to classical electromagnetic theory, all accelerated charged particles emit electromagnetic radiations. We shall see later that this explanation of the production of X-rays is at least partially correct.

### In common with other electromagnetic radiations, X-rays exhibit particle-like aspects as well as wave-like aspects. The reader will recall that the Compton effect, which is one of the most convincing demonstrations of the existence of quanta, was originally observed with electromagnetic radiation in the X-ray region of wavelengths.

**Practice 6**

1. **Read the title of the text. Do you know what BRIC stands for?**
2. **Read the first paragraph in italics. Try to predict what issues will be highlighted.**
3. **Skim the text. Were your predictions correct?**
4. **What do the following figures stand for: 50 million, 800, 70 % ?**
5. **What strengths and weaknesses of BRIC countries are mentioned?**

**BRIC countries.**

*John O’Neill, a global economist at Goldmann Sachs London, recently produced a report on the economic outlook of what he termed the ‘BRIC countries’ – Brazil, Russia, India and China. Allanby Consulting decided to produce this confidential in-house report on the economic future of these four countries. All four countries are set for dramatic economic growth that will lead to considerable redistribution of the world’s wealth. This report considers some of the issues that may threaten this development*.

**Brazil:** is currently undergoing impressive development. This has primarily been fuelled by China’s demand for the country’s raw materials. China is investing heavily to improve Brazil’s infrastructure to facilitate the export of metal ores, timber and food supplies. Currently 50 million Brazilians live in rural and urban poverty. As has happened in China millions of these people will be removed from poverty as the economy develops but just how many will be left behind? Could this disadvantaged section of society be a cause of future social conflict? Brazil is becoming an important global supplier of food, primarily soya beans. However, the Amazon rainforest is being destroyed at an alarming rate. In the future this may lead to drought in the south of the country which could threaten this food production.

**Russia:** supplies of gas and oil make Russia a formidable hydrocarbon power. Moscow may now be a consumer paradise but the rest of the country lags far behind in terms of economic growth. The country’s legal and political infrastructures need to develop and be reinforced. The country is too dependent on oil supplies and needs to diversify into other sectors, especially IT. Low levels of population growth and a poor healthcare infrastructure pose another threat to the country’s development.

**India:** last year Infosys, the successful Bangalore-based IT company, received 800 applications for 100 internships for non-Indian nationals. The company received a total of 1 million job applications from qualified Indian graduates. The Indian education system has prepared the country well for its growth in the IT sector. Graduates no longer need to leave India to develop a career. Faith and religion are important in India –will economic growth and increased wealth lead to a decline in religious belief as has happened in Western Europe?  The rural poor are rapidly being left behind by urban growth, the government need to address this issue. Drought in the north of the country is an increasing problem that may threaten food supplies.

**China:** 70% of the clothes bought in the US are now made in China. Consumer electronics, the car industry, the car component industry all are developing rapidly. Multinationals are now opening research facilities in China. Millions of Chinese people have been pulled out of poverty over the last 10 years. The impact of the country’s recent economic growth on the environment has been very high. There is a risk of drought in the north of the country which may threaten supplies of wheat and other grains.  The political situation remains uncertain. How will the Communist Party adapt to the demands of the growing affluent middle classes?

UNIT 4

Scanning

*FOCUS ON THEORY*

**Scanning** is a mode of fast reading which you use if you start with a predefined set of keywords and want to find out if a given text provides information on them. You leaf through the text and search for passages which contain your keywords. If you hit on pages which contain your keyword or semantically related words, it frequently is useful to note the page numbers for later intensive reading or for making abstracts.

Scanning can be challenging because we tend to read the whole text and waste time. Mind these two pieces of advice:

**1. Don’t read from left to right**

If you start reading from left to right you are going to scan very slowly. In fact, what happens is that you start to skim the text and read it for meaning rather than just scanning for individual words. This happens because your brain wants to process the information coming to it.

**2. Don’t start at the beginning**

It is of course logical to start reading from the beginning. Or is it? Actually no. This is because the word you are looking for could be anywhere in the text and there is no reason to start at the beginning: you’re not reading the text for meaning; you’re looking for a word. The word you are looking for might be right at the end so the very worst place to start is at the beginning.

*GOING ONLINE*

Understanding unknown vocabulary <http://www.youtube.com/embed/Z0NE1lUdTgw>

*FOCUS ON READING*

### Practice 7 Scanning

1. **Scan the text. Underline % figures.**
2. **Fill in the table. What do the numbers given in the table refer to?**

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| 1% |  |
| 2% |  |
| 6% |  |
| 13% |  |
| 16% |  |
| 30% |  |
| 3/4 |  |
| 86% |  |

**Spoon-fed feel lost at the cutting edge**

Before arriving at university students will have been powerfully influenced by their school's approach to learning particular subjects. Yet this is only rarely taken into account by teachers in higher education, according to new research carried out at Nottingham University, which could explain why so many students experience problems making the transition.

Historian Alan Booth says there is a growing feeling on both sides of the Atlantic that the shift from school to university-style learning could be vastly improved. But little consensus exists about who or what is at fault when the students cannot cope. "School teachers commonly blame the poor quality of university teaching, citing factors such as large first-year lectures, the widespread use of inexperienced postgraduate tutors and the general lack of concern for students in an environment where research is dominant in career progression," Dr Booth said.

Many university tutors on the other hand claim that the school system is failing to prepare students for what will be expected of them at university. A-level history in particular is seen to be teacher-dominated, creating a passive dependency culture.

But while both sides are bent on attacking each other, little is heard during such exchanges from the students themselves, according to Dr Booth, who has devised a questionnaire to test the views of more than 200 first-year history students at Nottingham over a three-year period. The students were asked about their experience of how history is taught at the outset of their degree programme. It quickly became clear that teaching methods in school were pretty staid.

About 30 per cent of respondents claimed to have made significant use of primary sources (few felt very confident in handling them) and this had mostly been in connection with project work. Only 16 per cent had used video/audio; 2 per cent had experienced field trips and less than 1 per cent had engaged in role-play.

Dr Booth found students and teachers were frequently restricted by the assessment style which remains dominated by exams. These put obstacles in the way of more adventurous teaching and active learning, he said. Of the students in the survey just 13 per cent felt their A-level course had prepared them very well for work at university. Three-quarters felt it had prepared them fairly well.

One typical comment sums up the contrasting approach: "At A-level we tended to be spoon-fed with dictated notes and if we were told to do any background reading (which was rare) we were told exactly which pages to read out of the book".

To test this further the students were asked how well they were prepared in specific skills central to degree level history study. The answers reveal that the students felt most confident at taking notes from lectures and organizing their notes. They were least able to give an oral presentation and there was no great confidence in contributing to seminars, knowing how much to read, using primary sources and searching for texts. Even reading and taking notes from a book were often problematic. Just 6 per cent of the sample said they felt competent at writing essays, the staple A level assessment activity.

The personal influence of the teacher was paramount. In fact individual teachers were the centre of students' learning at A level with some 86 per cent of respondents reporting that their teachers had been more influential in their development as historians than the students' own reading and thinking.

The ideal teacher turned out to be someone who was enthusiastic about the subject; a good clear communicator who encouraged discussion. The ideal teacher was able to develop students involvement and independence. He or she was approachable and willing to help. The bad teacher, according to the survey, dictates notes and allows no room for discussion. He or she makes students learn strings of facts; appears uninterested in the subject and fails to listen to other points of view.

No matter how poor the students judged their preparedness for degree-level study, however, there was a fairly widespread optimism that the experience would change them significantly, particularly in terms of their open mindedness and ability to cope with people.

But it was clear, Dr Booth said, that the importance attached by many departments to third-year teaching could be misplaced. "Very often tutors regard the third year as the crucial time, allowing postgraduates to do a lot of the earlier teaching. But I am coming to the conclusion that the first year at university is the critical point of intervention".

**Practice 8**

1. **Have a look at the title of the article and try to predict what the relation between online searches for future and economic success is. Skim the text. Were your ideas right?**
2. **Scan the text and answer the following questions (pay attention to the words *in italics*):**
   1. **What “*striking correlation*” was found out?**
   2. ***How many* countries were included in the *analyses study*?**
   3. **Is *Russia’s correlation index* higher than that of the *UK*?**
   4. **Why, in the opinion of *Greg Taylor*, the study is innovative?**

# Online searches for future linked to economic success

People in wealthier nations are far more likely to search for information about the future compared with citizens of poorer states, a study of 45 billion Google search queries has revealed. Writing in the journal Scientific Reports today, a team from University College London reveals a "striking correlation" between a country's per-capita gross domestic product "and its inhabitants' predisposition to look forward".

"Our results are consistent with the intriguing possibility that there is a relationship between the economic success of a country and the information-seeking behaviour of its citizens online," the authors write.

UCL mathematician Steven Bishop and colleagues Tobias Pries, Helen Moat and Eugene Stanley used Google Trends to analyse search queries made in 45 countries in 2010. Their methodology for sifting past and future searches was to count how many 2010 searches included the term "2009" and how many mentioned "2011".

In order to see how "future oriented" each nation was, the team then worked out the ratio of the number of searches for 2011 to those for 2009. They called that ratio the "future orientation index" (FOI). When they checked these indices against the relative wealth of each nation - its per-capita GDP - as listed in the CIA World Factbook of July 2010, they found a strong correlation.

For instance, Russia (with 2010 GDP per capita at $15,900 in 2010) has a future orientation index of 0.6. Higher up the graph Italy ($30,100) has an FOI of 1.0. Even higher are France ($35,000), the UK ($35,900) and Germany ($37,900), which are all at around 1.2.

The same correlation between wealth and FOI was seen in further analyses that centred on 2009 (measuring searches for 2008 and 2010) and 2008 (2007 and 2009).

Preis - a visiting professor from Boston University – suggests an explanation for the relationship between search activity and GDP: focusing on the future may be one of the factors that lead to economic success.

The findings may also "reflect international differences in the type of information sought online, perhaps due to economic influences on available internet infrastructure," he says in the paper.

Counting year mentions is clearly an imperfect way to check feelings about the past and future, and to avoid statistical noise in the Google Trends data the study eliminated nations with less than 5 million internet users - many of which will be at the poorer end of the GDP scale where the correlation may falter.

But Greg Taylor, an economist at the Oxford Internet Institute in the UK, says the UCL work is certainly a novel type of study. "Most of what I see goes the other way - there's been work on what searches can tell us about. For example, economic factors like an impending recession, or the spread of flu." But Taylor hasn't seen a study that uses economic data to assess a nation's feel-good factor.

"These results have a certain intuitive appeal. I guess in the developed world, you have a lot more to search for in the future in terms of the cultural experiences available - such as upcoming movie releases."

**Practice 9**

1. **Skim the text. How many ways to categorize volcanoes does it give? What types of volcanoes are mentioned?**
2. **The text mentions two examples of volcanoes. What classification do they belong to?**
3. **Which method of classification is preferred by scientists? Why?**

There are different ways in which volcanoes are classified. Perhaps the most common and certainly the one used by non-specialists is the division of volcanoes into the categories of active, dormant or extinct. This classification is problematical as there is no clear definition of what makes a volcano active, dormant or extinct. Typically, a volcano is said to be extinct if it has not erupted in historical times, or at least since written records began, and it is dormant if it is known to have erupted in historical times but is now quiet. The difficulty with this is that man has been on the planet for a comparatively short period of time and our historical records are a rather inaccurate predictor of volcanic activity and dormant, and even extinct, volcanoes have been known to erupt.

This can be exemplified by one of the most notorious episodes in the annals of volcanology, the eruption of Mt Vesuvius in 79 AD. When Vesuvius did erupt, it caused massive loss of life in the nearby towns of Herculaneum and Pompeii for the simple reason that the locals had not just settled in towns near to the volcano but they had even gone so far as to build vineyards on its slopes. An assumption had been made that just because it had not erupted in memory, it would not erupt. Indeed, this is by no means an isolated example of humans deciding to settle near volcanoes: another famous instance is how Edinburgh Castle is likewise built on a volcano. The one difference being that the castle is still with us and has not disappeared in a cloud of ash and a torrent of lava produced by a volcanic eruption.

Scientists tend to categorize volcanoes not by their probable activity, but by their features, size, location and form. Hence volcanologists refer to stratovolcanoes or composite volcanoes, shield volcanoes, submarine volcanoes, cone volcanoes, mud volcanoes, supervolcanoes and subglacial volcanoes. The most dangerous of these are the supervolcanoes which should they erupt would not merely threaten the existence of a town such as Pompeii but could even call into question the future of entire continents for human habitation. They are of such magnitude that the sulphur and ash produced by an explosion could adversely affect air temperature globally. Some of the largest, and least known, volcanoes are the submarine volcanoes found on the ocean floor. Their activity often goes unnoticed by non-specialists because the sheer amount of water pressing down on them means that the gases do not escape into the atmosphere. Though, occasionally they do erupt so massively that new islands are formed above the level of the ocean. Likewise, subglacial volcanoes that form beneath the icecap escape general notice until the icecap melts and table top mountains appear. Stratovolcanoes, cone, shield and mud volcanoes are simply volcanoes classified by being formed of different materials and forming different shapes.

*FOCUS ON IELTS*

**Practice 10**

**Read the text below and choose the correct answer. Pay attention to the words in bold. Underline these words in the text.**

|  |
| --- |
| **NOW FOR THE BAD NEWS: A TEENAGE TIME BOMB**  *Para. 1*  They are just four, five and six years old right now, but already they are making criminologists nervous. They are growing up, too frequently, in abusive or broken homes, with little adult supervision and few positive role models. Left to themselves, they spend much of their time hanging out on the streets or soaking up violent TV shows. By the year 2005 they will be teenagers--a group that tends to be, in the view of Northeastern University criminologist James Alan Fox, "temporary sociopaths--impulsive and immature.'' If they also have easy access to guns and drugs, they can be extremely dangerous.  *Para. 2*  For all the heartening news offered by recent crime statistics, there is an ominous flip side. While the crime rate is dropping for adults, it is soaring for teens. Between 1990 and 1994, the rate at which adults age 25 and older committed homicides declined 22%; yet the rate jumped 16% for youths between 14 and 17, the age group that in the early '90s supplanted 18- to 24-year-olds as the most crime-prone. And that is precisely the age group that will be booming in the next decade. There are currently 39 million children under 10 in the U.S., more than at any time since the 1950s. "This is the calm before the crime storm," says Fox. "So long as we fool ourselves in thinking that we're winning the war against crime, we may be blindsided by this bloodbath of teenage violence that is lurking in the future."  *Para. 3*  Demographics don't have to be destiny, but other social trends do little to contradict the dire predictions. Nearly all the factors that contribute to youth crime--single-parent households, child abuse, deteriorating inner-city schools--are getting worse. At the same time, government is becoming less, not more, interested in spending money to help break the cycle of poverty and crime. All of which has led John J. DiIulio Jr., a professor of politics and public affairs at Princeton, to warn about a new generation of "superpredators," youngsters who are coming of age in actual and "moral poverty,'' without "the benefit of parents, teachers, coaches and clergy to teach them right or wrong and show them unconditional love."  *Para. 4*  Predicting a generation's future crime patterns is, of course, risky, especially when outside factors (Will crack use be up or down? Will gun laws be tightened?) remain unpredictable. Michael Tonry, a professor of law and public policy at the University of Minnesota, argues that the demographic doomsayers are unduly alarmist. "There will be a slightly larger number of people relative to the overall population who are at high risk for doing bad things, so that's going to have some effect," he concedes. "But it's not going to be an apocalyptic effect." Norval Morris, professor of law and criminology at the University of Chicago, finds DiIulio's notion of superpredators too simplistic: "The human animal in young males is quite a violent animal all over the world. The people who put forth the theory of moral poverty lack a sense of history and comparative criminology."  *Para. 5*  Yet other students of the inner city are more pessimistic. "All the basic elements that spawn teenage crime are still in place, and in many cases the indicators are worse," says Jonathan Kozol, author of Amazing Grace, an examination of poverty in the South Bronx. "There's a dramatic increase of children in foster care, and that's a very high-risk group of kids. We're not creating new jobs, and we're not improving education to suit poor people for the jobs that exist."  *Para. 6*  Can anything defuse the demographic time bomb? Fox urges "reinvesting in children": improving schools, creating after-school programs and providing other alternatives to gangs and drugs. DiIulio, a law-and-order conservative, advocates tougher prosecution and wants to strengthen religious institutions to instill better values. Yet he opposes the Gingrich-led effort to make deep cuts in social programs. "A failure to maintain existing welfare and health commitment for kids," he says, "is to guarantee that the next wave of juvenile predators will be even worse than we're dealing with today." DiIulio urges fellow conservatives to think of Medicaid not as a health-care program but as "an anticrime policy.''  *(Source: Time Magazine)* |

**IELTS Reading Multiple Choice Questions**

Начало формы

1. Young children are making **criminologists nervous** because

(a) they are committing too much crime.   
(b) they are impulsive and immature.   
(c) they may grow up to be criminals.

2. The general **crime rate** in the US is

(a)increasing  
(b)decreasing  
(c)not changing

3. The age group which commits the **highest rate of crime** is

(a)14 - 17.  
(b)18 - 24.   
(c)24 +.

4. **James Fox** believes that the improvement in crime figures could

(a)make us complacent in the fight against crime.  
(b)result in an increase in teenage violence.   
(c)result in a decrease in teenage violence.

5. According to paragraph 3,**the government**

(a)is doing everything it can to solve the problem.  
(b)is not interested in solving the problem.  
(c)is not doing enough to solve the problem.

6. In comparison with James Fox, **Michael Tonry** is

(a)more pessimistic.  
(b)less pessimistic.   
(c)equally pessimistic.

7. **Jonathan Kozol** believes that

(a)there is no solution to the problem.  
(b)employment and education are not the answer.  
(c)employment and education can improve the situation.

8. **Professor DiIulio** thinks that spending on social programs

(a) should continue as it is  
(b)should be decreased.   
(c)is irrelevant to crime rates.

Конец формы

UNIT 5

Approaches to active reading

*FOCUS ON THEORY*

It is very important to be an ACTIVE reader as this will help you retain information in a text and help you make the right kind of notes – it is essentially reading for a purpose rather than just browsing. Before you launch into reading a chapter or section or journal article, you may need to ask yourself to **Preview and Predict.** Do this by asking yourself the following:

* **Why Am I Reading This?**
* What do I Want to Find?
* What information do I already know and will the text ‘fill in the gaps’ for me?
* Is this the most appropriate text for my purpose?

###### BEFORE READING *Ask yourself some questions*.

When you start to read you should be asking yourself what *type* of information you need/want. This can fall into three categories: Literal, Inferential or Critical.

###### Literal For example:

* + Who was responsible for making Laws?

###### Inferential For example:

* + Can you find evidence in your reading that a specific Law is effective?
  + What do different people say? Whose arguments are stronger?

###### Critical For example:-

* + Has the author given enough evidence to be convincing? (think of your own reading of a topic)
  + Are the results reliable and valid?
  + Is the author’s interpretation sound?

###### DURING READING *Use color effectively*

Many students find that it is useful **to color code information**. To do this most effectively you will need to photocopy sections of text which you think are most relevant and crucial to your work. As you are reading you will have to make decisions about what sort of information it is in order to code it. This means that you will be interacting more with the text rather than being a surface reader.

Decisions about color coding can only be made effectively if you know your purpose for reading and what it is that you are looking for. For example, you may want to code the main ideas in one color in a section or paragraph and the evidence or examples or subsidiary information in another color.

* You may want to pick out key references and names and use codes to categorize these.
* Some students find that they like to code the author’s opinions in one colour and the inferred information in another.
* As you can see there are many ways in which you can be creative to make you question what you are reading and to help you make more effective notes.

## Developing reading strategies – the SQ3R Reading Strategy

|  |
| --- |
| The SQ3R Reading Method **S**urvey - **Q**uestion - **R**ead - **R**ecite - **R**eview |

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Survey** | • Survey the text before you start reading it from the first to the last page. • Consider its title, and headings and subheadings of chapters. What do they tell you about the content of the text? • Read introductory paragraphs and summaries of chapters. • Look for pictures, maps, graphs, charts illustrating meaning. • Check if the text has a subject index / glossary which may help you find specific information. |
| **Question** | • Do not try to cram into your head everything. Focus attention and what seems relevant or important.  • Ask yourself: 'What do I already know about this topic?' • Ask yourself: 'Why do I read this text and what is my task in the seminar paper I am preparing?' • Ask yourself: 'What is important information for me?' • Ask: 'What is the context in which the author puts the text?' |
| **Read** | • When reading, focus first on what you do understand, do not first pick out and be taken aback by passages which you do not understand. • Reread passages which are not clear; use contextual clues and inferencing procedures for understanding them. • Look up words which you do not know in a dictionary but do so only for words which you feel are essential for understanding the text. • Read for meaning, relate what you read to what you know and ask yourself if it makes sense. |
| **Recite** | • At the end of a chapter summarize, in your own words, what you have just read. • Take notes from the text and underline/ highlight important points you have just read. • Ask yourself how the content of one chapter relates to that of another and why the author arranged them in that sequence. • Make notes of what seem to you open or controversial issues. |
| **Review** | • Learning is not possible without reviewing. Repetition is essential. Go over the notes you made or re-read a book or article after some time has elapsed. • Make notes of important points and create your own order. |

## Reading journal articles

Many students find reading journal articles more difficult than text books and are daunted by the fact that journal articles are written by current experts in their field of study and sometimes their own lecturers.

It is useful to adopt a two-fold approach to reading an article:

Get a quick overview

* Read the **abstract** which contains a summary of the article and should contain the rationale for the study as well as the main results and an interpretation of the results.
* Read the **summary** and **conclusions**. If the article does not have a summary, skim through the discussion section of the article. As you read ask yourself whether the information is relevant to your own reading purpose or research. Will it be useful for your assignment?

Go back and get the details

* Ask yourself questions and search for the answers in order to focus your reading.
* Read the article critically and analyze and evaluate the findings.

*GOING ONLINE*

Active reading strategies <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=DfGJkCfxNv8>

*FOCUS ON READING*

**Practice 11**

1. **Skim the text. What kind of influence can movies have on the society?**
2. **What films are mentioned in the text? What problems do they highlight?**

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
|  | **Don’t just sit there, participate!** |

Film producers are usually in it for the money, whatever they might say about wanting to produce great art or entertainment.  But when Jeff Skoll, founder of Participant Productions, says he wants his films to change the world, you somehow believe him.  After all, he doesn’t exactly need the money.

Skoll, together with a university colleague, founded eBay, and consequently is now a billionaire.  When he left eBay in 2000 he turned his sights to philanthropic projects.  He had long harboured a dream to write stories which would change the world, but then realised he could use his wealth to hire writers.  And what better way to get those stories out to the public than to make them into films?

Participant Productions came into being in 2004, and now has its first batch of successful films under its belt.  Syriana, starring George Clooney as an American spy, looks at how America’s dependence on Middle Eastern oil results in global violence.  Another George Clooney film, Goodnight, and Good Luck, which the actor also directed and co-wrote, is a drama about Senator Joseph McCarthy and his attempts to censor American television news. In 2007 An Inconvenient Truth, the film presented by Al Gore about the climate crisis, won Academy Awards for Best Documentary Feature and Original Song.

The first film to come out, North Country, was less successful at the box office than the Clooney films, but still critically acclaimed.  Starring Charlize Theron, it tells the story of a woman working as a miner, and the sexual harassment she and her female colleagues face.

Hollywood has seen a spate of ‘political’ films, such as Munich, The Constant Gardener and Blood Diamonds, and it could be said that Participant is jumping on the bandwagon.  Nobody else, however, is doing what Skoll is doing.  Participant works in partnership with activist groups and organises a specific campaign to tie in with each film.  Its community website (participate.net) helps people get involved by taking part in group blogs as well as the campaigns.

For North Country the company has set up a campaign to end sexual harassment and domestic violence, and the website has downloadable information kits.  Goodnight, and Good Luck is tied in with a campaign to promote better reporting of the news, which encourages people to write in with news stories from their neighbourhoods.  Syriana’s campaign is Oil Change, which aims to reduce dependence on oil by informing people about ways they can make a difference as individuals.

Are these campaigns having any effect?  It’s too early to say, but if the number of people visiting the website is anything to go on then the message is getting across that people can participate and films can be a vehicle for social change.

**Practice12**

**Match each of these six heading with one of the paragraphs in the text**

1. **Keeping a close eye on things**
2. **Time is running out**
3. **A puzzle**
4. **Increase on growth rate**
5. **Laws of nature**
6. **North and south differences**

**Climate change**

**1.**Climate change, global warming, the greenhouse effect ... these days nobody denies that there is something strange and worrying happening to the atmosphere. But for the second year running scientists are puzzled by the rise in carbon dioxide in the atmosphere. They are afraid that the world may be a short way from what they refer to as runaway global warming.

**2.**At Mauna Loa Observatory in Hawaii, meteorologists have been carefully monitoring the amount of carbon dioxide in the Earth’s atmosphere for the past fifty years. Until recently here has been a gradual increase of around 1.5 parts per million (ppm). Scientists began to feel anxious in 2002 when the figure rose to 2.08 ppm. Their fears heightened the following year when they registered an increase of 2.54 ppm.

**3.**This is not the first time that the carbon dioxide count has gone off course. Natural events - such as when the Pacific warms up during hurricanes – have explained away other changes in CO2 levels.

**4.**Climate analysts feel that it is too soon to draw conclusions about the phenomenon although some are concerned that the carbon dioxide emissions are getting out of control. They are starting to think that instead of having decades to find a solution to the problem, we might have only a few years. Some believe that the Earth’s natural systems for absorbing the gas are breaking down resulting in the runaway greenhouse effect. This is something that could happen if the Earth’s temperatures rose to such a degree that the planet was unable to contain the heat.

**5.**One interesting aspect of this climate change is that it is not happening in a uniform way around the World. Carbon dioxide levels in the South Pole are noticeably lower. This suggests that something has happened in the northern hemisphere which set off the rise. Forest fires might hold the answer to the puzzle, along with a couple of very hot summers in Europe. Vegetation would have died off and more carbon would have been released from the soil into the atmosphere.

**6.**  The 2003 heatwave was certainly out of the ordinary. Statistics claim that more than 30,000 people lost their lives as a direct result of the high temperatures. Scientists are being cautious in their interpretations. Most feel that it is too soon to say that a new trend has been set. All agree that the phenomenon needs to be closely observed.

**Practice 13**

**Read this text about the Celtic musical instrument, the bagpipes, and look at the questions which follow.**

1. **Skim the text. Which of the following is/are not mentioned? Match the correct answers to the paragraphs.**
2. **history of bagpipes**
3. **the material it is made of**
4. **where you can buy one**
5. **whether it is difficult to play**
6. **what instruments can accompany bagpipes**
7. **similar musical instruments in other countries**
8. **how to play a bagpipe**
9. **the modern usage if bagpipes**
10. **Summarize the text in 4-5 sentences.**

**Bagpipes**

'To the making of a piper go seven years of his own learning, and seven generations before’

**A** While excavating the site of a new housing estate near Dublin in May 2004, archaeologists made an amazing discovery - a set of wooden pipes which had been buried for 4,000 years. Nobody knows who played them or how, but experiments show that they could produce the notes A flat, E flat and F natural.

The playing of pipes made of bone, and later wood, was common for centuries among shepherds not just in Ireland but across the whole of Europe. At some point they added a bag made from the bladder of a goat or sheep and finger holes were put into one of the pipes to play different notes, while the others were left to produce a long, continuous sound or drone. The bagpipes were born.

**B** As the quotation at the top indicates, it is a complicated instrument to master. Someone once described it as trying to make love to an octopus! It is far easier to get a noise from the bagpipes rather than the more familiar tunes - the marches, reels and jigs and the slower airs and laments.

**C** To learn the instrument you can attend a School of Piping, although many fail to finish the course. Several countries also have piping competitions which sort the best from the mediocre. Very often the tradition of playing runs in the family. Usually, tunes are learned by imitating a more experienced player as the music is not written down.

**D** In Scotland, piping has for a long time been closely associated with the military tradition, pipers being integrated into regiments of the British Army. The bagpipe produces a very big sound which is often accompanied by drums. In France, the Breton pipe or biniou, is common at processions and at festou-noz or night feasts, and is also played with drums.

**E** The Irish version, the ‘uillean’ pipes, is named after the Gaelic word for elbow, because they have a small bellows which is pumped by the elbow to provide the air. They have a quieter and sweeter sound and can produce chords, combinations of notes, as well. They were originally played unaccompanied at dances, fairs, or football matches.

**F** With the revival in folk music from 1960s onwards and the rise of the spontaneous session in pubs, the pipes began to be played together with a fiddle, whistle, guitar and bodrán, a hand-held drum.

As folk music fused with rock and pop in the1970s and 80s, the bagpipes found a place in bands such as Runrig and Capercaillie in Scotland or Setima Legião in Portugal, and have been championed by virtuosos such as Carlos Nuñez in Galicia, or Kathryn Tickell from Northumberland in England. More recently the pipe sounds have been integrated successfully with trance and techno music by projects such as the Afro-Celt Sound System.

**Practice 14**

1. **Read the first sentence of each paragraph in the following text. Notice how reading these sentences gives you a good idea about the meaning of the text. Predict what the text is going to be about.**
2. **Read the whole text. Were your predictions right?**

**Body language**

*What does scientific literature tell us about the idea that body language reflects our real feelings*? One experiment carried out about 10 years ago by Ross Buck from Carnegie-Mellon University in Pennsylvania suggests that spontaneous facial expression is not a very good index of real emotional state. Buck and his colleagues tested the accuracy with which people could identify the emotions felt by another person. They presented one set of subjects with colour slides involving a variety of emotionally-loaded visual stimuli - such as "scenic" slides (landscapes, etc), "maternal" slides (mothers and young children), disgusting slides (severe facial injuries and burns) and unusual slides (art objects). Unknown to these subjects, they were being televised and viewed by another matched set of subjects, who were asked to decide, on the basis of the televised facial expressions, which of the four sets of slides had just been viewed. This experiment involved both male and female pairs, but no pairs comprising both men and women; that is men observed only men, and women observed women. Buck found that the female pairs correctly identified almost 40 per cent of the slides used - this was above the level which would be predicted by chance alone. (Chance level is 25 per cent here, as there were four classes of slide). But male pairs correctly identified only 28 per cent of slides - not significantly above chance level. In other words, this study suggests that facial expression is not a very good index of "real" feeling - and in the case of men watching and interpreting other men, is almost useless.

*Paul Ekman from the University of California has conducted a long series of experiments on nonverbal leakage (or how nonverbal behaviour may reveal real inner states) which has yielded some more positive and counter-intuitive results*. Ekman has suggested that nonverbal behaviour may indeed provide a clue to real feelings and has explored in some detail people actively involved in deception, where their verbal language is not a true indication of how they really feel. Ekman here agrees with Sigmund Freud, who was also convinced of the importance of nonverbal behaviour in spotting deception when he wrote: "He that has eyes to see and ears to hear may convince himself that no mortal can keep a secret. If his lips are silent, he chatters with his finger-tips; betrayal oozes out of him at every pore."

*Ekman predicted that the feet and legs would probably hold the best clue to deception because although the face sends out very quick instantaneous messages, people attend to and receive most feedback from the face and therefore try to control it most.* In the case of the feet and legs the "transmission time" is much longer but we have little feedback from this part of the body. In other words, we are often unaware of what we are doing with our feet and legs.

*Ekman suggested that the face is equipped to lie the most (because we are often aware of our facial expression) and to "leak" the most (because it sends out many fast momentary messages) and is therefore going to be a very confusing source of information during deception*. The legs and feet would be the primary source of nonverbal leakage and hold the main clue to deception. The form the leakage in the legs and feet would take would include "aggressive foot kicks, flirtatious leg displays, abortive restless flight movements". Clues to deception could be seen in "tense leg positions, frequent shifts of leg posture, and in restless or repetitive leg and foot movements."

*Ekman conducted a series of experiments to test his speculations, some involving psychiatric patients who were engaging in deception, usually to obtain release from hospital*. He made films of interviews involving the patients and showed these, without sound, to one of two groups of observers. One group viewed only the face and head, the other group, the body from the neck down. Each observer was given a list of 300 adjectives describing attitudes, emotional state, and so on, and had to say which adjectives best described the patients. The results indicated quite dramatically that individuals who utilised the face tended to be misled by the patients, whereas those who concentrated on the lower body were much more likely to detect the real state of the patients and not be misled by the attempted deception.

*These studies thus suggest that some body language may indeed reflect our real feelings, even when we are trying to disguise them.* Most people can, however, manage to control facial expression quite well and the face often seems to provide little information about real feeling. Paul Ekman has more recently demonstrated that people can be trained to interpret facial expression more accurately but this, not surprisingly, is a slow laborious process. Ekman's research, suggests that the feet and legs betray a great deal about real feelings and attitudes but the research is nowhere near identifying the meanings of particular foot movements. Ray Birdwhistell of the Eastern Pennsylvania Psychiatric Institute has gone some way towards identifying some of the basic nonverbal elements of the legs and feet, and as a first approximation has identified 58 separate elements. But the meanings of these particular elements is far from clear and neither are the rules for combining the elements into larger meaningful units. Perhaps in years to come we will have a "language" of the feet provided that we can successfully surmount the problems described earlier in identifying the basic forms of movement following Birdwhistell's pioneering efforts, of how they may combine into larger units, and in teaching people how they might make sense of apparently contradictory movements*. In the meantime, if you go to a party and find someone peering intently at your feet - beware.*

(From *Manwatching* by Desmond Morris, Triad Panther, 1977)

**Practice 15**

**Read the following text about the Loch Ness monster and fill in the table.**

**Does the Loch Ness monster exist?**

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Type of evidence** | **Date** | **Source** | **Details/features of monster** | **Reliability/reasons for doubt** |
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**'A modern look at Monsters' by Daniel Cohen**

Each nation had its own conception of evil spirits or monsters that lived in deep lakes. In the Highlands of Scotland, the monstrous inhabitants of lakes (or lochs) were called 'water horses" or "water bulls." There was hardly a loch or bay which, according to local folklore, did not have some sort of monster in it.

But the Loch Ness monster has a better pedigree than most of the other Scottish lake monsters. While most were only known in oral tradition, the Loch Ness monster was mentioned in writing in AD. 565. The monster, it seems, ran afoul of the great Scottish holy man, Saint Columba. Adamnan, Saint Columba's biographer, tells of an incident where the saint saved a swimmer from the rampaging monster by saying, "Think not to go further, touch not thou that man. Quick! Go back! Then the beast, upon hearing the voice of the saint, was terrified and fled backwards more rapidly than he came."

It was traditional in pagan societies for heroes to slay dragons and other monsters. When the pagans became Christians these monster-fighting activities were often taken over by the saints. The story of Saint Columba and the Loch Ness monster would have remained nothing more than an obscure bit of folklore, to be treated no more seriously than the story of Saint George and the dragon, had it not been for the events of 1933-1934.

During those years a road was built around the once-isolated loch in the Highlands. The construction brought a large number of outsiders to Loch Ness, and clearing the shore of the loch for the road gave observers a better view of the water. In those years the Loch Ness monster appeared, or reappeared, if we are to accept the story of Saint Columba.

The Loch Ness monster captured the public fancy as no creature real or imaginary has in a very long time. It knocked the Great Sea Serpent right out of contention as the number one unknown animal in the world. To this day, despite years of disappointment, the Loch Ness monster remains the world's most popular monster, and the only one for which there is a regular and well-organized search.

So much has already been written on the Loch Ness monster that it seems unnecessary to give another detailed account of its history. A brief rundown of background information will be supplied but we will concentrate on developments in the story of the monster during the last few years.

Of the thousands who have reported seeing the monster since 1933 the vast majority have seen only its back or "humps". Most commonly what they have seen is a shape in the water that looks something like an upturned boat, or a string of them. This shape may be anywhere from a few inches to many feet above the water.

Only a small number have reported actually seeing the creature's head and neck. One of the first people to sight the creature's head, and indeed the man who claims to have coined the term Loch Ness monster, is Alex Campbell, a retired fisheries official at the loch. He saw the monster for the first time in 1934. 'It had a long tapering neck, about six feet long, and a smallish head, with a serpentine look about it, and a huge hump behind which I reckon was about thirty feet long. It was turning its head constantly.

In addition to his duty at the loch, Campbell was also a correspondent for the Inverness Courier, the local newspaper for the region. It was Campbell's reports that helped catapult the Loch Ness monster to world-wide fame. Why did he call it monster? "Not because there was anything horrible about it at all, but because of the great size of the creature."

The serpentine appearance of the monster's head and neck was firmly fixed in the public's consciousness by "the famous London surgeon's photograph." It was taken in 1934 by Kenneth Wilson, a surgeon on holiday in Scotland. The photo apparently shows the snakelike neck and tiny head of the monster sticking out of the waters of the loch.

In the 1930s most people agreed that the monster looked very much like an ancient marine reptile plesiosaur. At the time the plesiosaur was also a popular candidate for the Great Sea Serpent, and so was very much on every-one's mind.

After the first sensational sightings there were no further important revelations about the monster. The sceptics and the jokers began to move in. By the beginning of World War II (during which time it dropped out of the news entirely) the Loch Ness monster came to be regarded as either a hoax concocted by canny Scots hotel owners or a hallucination seen only by those who imbibed too freely in Scotland's most famous product.

But a hardy few kept the faith. After the war they came back to Loch Ness and in the face of scorn and ridicule managed to collect what has to be considered the best evidence for the existence of any monster anywhere in the world.

Exhibit A in the new case for the Loch Ness monster is the Dinsdale film. In 1960 monster watcher and amateur photographer Tim Dinsdale filmed what he thought to be the monster swimming in the far side of the loch.

To the untrained observer the short film shows little - just a spot moving through the water. It could be anything - a motorboat, for example. That is what many viewers claimed, and still claim the film shows. In 1965 David James, a former Member of Parliament who had become interested in the Loch Ness "problem", persuaded photographic interpretation experts at the Royal Air Force to examine the Dinsdale film. On the basis of an exhaustive frame-by-frame analysis the RAF reported that the shape in the film is "probably an animate object." Furthermore, they speculated that the object might be as much as ninety-two feet in length although it was probably more like thirty or forty feet long and "not less than six feet wide and five feet high." It was also moving through the water at a considerable speed.

Since Dinsdale took his film other films have been taken, all at long range. One apparently shows the humps of two monsters moving side by side through the water. Another supposedly shows the monster on a small pebbly beach at the loch. The problem with these films, as with the Dinsdale film, is that they are unspectacular. The object that is supposed to be the monster appears as nothing more than a little blob. Despite the RAF report many refuse to consider the case for the Loch Ness monster proven. They contend, quite correctly, that photographic interpretation, even when done by experts, is far from an exact science. The quality of the monster films is so poor that even the experts might easily be wrong.

Public interest in the monster was beginning to wane again until 1968, when it received a new lease of life. Scientists from the University of Birmingham (England) using a new type of sonar equipment picked up stirrings in Loch Ness that seemed highly suggestive. (The tests were made in 1967 but the results were not published until the following year). The conclusions drawn from the tests were highly tentative. Wrote Hugh Braithwaite who headed the expedition: "Since the objects . are clearly comprised of animals, is it possible they could be fish? The high rate of ascent and descent makes it seem very unlikely, and fishery biologists we have consulted cannot suggest what fish they might be. It is a temptation to suppose they must be the fabulous Loch Ness monsters, now observed for the first time in their underwater activities! The present data, while leaving this a possiblility, are quite inadequate to decide the matter. A great deal of further investigation with more refined equipment - which is not at present available - is needed before definite conclusions can be drawn."

But even this cautious approach was quickly challenged by other scientists who said what the sonar had picked up was a "ghost" not a monster. The University of Birmingham equipment, they said, was registering a false image, a not uncommon occurrence with sonar.

Naturally, during this period the Loch Ness monster, or Nessie, as she, he, it, or they is affectionately called by the watchers, has not gone unnoticed. Aside from the tourists who flock by the hundreds each summer to the shores of Loch Ness to see if they can catch a glimpse of the elusive creature, there has been, since 1963, a regular yearly expedition organized to watch for the monster. The expedition is run by the Loch Ness Phenomena Investigation Bureau, Ltd. founded by David James. During the warmer months a full crew of watchers, armed with binoculars and cameras, drive specially equipped vans to various locations around the loch. On a good day they have virtually the entire surface of Loch Ness under visual observation. Most of the watchers are student volunteers from various countries. (America is most heavily represented.) Two weeks of monster watching makes a cheap and often exciting holiday. But it would be a mistake to underestimate either the seriousness or competence of these amateurs. The bureau is a non-profit organization.

Field Director of the Loch Ness Investigation is Clem Skelton, a photographer with a severe case of monster fever. During the long Highland winter, when the weather becomes frigid and the daylight almost negligible, and the tourists and college students abandon the shores of Loch Ness, Skelton and his wife remain in their trailer on the shores of the loch. Their closest neighbour may be the monster itself.

Since he spends more time looking for the monster than anyone else, Skelton has quite naturally seen the monster or what he thinks is the monster more times than anyone else.

Once, he says, he was practically on top of it. In June 1964 Skelton saw the creature's hump from a distance of only fifteen yards. "I was rowing a boat across the loch at 12.30 a.m. It never really gets dark at Loch Ness in the middle of June, there is always a glow in the sky. I looked over my right shoulder and there it was. It was the classic upturned boat sighting, but it was bigger than my boat and if anyone wanted to win the diamond skulls at Henley he should have rowed nearly as fast as I did to get out of its way.

Skelton is absolutely convinced that there is a monster in Loch Ness. Many others who have seen what they take to be the monster are equally convinced, as are a lot of people who have never seen the monster at all. Each year the Loch Ness Investigation carefully records all the sightings. From their lists they try to eliminate all hoaxes and mistakes. Skelton figures that eighty to ninety percent of the people who think they have seen the monster have really seen something else. The remaining probable sightings are then carefully tallied and published by the Bureau at the end of the year. They make an impressive record. But the monster watchers know that they need more than an endless accumulation of sighting reports to convince the scientific world and the public at large that Nessie exists.

Numerous suggestions have been made for catching the monster, from poisoning the loch to stretching a net across it. Less drastic but more practical suggestions have been offered for getting a piece of the monster's hide (or whatever) by the use of a harpoon or crossbow. In 1962 a small ship sailed around Loch Ness with a crew member on deck, ready with a long pole tipped with a piece of sticky stuff. The hope was that with the pole and sticky material they could detach a scale or piece of skin from the monster. The problem was that in order to stick, or shoot, or prod the monster you have to get close to it. In this the monster has proved thoroughly uncooperative.

Most hopes are pinned on getting what members of the Bureau call "The Picture" - a good close up shot, or preferably film of the monster with its head above the water. This, they feel, unlike the vague spots and shapes which have appeared in the other pictures, would clinch the case for the monster. For this reason they have spent the bulk of their funds, which come from private donations and grants, on buying good camera equipment. The largest single grant, twenty thousand dollars, came from Field Educational Enterprises, the same organization that helped to bankroll an expedition to find the Abominable Snowman in the Himalayas.

The Loch Ness monster is a near-perfect subject for scientific investigation. Unlike the Great Sea Serpent, which could be anywhere in the vast expanse or abyssal depths of the oceans, the Loch Ness monster is strictly confined. No large creature could get in or out of Loch Ness without being observed. So whatever it is lives in the loch and has for a long time. Naturally the monster buffs do not say what they are seeing is the same ageless specimen confronted by Saint Columba a millennium ago. They speak of the loch as home for a small but viable breeding herd of monsters.

Many people wonder why, if the monster's range is so confined, a specimen has not yet been captured or at least photographed at closer range. The question is a good one. But just because the monster has not yet been captured or well photographed, we should not simply jump to the conclusion that it does not exist. Loch Ness is a lot bigger than it looks on the map. It is the largest body of fresh water in the British Isles, cutting twenty-four miles through Scotland's Great Glen. At one end it is connected to the sea by the little river Ness. It also serves as a link in the Caledonian Canal which bisects the Highlands and is the country's principal waterway.

The waters of Loch Ness are deep, dark, cold, and often dangerous. Average width of the loch is only a mile, but the sides plunge precipitously to depths of over seven hundred feet. A suspension of peat makes the water brown and murky and the few divers who have ventured into it found themselves in a world where even a strong light would penetrate no more than twelve feet. The loch never freezes, but it never really warms up either. Throughout the year the temperature hovers in the chilly mid-forties. Currents of surprising strength can catch the unwary boater, and more than one has rowed or sailed onto the loch and never been seen again.

Because of the dangers of the loch, the history of the monster has been kept remarkably free from a particular sort of hoax - the kind in which a group of jokers float a model monster in the water. The model would have to be propelled in some way, presumably by a swimmer or a group of swimmers underwater. It would then have to be pulled under or gotten out of sight in some other way, before the startled observers had a chance to discover what it really was. But nobody wants to go swimming in Loch Ness, particularly underwater. A group of college students who built a rubber monster were forced to float it in a smaller, friendlier loch nearby.

Divers don't like to go into the loch at all. When they do they can't see much anyway. So there is little point in searching for the monster underwater except by sonar. You might think that with all the publicity the monster has received in the last decade the shores of Loch Ness would be packed solidly with tourists bristling with binoculars and cameras and that the boats would be as thick as rowboats in the Central Park lagoon. Actually, even at the peak of the tourist season Loch Ness seems pleasantly uncrowded to an American. There are relatively few good places to sit and watch for the monster, and the weather is so rotten so often that only the most dedicated will brave it regularly. Boats are surprisingly infrequent on the loch, and if you wished to rent one you would find them scarce.

Despite all the publicity, the search for the Loch Ness monster remains remarkably under financed. Visitors to the loch often ask expedition members why they don't just send down a miniature submarine to find the monster - as if miniature submarines were the cheapest and most easily obtainable things in the world. The Loch Ness investigators have never had anywhere near the amount of funds they need to conduct a thorough investigation.

In 1969 a miniature submarine actually was brought to the loch to aid in the investigation. But the submarine was a homemade contraption, and it never worked properly. Despite high hopes it added nothing to our knowledge of the Loch Ness monster.

Therefore, it is possible - barely perhaps - but possible, that a large unknown creature or rather a group of them really do live in the depths of Loch Ness and have escaped conclusive detection.

Cohen, Daniel *The Greatest Monsters in the World.* New York: Dodd, Mead, 1975

UNIT 6

How to read fast

*FOCUS ON THEORY*

#### Increasing Reading Speed

* If you are determined and prepared to practise, then you should be able to train yourself to read faster and improve your concentration and level of comprehension.
* Our eyes move, pause and recognize characters. Every time the eye stops it is called a fixation. (The period in which reading matter is recognized, understood and stored in memory.) The size and length of the fixation is the important factor.
* The slower reader reads the text word by word. The average reader links together unimportant words with key words so that there are fewer fixations – this increases reading speed. The fast reader is the most efficient and reads whole phrases at a time.
* Skimming and scanning are modes of fast reading which can be practised by training in high speed reading. For an understanding of meaning to occur in speed reading, it is necessary to read in ‘chunks’. Estimates are that readers’ eyes must scan about 400 words a minute. High speed reading is mostly sustainable for short bursts only. The mind needs pauses for evaluation and assimilation of information (time to think and digest).
* You can train yourself to read larger chunks of text at each fixation but you will need to practise this skill.
* Avoid **backtracking** when reading. Backtracking is when you read a few words and then go back over them because you have not understood the point properly. By doing this you are interrupting the flow of reading and confusing your understanding rather than clarifying it. It is far better to get to the end of a section by reading it straight through and then re-reading it if necessary. A difficult section is often better read quickly twice than once slowly!
* Avoid ‘sounding out’ words in your head as you read. This slows you down.
* You need to vary your reading style and speed according to the material you are reading
* Remember reading improves with practice, and the more you are familiar with advanced reading texts the more quickly you will be able to get access to the information.
* There are some web sites which you can visit which will help you to improve and increase your reading speed.

[www.mindtools.com/pages/article/newISS\_03.htm](http://www.mindtools.com/pages/article/newISS_03.htm)

[www.rapidreading.co.uk](http://www.rapidreading.co.uk)

*GOING ONLINE*

Speed reading <http://www.youtube.com/embed/E3Gc9vun8zM>

*FOCUS ON READING*

**Practice 16** *(the task is borrowed from Objective IELTS advanced by M. Black and A. Capel)*

Among the ways to increase your reading speed are

1. training your eyes to process group of words rather than reading every word separately (TEXT A)
2. focusing your eyes on key words in the sentence (TEXT B)

Both texts are about 150 words. An efficient reader would read each text within 30 seconds. Time yourself as you read. Which approach suits you better?

***TEXT A***

*For years* **I was confused** *about my writing* **because I simply** *could not carry out* **my teachers’ instructions**. *They were always telling me*, **“You must make a plan***” and kept saying that* **my essays needed** *“to be more organized*”. **I found it very difficult** *to make an outline* **and then stick to it**. *My mind did not seem* **to work that way**. *I always had to* **start writing** *and sometimes write quite a lot* **before I knew** *where I might be going*. **That meant** *I usually had to cut* **and do different drafts**. *Sometimes* **I would find that** *I had to start* **writing one section** *even if it was* **in the middle of the assignment**, *and then build up* **the whole thing slowly**, *in bits*. **In the end** *it worked out*, **and now I seem** *to have found* **my own mix of a method**.

**TEXT B**

When I **write** I try to get down some **headings** that seem to **relate** to the question. At least they give me an **idea** of what **topics** and **divisions** my writing should have. But I am **not** still **sure** if I have an **argument**. I start to **write** what I can under these **headings** and, as I go, I am trying to **find** a way of **joining** these parts **together**. When I have got my first **draft** like this, I will go **back** and put in bits that **improve** the **links** between the different **parts**. I may **move** some material **around** at this stage. Sometimes I have to **cut** out quite a lot because now that I am much **clearer** about my **argument**, I realize that **not everything** I originally thought was **interesting** is actually **relevant** or important. Gradually I **fit** the bits **together** to produce a **well-structured** argument.

**Practice 17**

1. **Read the first and last paragraphs in the following text. Try to predict what the text is about.**
2. **Skim the text. Were your predictions correct? What advice does the author give to students?**
3. **Give titles to the paragraphs.**
4. **Scan the text for characteristics if skimmers and scanners. How can scanning and skimming benefit to readers?**
5. **Summarize the text in 8-10 sentences.**

**Adaptive control of reading rate**

**A** One important factor in reading is the voluntary, adaptive control of reading rate, i.e. the ability to adjust the reading rate to the particular type of material being read.

Adaptive reading means changing reading speed throughout a text in response to both the difficulty of material and one's purpose in reading it. Learning how to monitor and adjust reading style is a skill that requires a great deal of practice.

**B** Many people, even college students are unaware that they can learn to control their reading speed. However, this factor can be greatly improved with a couple of hundred hours of work, as opposed to the thousands of hours needed to significantly alter language comprehension. Many college reading skills programmes include a training procedure aimed at improving students' control of reading speed. However, a number of problems are involved in success-fully implementing such a programme. The first problem is to convince the students that they should adjust their reading rates. Many students regard skimming as a sin and read everything in a slow methodical manner. On the other hand, some students believe that everything, including difficult mathematical texts, can be read at the rate appropriate for a light novel. There seems to be evidence that people read more slowly than necessary.

**C** A number of studies on college students have found that when the students are forced to read faster than their self-imposed rate, there is no loss in retention of information typically regarded as important.

The second problem involved in teaching adaptive reading lies in convincing the students of the need to be aware of their purposes in reading. The point of adjusting reading rates is to serve particular purposes. Students who are unaware of what they want to get out of a reading assignment will find it difficult to adjust their rates appropriately. They should know in advance what they want.

**D** Once these problems of attitude are overcome, a reading skills course can concentrate on teaching the students the techniques for reading at different rates. Since most students have had little practice at rapid reading, most of the instruction focuses on how to read rapidly. Scanning is a rapid reading technique appropriate for searching out a piece of information embedded in a much larger text - for example a student might scan this passage for an evaluation of adaptive reading. A skilled scanner can process 10,000 or more words per minute. Obviously, at this rate scanners only pick up bits and pieces of information and skip whole paragraphs. It is easy for scanners to miss the target entirely, and they often have to rescan the text. Making quick decisions as to what should be ignored and what should be looked at takes practice. However, the benefits are enormous. I would not be able to function as an academic without this skill because I would not be able to keep up with all the information that is generated in my field.

**E** Skimming is the processing of about 800-1500 words a minute - a rate at which identifying every word is probably impossible. Skimming is used for extracting the gist of the text. The skill is useful when the skimmer is deciding whether to read a text, or is previewing a text he wants to read, or is going over material that is already known.

**F** Both scanning and skimming are aided by the knowledge of where the main points tend to be found in the text. A reader who knows where an author tends to put the main points can read selectively. Authors vary in their construction style, and one has to adjust to author differences, but some general rules usually apply. Section headings, first and last paragraphs in a section, first and last sentences in a paragraph, and highlighted material all tend to convey the main points. Students in reading skills programmes often complain that rapid reading techniques require hard work and that they tend to regress towards less efficient reading habits after the end of the programme.

**G** Therefore, it should be emphasized that the adaptive control of the reading rate is hard work because it is a novel skill. Older reading habits seem easy because they have been practised for longer. As students become more practised in adjusting reading rate, they find it easier. I can report that after practising variable reading rates for more than ten years, I find it easier to read a text using an adjustable rate than to read at a slow methodical word by word rate. This is something of a problem for me because part of my professional duties is to edit papers that I would not normally process word by word. I find it very painful to have to read at this rate.

**Practice 18**

1. **Look at the paragraphs titles. Skim the story and match paragraphs to the titles.**
2. **A regular event**
3. **An ever-widening range**
4. **Traditions originate**
5. **Colorful characters**
6. **The first modern Games**
7. **Great achievements**
8. **Now read the text again and decide if the following statements are TRUE or FALSE**
9. **De Coubertin wanted the first Olympic Games to be held in Paris.**
10. **In the 1896 Olympics, medals were given for first and second places.**
11. **The 1908 Games were held in London.**
12. **The Olympic Games have taken place every four years since 1908.**
13. **The Olympic flag and oath were introduced the same year.**
14. **Ice hockey has only appeared in winter Olympics.**
15. **Cricket has featured once in the Olympics.**
16. **Nadia Comeneci won seven gold medals.**
17. **Only people who win medals become famous.**

**The Olympic Games.**

**1**  The Olympic Games were revived in 1896 by Pierre de Coubertin, a young French nobleman, with thirteen countries competing.  De Coubertin had originally wanted them held in Paris, but the organising committee persuaded him that Athens was more appropriate, as the site of the ancient Olympics.  There were competitions in nine sports:  cycling, fencing, gymnastics, lawn tennis, shooting, swimming, track and field athletics, weightlifting and wrestling. Greece won most medals - winners were presented with silver and runners-up got bronze. The Games were a great success, and it was decided to hold them every four years, each year in a different city.

**2**By 1908 the Olympic Games were becoming more popular, with over 2000 competitors from 23 different nations making the trip to London.  For the first time, medals were awarded to the top three places.  Since then the Games have been held every four years, with the exceptions of 1916, 1940 and 1944, when the First and Second World Wars forced their cancellation.  The Winter Olympics were first held in 1924, at Chamonix, France, and take place in the same year as the Summer Olympics, but at a separate site.

**3**  The Olympic flag, consisting of five different coloured rings representing the five regions of the world, was first unveiled in Antwerp in 1920, when the Olympic oath was also introduced. In 1928 in Amsterdam the Olympic flame first burned throughout the competition, having been kindledat the site of the ancient Olympics using the sun's rays and a mirror.

**4**  Since the first modern Games in Athens, many more sports have been added.  The decathlon, consisting of ten disciplines over two days, was introduced in 1912, and ice-hockey appeared in 1920, four years before the Winter Games began.  In more recent times, judo made its first appearance in 1964, and women's shooting events began in 1984.  Beach volleyball was incorporated into the 1996 Olympics.  In fact the range of present and former Olympic sports is vast.  Even the tug-of-war was once an Olympic event, and in 1900 both croquet and cricket made their only appearances.

**5** Many Games are remembered for the great athletes who took part in them.  The 1972 Games will always be associated with the swimmer Mark Spitz, who won seven gold medals.  The 1936 Games in Berlin, intended by Germany to be a showcase for Aryan supremacy, are best remembered for the four gold medals won by the black athlete Jesse Owens, in one of the best track and field performances ever.  In 1976 Romania's Nadia Comaneci, at the age of 14, accumulated seven perfect scores during the gymnastics competition.  When 18-year-old Cassius Clay (later Mohammed Ali) won the boxing light-heavyweight in Rome, he was so proud he didn't take his medal off for two days.

**6**  However, we don't only remember the winners. Taking part is the most important thing, and many competitors go to the Olympics knowing that they do not stand a chance of winning a medal. 'Eddie the Eagle', a  construction worker from Gloucestershire, England, was the first (and only) British Olympic ski jumper and became fleetingly famous for finishing last - he still holds the British ski-jumping record.  In the Sydney Olympics in 2000, 'Eric the Eel' , Eric Moussambani from Equatorial Guinea, became similarly famous for his participation in the 100m freestyle swimming competition, in which he swam the furthest he had ever swum in his life. In one of the slowest times ever, Eric's swim was 30 seconds slower than Arnold Guttmann of Hungary, who won the first 100 metres in the sea near Piraeus, Greece, in 1896.

**H Начало формы**

**Конец формы**

**Practice 19**

**Skimming**

1. **Have a look at the title of the article. What “unsinkable ship” might be mentioned?**
2. **Skim the text and answer the question from the title.**
3. **Was the** [**"practically unsinkable"**](http://www.titanicology.com/FloodingByCompartment.html) **image more connected with engineering or with advertising?**

**Scanning**

1. **Find the following figures in the text and say what they are standing for:**

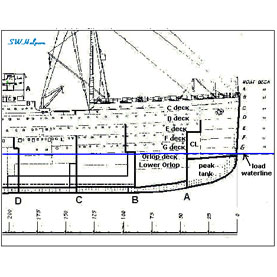
**16, 42000, 1912, 2200, 90, 1911, 11**

1. **Read the text and say whether the following statements are true or false:**
2. **Titanic is the largest ship ever built**
3. **It took less than three hours for Titanic to sink**
4. **The design of compartments at Titanic was an engineering mistake**
5. **Olympic, Titanic's sister ship, collided with the** [**British warship HMS Hawke**](http://www.encyclopedia-titanica.org/hms-hawke.html) **on September 20, 1911, and sank**
6. **The radio at Titanic was switched off**
7. **The Titanic had a double hull**

**Is It Possible to Build an "Unsinkable" Ship?**

By [Larry Greenemeier](http://www.scientificamerican.com/author.cfm?id=1324)

<http://www.scientificamerican.com/article.cfm?id=unsinkable-titanic-engineering>

**FALLIBLE SAFETY FEATURE:** The Titanic was built with 16 major watertight compartments in its lower section designed to be sealed off in the event of a punctured hull. This sketch depicts the Titanic's bow section bulkheads. Image: Courtesy of Encyclopedia Titanica

The claim that the RMS Titanic was ["practically unsinkable"](http://www.titanicology.com/FloodingByCompartment.html) may have been more a marketing tactic than a commentary on its engineering, but its prelaunch reputation of being impervious to the perils of the high seas has lingered for the past 100 years.  
  
It is dangerous to cast engineering projects in such absolute terms—of course there had to be some combination of conditions under which the ocean liner would have failed. As elegant and grand as it was, however, the Titanic—like any other ship—was far from unsinkable.  
  
At nearly 275 meters long with a gross weight of about 42,000 metric tons, the Titanic was the largest ship ever built at the time. It featured 16 major watertight compartments in its lower section that could be sealed off in the event of a punctured hull. Yet the luxury liner sank less than three hours after colliding with a massive iceberg in the North Atlantic, despite some estimates that it should have been able to stay afloat for as long as [three days after an accident at sea](http://www.writing.eng.vt.edu/uer/bassett.html).  
  
The watertight compartments proved to be a fatal design flaw—one that [James Cameron](http://www.scientificamerican.com/article.cfm?id=the-abyss-transit-system) illustrated well early in his 1997 film recounting the fateful April night in 1912 when the Titanic sunk, taking about two thirds of her 2,200 passengers into the icy waters with her. The 90-meter gash in the Titanic's hull caused the ship to take on water near its bow, flooding six of the compartments. When enough water had penetrated the hull breach, the ship pitched forward at an angle that caused water from the individual compartments to spill over their bulkheads, inundating the front of the ship and sending the Titanic like a torpedo to the ocean bottom almost four kilometers below. Had the bulkheads been higher, or watertight at the top as well as the bottom, the water rushing into the hull might have been distributed more evenly, giving passengers more time to escape.  
  
Ironically, builders of the Titanic were given a preview of how their ship might react to a hull breach several months before it even left port. On September 20, 1911, Titanic's sister ship, Olympic, was broadsided by the [British warship HMS Hawke](http://www.encyclopedia-titanica.org/hms-hawke.html), which ripped away metal plates and riveted joints, leaving an 11-meter opening in the starboard side of the Olympic's hull. The collision caused the flooding of two of the Olympic's lower compartments, but the ship was able to make it back to port, perhaps contributing to the unsinkability myth.  
  
Engineering and design are an important part of any construction project, but they are part of a larger system that includes the people that will manage and use the project's end product, whether it is an ocean liner, suspension bridge or [spacecraft](http://www.scientificamerican.com/topic.cfm?id=spacecraft). Scientific American spoke with [Henry Petroski](http://www.cee.duke.edu/faculty/henry-petroski), a professor of both civil engineering and history at Duke University and author of To Forgive Design: Understanding Failure, about the folly of believing a design is infallible, the Titanic's fatal flaws, and how even the best-engineered technology fails when a larger system breaks down.  
  
[An edited transcript of the interview follows.]  
  
**It has been a century since the Titanic disaster. Will engineers ever be able to build an "unsinkable" ship?**  
The short answer is no. And anyway, it seems the claim that it was unsinkable didn't come from engineers but rather from advertisements for the Titanic. The ship had a lot of design features—such as the watertight compartments and their bulkheads—that may have led people to believe that it wouldn't sink.  
  
Any design, whether it's for a ship or an airplane, must be done in anticipation of potential failures. In the case of the Titanic, the engineers would have been asking themselves: "What if we have a hole in the hull?" Well, water's going to come in. "How much water?" That depends on how big the hole is, so you have to make those calculations. You can always imagine a bigger hole or some worse condition.  
  
**What were the Titanic's greatest design flaws?**  
Probably the fact that the bulkheads didn't go higher, so that they weren't truly watertight and didn't actually compartmentalize water between the bulkheads. Other design elements meant to ensure passenger safety weren't adhered to. Although the ship was designed to carry enough lifeboats, it wasn't at the time of the accident, for example. That would be unheard of today. They had radio, which they called wireless back then, for calling other ships, but it was seen more as a novelty at the time, and ships turned them off after hours.  
  
The Titanic also failed to incorporate a crucial safety feature available long before its maiden voyage. In the 1850s there was a [British ship called the SS Great Eastern](http://www.bbc.co.uk/history/british/victorians/seven_wonders_gallery.shtml) designed by Isambard Kingdom Brunel and built by John Scott Russell that featured a [double hull](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Double_hull). A double hull is a similar concept to bulkheads. [Water](http://www.scientificamerican.com/topic.cfm?id=water) comes in but you keep it from overtaking the interior of the hull. Generally speaking, the distance between the hulls is not that great, so the amount of water that gets in won't be that great. The debate over double hulls goes on to this day. After the [Exxon Valdez oil spill](http://www.scientificamerican.com/article.cfm?id=exxon-valdez-20-years-later-oil-spill-prevention) there was a question as to whether all oil tankers should have double hulls.

UNIT 7

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
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| **IELTS Academic Reading in Detail**  *FOCUS ON THEORY*  **Task Type 1 – Multiple choice**   |  |  | | --- | --- | | **Task Type & Format** | In this task type, candidates are required to choose the best answer from four alternatives A, B, C or D, or the best two answers from five alternatives A, B, C, D or E, or the best three answers from seven alternatives A, B, C, D, E, F or G. Candidates write the letter of the answer they have chosen on the answer sheet. The questions may involve completing a sentence, in which the ‘stem’ gives the first part of a sentence and candidates choose the best way to complete it from the options, or could involve complete questions, with the candidates choosing the option which best answers them. The questions are in the same order as the information in the text: that is, the answer to the first question in this group will be located in the text before the answer to the second question, and so on. This task type may be used with any type of text. | | **Task Focus** | This task type tests a wide range of reading skills including detailed understanding of specific points or an overall understanding of the main points of the text. |   **Task Type 2 – Identifying information**   |  |  | | --- | --- | | **Task Type & Format** | The candidate will be given a number of statements and asked: ‘Do the following statements agree with the information in the text?’. Candidates are required to write ‘true’, ‘false’ or ‘not given’ in the boxes on their answer sheets. it is important to understand the difference between 'false' and 'not given'. 'False' means that the passage states the opposite of the statement in question; 'not given' means that the statement is neither confirmed nor contradicted by the information in the passage. (Students need to understand that any knowledge they bring with them from outside the passage should not play a part when deciding on their answers.) | | **Task Focus** | This task type assesses the candidate’s ability to recognize particular points of information conveyed in the text. It can thus be used with more factual texts. | |  |  |   **Task Type 3 – Identifying writer’s views/claims**   |  |  | | --- | --- | | **Task Type & Format** | The candidate will be given a number of statements and asked: ‘Do the following statements agree with the views/claims of the writer?’. Candidates are required to write ‘yes’, ‘no’ or ‘not given’ in the boxes on their answer sheet. It is important to understand the difference between 'no' and 'not given'. 'No' means that the views or claims of the writer explicitly disagree with the statement - i.e. the writer somewhere expresses the view or makes a claim which is opposite to the one given in the question; 'not given' means that the view or claim is neither confirmed nor contradicted. (Students needs to understand that any knowledge they bring with them from outside the passage should not play a part when deciding on their answers.) | | **Task Focus** | This task type assesses the candidate’s ability to recognize opinions or ideas, and is thus often used with discursive or argumentative texts. | |  |  |   **Task Type 4 – Matching information**   |  |  | | --- | --- | | **Task Type & Format** | In this task type, candidates are required to locate specific information in the lettered paragraphs/sections of a text, and to write the letters of the correct paragraphs/sections in the boxes on their answer sheet. They may be asked to find; specific details, an example, a reason, a description, a comparison, a summary, an explanation. They will not necessarily need to find information in every paragraph/section of the text, but there may be more than one piece of information that candidates need to locate in a given paragraph/section. When this is the case, they will be told that they can use any letter more than once. This task type can be used with any text as it may test a wide range of reading skills, from locating detail to recognising a summary or definition etc. | | **Task Focus** | This task type assesses the candidate’s ability to scan for specific information. Unlike Task Type 5 (Matching headings), it is concerned with specific information rather than with the main idea. | |  |  |   **Task Type 5 – Matching headings**   |  |  | | --- | --- | | **Task Type & Format** | In this task type, candidates are given a list of headings, usually identified with lower-case Roman numerals (i, ii, iii etc). A heading will refer to the main idea of the paragraph or section of the text. Candidates must match the heading to the correct paragraphs or sections, which are marked alphabetically. Candidates write the appropriate Roman numerals in the boxes on their answer sheets. There will always be more headings than there are paragraphs or sections, so that some headings will not be used. It is also possible that some paragraphs or sections may not be included in the task. One or more paragraphs or sections may already be matched with a heading as an example for candidates. This task type is used with texts that contain paragraphs or sections with clearly defined themes. | | **Task Focus** | This task type tests the candidate’s ability to recognize the main idea or theme in the paragraphs or sections of a text, and to distinguish main ideas from supporting ones. | |  |  |   **Task Type 6 – Matching features**   |  |  | | --- | --- | | **Task Type & Format** | In this task type, candidates are required to match a set of statements or pieces of information to a list of options. The options are a group of features from the text, and are identified by letters. Candidates may, for example, be required to match different research findings to a list of researchers, or characteristics to age groups, events to historical periods etc. It is possible that some options will not be used, and that others may be used more than once. The instructions will inform candidates if options may be used more than once. | | **Task Focus** | This task type assesses the candidate’s ability to recognize relationships and connections between facts in the text and their ability to recognize opinions and theories. It may be used both with texts dealing with factual information as well as opinion-based discursive texts. Candidates need to be able to skim and scan the text in order to locate the required information and to read for detail. | |  |  |   **Task Type 7 – Matching sentence endings**   |  |  | | --- | --- | | **Task Type & Format** | In this task type, candidates are given the first half of a sentence based on the text and choose the best way to complete it from a list of possible options. They will have more options to choose from than there are questions. Candidates must write the letter they have chosen on the answer sheet. The questions are in the same order as the information in the passage: that is, the answer to the first question in this group will be found before the answer to the second question, and so on. This task type may be used with any type of text. | | **Task Focus** | This task type assesses the candidate’s ability to understand the main ideas. | |  |  |   **Task Type 8 – Sentence completion**   |  |  | | --- | --- | | **Task Type & Format** | This task type requires candidates to complete sentences in a given number of words taken from the text. Candidates must write their answers on the answer sheet. The instructions will make it clear how many words/numbers candidates should use in their answers, e.g. ‘NO MORE THAN THREE WORDS AND/OR A NUMBER from the passage’, ‘ONE WORD ONLY’ or ‘NO MORE THAN TWO WORDS’. If candidates write more than the number of words asked for, they will lose the mark. Numbers can be written using figures or words. Contracted words will not be tested. Hyphenated words count as single words. The questions are in the same order as the information in the passage: that is, the answer to the first question in this group will be found before the answer to the second question, and so on. This task type may be used with any type of text. | | **Task Focus** | This task type assesses the candidate’s ability to locate detail/specific information. | |  |  |   **Task Type 9 – Summary, note, table, flow-chart completion**   |  |  | | --- | --- | | **Task Type & Format** | With this task type, candidates are given some type of summary of a section of the text, and are required to complete it with information drawn from the text. Note that the summary will usually be of only one part of the passage rather than the whole. The given information may be in the form of; several connected sentences of text (referred to as a summary), several notes (referred to as notes), a table with some of its cells empty or partially empty (referred to as a table), a series of boxes or steps linked by arrows to show a sequence of events, with some of the boxes or steps empty or partially empty (referred to as a flow-chart). The answers will not necessarily occur in the same order as in the text. However, they will usually come from one section rather than the entire text. There are two variations of this task type. Candidates may be asked either to select words from the text or to select from a list of answers. Where words have to be selected from the passage, the instructions will make it clear how many words/numbers candidates should use in their answers, e.g. ‘NO MORE THAN THREE WORDS AND/OR A NUMBER from the passage’, ‘ONE WORD ONLY’ or ‘NO MORE THAN TWO WORDS’. If candidates write more than the number of words asked for, they will lose the mark.  Numbers can be written using figures or words. Contracted words are not tested. Hyphenated words count as single words. Where a list of answers is provided, they most frequently consist of a single word. Because this task type often relates to precise factual information, it is often used with descriptive texts. | | **Task Focus** | This task type assesses the candidate’s ability to understand details and/or the main ideas of a section of the text. In the variations involving a summary or notes, candidates need to be aware of the type of word(s) that will fit into a given gap (for example, whether a noun is needed, or a verb etc.). |   **Task Type 10 – Diagram label completion**   |  |  | | --- | --- | | **Task Type & Format** | In this task type, candidates are required to complete labels on a diagram which relates to a description contained in the text. The instructions will make it clear how many words/ numbers candidates should use in their answers, e.g. ‘NO MORE THAN THREE WORDS AND/OR A NUMBER from the passage’, ‘ONE WORD ONLY’ or ‘NO MORE THAN TWO WORDS’. If candidates write more than the number of words asked for, they will lose the mark. Numbers can be written using figures or words. Contracted words will not be tested. Hyphenated words count as single words. The answers do not necessarily occur in order in the passage. However, they will usually come from one section rather than the entire text. The diagram may be of some type of machine, or of parts of a building or of any other element that can be represented pictorially. This task type is often used with texts describing processes or with descriptive texts. | | **Task Focus** | This task type assesses the candidate’s ability to understand a detailed description, and to relate it to information presented in the form of a diagram. | |  |  |   **Task Type 11 – Short-answer questions**   |  |  | | --- | --- | | **Task Type & Format** | This task type requires candidates to answer questions, which usually relate to factual information, about details in the text. Thus it is most likely to be used with a text that contains a lot of factual information and detail. Candidates must write their answers in words or numbers on the answer sheet.  Candidates must write their answers using words from the text. The instructions will make it clear how many words/ numbers candidates should use in their answers, e.g. ‘NO MORE THAN THREE WORDS AND/OR A NUMBER from the passage’, ‘ONE WORD ONLY’ or ‘NO MORE THAN TWO WORDS’. If candidates write more than the number of words asked for, they will lose the mark.  Numbers can be written using figures or words. Contracted words are not tested. Hyphenated words count as single words. The questions are in the same order as the information in the text. | | **Task Focus** | This task type assesses the candidate’s ability to locate and understand precise information in the text. | |  |  | |
|  |

*GOING ONLINE*

IELTS Reading Module <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=mqZ8TmUU0so>

*FOCUS ON IELTS*

**Practice 20**

**Unmasking skin.**

**A**  
If you took off your skin and laid it flat, it would cover an area of about twenty-one square feet, making it by far the body's largest organ. Draped in place over our bodies, skin forms the barrier between what's inside us and what's outside. It protects us from a multitude of external forces. It serves as an avenue to our most intimate physical and psychological selves.  
  
**B**  
This impervious yet permeable barrier, less than a millimeter thick in places, is composed of three layers. The outermost layer is the bloodless epidermis. The dermis includes collagen, elastin, and nerve endings. The innermost layer, subcutaneous fat, contains tissue that acts as an energy source, cushion and insulator for the body.  
  
**C**  
From these familiar characteristics of skin emerge the profound mysteries of touch, arguably our most essential source of sensory stimulation. We can live without seeing or hearing – in fact, without any of our other senses. But babies born without effective nerve connections between skin and brain can fail to thrive and may even die.  
  
**D**  
Laboratory experiments decades ago, now considered unethical and inhumane, kept baby monkeys from being touched by their mothers. It made no difference that the babies could see, hear and smell their mothers; without touching, the babies became apathetic, and failed to progress.  
  
**E**  
For humans, insufficient touching in early years can have lifelong results. "In touching cultures, adult aggression is low, whereas in cultures where touch is limited, adult aggression is high," writes Tiffany Field, director of the Touch Research Institutes at the University of Miami School of Medicine. Studies of a variety of cultures show a correspondence between high rates of physical affection in childhood and low rates of adult physical violence.  
  
**F**  
While the effects of touching are easy to understand, the mechanics of it are less so. "Your skin has millions of nerve cells of various shapes at different depths," explains Stanley Bolanowski, a neuroscientist and associate director of the Institute for Sensory Research at Syracuse University. "When the nerve cells are stimulated, physical energy is transformed into energy used by the nervous system and passed from the skin to the spinal cord and brain. It's called transduction, and no one knows exactly how it takes place." Suffice it to say that the process involves the intricate, splitsecond operation of a complex system of signals between neurons in the skin and brain.  
  
**G**  
This is starting to sound very confusing until Bolanowski says: "In simple terms people perceive three basic things via skin: pressure, temperature, and pain." And then I'm sure he's wrong. "When I get wet, my skin feels wet," I protest. "Close your eyes and lean back," says Bolanowski.  
  
**H**  
Something cold and wet is on my forehead – so wet, in fact, that I wait for water to start dripping down my cheeks. "Open your eyes." Bolanowski says, showing me that the sensation comes from a chilled, but dry, metal cylinder. The combination of pressure and cold, he explains, is what makes my skin perceive wetness. He gives me a surgical glove to put on and has me put a finger in a glass of cold water. My finger feels wet, even though I have visual proof that it's not touching water. My skin, which seemed so reliable, has been deceiving me my entire life. When I shower or wash my hands, I now realize, my skin feels pressure and temperature. It's my brain that says I feel wet.  
  
**I**  
Perceptions of pressure, temperature and pain manifest themselves in many different ways. Gentle stimulation of pressure receptors can result in ticklishness; gentle stimulation of pain receptors, in itching. Both sensations arise from a neurological transmission, not from something that physically exists. Skin, I'm realizing, is under constant assault, both from within the body and from forces outside. Repairs occur with varying success.  
  
**J**  
Take the spot where I nicked myself with a knife while slicing fruit. I have a crusty scab surrounded by pink tissue about a quarter inch long on my right palm. Under the scab, epidermal cells are migrating into the wound to close it up. When the process is complete, the scab will fall off to reveal new epidermis. It's only been a few days, but my little self-repair is almost complete. Likewise, we recover quickly from slight burns. If you ever happen to touch a hot burner, just put your finger in cold water. The chances are you will have no blister, little pain and no scar. Severe burns, though, are a different matter.

**Questions 1-4  
  
The passage has 10 paragraphs A–J.**  
  
**Which paragraph contains the following information?  
  
Answer the questions below by writing the correct letters, A-J, in boxes 1-4 on your answer sheet.**

**1** the features of human skin, on and below the surface

**2** an experiment in which the writer can see what is happening

**3** advice on how you can avoid damage to the skin

**4** cruel research methods used in the past

**Questions 5 and 6  
  
Choose the correct letter, A, B, C or D.**  
  
**Write your answers in boxes 5 and 6 on your answer sheet.**

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **5** | How does a lack of affectionate touching affect children? |
|  | **A**    It makes them apathetic. |
|  | **B**    They are more likely to become violent adults. |
|  | **C**    They will be less aggressive when they grow up. |
|  | **D**    We do not really know. |

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **6** | After the ‘wetness’ experiments, the writer says that |
|  | **A**    his skin is not normal. |
|  | **B**    his skin was wet when it felt wet. |
|  | **C**    he knew why it felt wet when it was dry. |
|  | **D**    the experiments taught him nothing new. |

**Questions 7–11  
  
Complete each sentence with the correct ending A–I from the box below.  
  
Write the correct letter A–I in boxes 7–11 on your answer sheet.**

**7** Touch is unique among the five senses

**8** A substance may feel wet

**9** Something may tickle

**10** The skin may itch

**11** A small cut heals up quickly

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
|  | **A**    because it is both cold and painful. |
|  | **B**    because the outer layer of the skin can mend itself. |
|  | **C**    because it can be extremely thin. |
|  | **D**    because there is light pressure on the skin. |
|  | **E**    because we do not need the others to survive. |
|  | **F**    because there is a good blood supply to the skin. |
|  | **G**    because of a small amount of pain. |
|  | **H**    because there is a low temperature and pressure. |
|  | **I**    because it is hurting a lot. |
|  | **J**    because all humans are capable of experiencing it. |

**Questions 12-14  
  
Do the following statements agree with the information given in the** [**Reading Passage**](http://www.ielts-exam.net/docs/reading/IELTS_Reading_Academic_22_Passage_1.htm)**?**  
In boxes 12-14 on your answer sheet, write

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
|  | ***TRUE*** | if the statement agrees with the information |
|  | ***FALSE*** | if the statement contradicts the information |
|  | ***NOT GIVEN*** | if there is no information on this |

**12** Even scientists have difficulty understanding how our sense of touch works.

**13** The skin is more sensitive to pressure than to temperature or pain.

**14** The human skin is always good at repairing itself.

**Practice 21**

**Investigating children’s’ language**

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **A** | For over 200 years, there has been an interest in the way children learn to speak and understand their first language. Scholars carried out several small-scale studies, especially towards the end of the 19th century, using data they recorded in parental diaries. But detailed, systematic investigation did not begin until the middle decades of the 20th century, when the tape recorder came into routine use. This made it possible to keep a permanent record of samples of child speech, so that analysts could listen repeatedly to obscure extracts, and thus produce a detailed and accurate description. Since then, the subject has attracted enormous multi-disciplinary interest, notably from linguists and psychologists, who have used a variety of observational and experimental techniques to study the process of language acquisition in depth. |
| **B** | Central to the success of this rapidly emerging field lies the ability of researchers to devise satisfactory methods for eliciting linguistic data from children. The problems that have to be faced are quite different from those encountered when working with adults. Many of the linguist’s routine techniques of enquiry cannot be used with children. It is not possible to carry out certain kinds of experiments, because aspects of children’s cognitive development – such as their ability to pay attention, or to remember instructions – may not be sufficiently advanced. Nor is it easy to get children to make systematic judgments about language, a task that is virtually impossible below the age of three. And anyone who has tried to obtain even the most basic kind of data – a tape recording of a representative sample of a child’s speech – knows how frustrating this can be. Some children, it seems, are innately programmed to switch off as soon as they notice a tape recorder being switched on. |
| **C** | Since the 1960s, however, several sophisticated recording techniques and experimental designs have been devised. Children can be observed and recorded through one-way-vision windows or using radio microphones, so that the effects of having an investigator in the same room as the child can be eliminated. Large-scale sampling programmes have been carried out, with children sometimes being recorded for several years. Particular attention has been paid to devising experimental techniques that fall well within a child’s intellectual level and social experience. Even pre-linguistic infants have been brought into the research: acoustic techniques are used to analyse their vocalisations, and their ability to perceive the world around them is monitored using special recording equipment. The result has been a growing body of reliable data on the stages of language acquisition from birth until puberty. |
| **D** | There is no single way of studying children’s language. Linguistics and psychology have each brought their own approach to the subject, and many variations have been introduced to cope with the variety of activities in which children engage, and the great age range that they present. Two main research paradigms are found. |
| **E** | One of these is known as ‘naturalistic sampling’. A sample of a child’s spontaneous use of language is recorded in familiar and comfortable surroundings. One of the best places to make the recording is in the child’s own home, but it is not always easy to maintain good acoustic quality, and the presence of the researcher or the recording equipment can be a distraction (especially if the proceedings are being filmed). Alternatively, the recording can be made in a research centre, where the child is allowed to play freely with toys while talking to parents or other children, and the observers and their equipment are unobtrusive. |
| **F** | A good quality, representative, naturalistic sample is generally considered an ideal datum for child language study. However, the method has several limitations. These samples are informative about speech production, but they give little guidance about children’s comprehension of what they hear around them. Moreover, samples cannot contain everything, and they can easily miss some important features of a child’s linguistic ability. They may also not provide enough instances of a developing feature to enable the analyst to make a decision about the way the child is learning. For such reasons, the description of samples of child speech has to be supplemented by other methods. |
| **G** | The other main approach is through experimentation, and the methods of experimental psychology have been widely applied to child language research. The investigator formulates a specific hypothesis about children’s ability to use or understand an aspect of language, and devises a relevant task for a group of subjects to undertake. A statistical analysis is made of the subjects’ behaviour, and the results provide evidence that supports or falsifies the original hypothesis. |
| **H** | Using this approach, as well as other methods of controlled observation, researchers have come up with many detailed findings about the production and comprehension of groups of children. However, it is not easy to generalise the findings of these studies. What may obtain in a carefully controlled setting may not apply in the rush of daily interaction. Different kinds of subjects, experimental situations, and statistical procedures may produce different results or interpretations. Experimental research is therefore a slow, painstaking business; it may take years before researchers are convinced that all variables have been considered and a finding is genuine. |

**Questions 1-5  
  
 The Reading Passage has eight paragraphs, A-H.  
  
Which paragraphs contains the following information?  
  
Write the correct letter A-H in boxes 1-5 on your answer sheet.  
  
NB You may use any letter more than once.**

**1** the possibility of carrying out research on children before they start talking

**2** the difficulties in deducing theories from systematic experiments

**3** the differences between analysing children’s and adults’ language

**4** the ability to record children without them seeing the researcher

**5** the drawbacks of recording children in an environment they know

**Questions 6-9  
  
Do the following statements agree with the information given in the Reading Passage?**  
In boxes 6-9 on your answer sheet, write

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
|  | ***TRUE*** | if the statement agrees with the information |
|  | ***FALSE*** | if the statement contradicts the information |
|  | ***NOT GIVEN*** | if there is no information on this |

**6** In the 19th century, researchers studied their own children’s language.

**7** Attempts to elicit very young children’s opinions about language are likely to fail.

**8** Radio microphones are used because they enable researchers to communicate with a number of children in different rooms.

**9** Many children enjoy the interaction with the researcher.

**Question 10-14  
  
Complete the summary below.  
  
Choose NO MORE THAN TWO WORDS from the passage for each answer.  
  
Write your answers in boxes 10-14 on your answer sheet.**  
  
**Ways of investigating children’s language**  
  
One method of carrying out research is to record children’s spontaneous language use. This can be done in their homes, where, however, it may be difficult to ensure that the recording is of acceptable **10** **....................**. Another venue which is often used is a **11** **....................**, where the researcher can avoid distracting the child. A drawback of this method is that it does not allow children to demonstrate their comprehension.  
An alternative approach is to use methodology from the field of **12** **....................**. In this case, a number of children are asked to carry out a **13** **....................**, and the results are subjected to a **14** **....................**.

**Practice 22**

**The US City and the Natural Environment**

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **A** | While cities and their metropolitan areas have always interacted with and shaped the natural environment, it is only recently that historians have begun to consider this relationship. During our own time, the tension between natural and urbanized areas has increased, as the spread of metropolitan populations and urban land uses has reshaped and destroyed natural landscapes and environments. |
| **B** | The relationship between the city and the natural environment has actually been circular, with cities having massive effects on the natural environment, while the natural environment, in turn, has profoundly shaped urban configurations. Urban history is filled with stories about how city dwellers contended with the forces of nature that threatened their lives. Nature not only caused many of the annoyances of daily urban life, such as bad weather and pests, but it also gave rise to natural disasters and catastrophes such as floods, fires, and earthquakes. In order to protect themselves and their settlements against the forces of nature, cities built many defences including flood walls and dams, earthquake-resistant buildings, and storage places for food and water. At times, such protective steps sheltered urbanites against the worst natural furies, but often their own actions – such as building under the shadow of volcanoes, or in earthquake-prone zones – exposed them to danger from natural hazards. |
| **C** | City populations require food, water, fuel, and construction materials, while urban industries need natural materials for production purposes. In order to fulfill these needs, urbanites increasingly had to reach far beyond their boundaries. In the nineteenth century, for instance, the demands of city dwellers for food produced rings of garden farms around cities. In the twentieth century, as urban populations increased, the demand for food drove the rise of large factory farms. Cities also require fresh water supplies in order to exist – engineers built waterworks, dug wells deeper and deeper into the earth looking for groundwater, and dammed and diverted rivers to obtain water supplies for domestic and industrial uses. In the process of obtaining water from distant locales, cities often transformed them, making deserts where there had been fertile agricultural areas. |
| **D** | Urbanites had to seek locations to dispose of the wastes they produced. Initially, they placed wastes on sites within the city, polluting the air, land, and water with industrial and domestic effluents. As cities grew larger, they disposed of their wastes by transporting them to more distant locations. Thus, cities constructed sewerage systems for domestic wastes. They usually discharged the sewage into neighbouring waterways, often polluting the water supply of downstream cities.  The air and the land also became dumps for waste disposal. In the late nineteenth century, coal became the preferred fuel for industrial, transportation, and domestic use. But while providing an inexpensive and plentiful energy supply, coal was also very dirty. The cities that used it suffered from air contamination and reduced sunlight, while the cleaning tasks of householders were greatly increased. |
| **E** | In the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, reformers began demanding urban environmental cleanups and public health improvements. Women's groups often took the lead in agitating for clean air and clean water, showing a greater concern than men in regard to quality of life and health-related issues. The replacement of the horse, first by electric trolleys and then by the car, brought about substantial improvements in street and air sanitation. The movements demanding clean air, however, and reduction of waterway pollution were largely unsuccessful. On balance, urban sanitary conditions were probably somewhat better in the 1920s than in the late nineteenth century, but the cost of improvement often was the exploitation of urban hinterlands for water supplies, increased downstream water pollution, and growing automobile congestion and pollution. |
| **F** | In the decades after the 1940s, city environments suffered from heavy pollution as they sought to cope with increased automobile usage, pollution from industrial production, new varieties of chemical pesticides and the wastes of an increasingly consumer-oriented economy. Cleaner fuels and smoke control laws largely freed cities during the 1940s and 1950s of the dense smoke that they had previously suffered from. Improved urban air quality resulted largely from the substitution of natural gas and oil for coal and the replacement of the steam locomotive by the diesel-electric. However, great increases in automobile usage in some larger cities produced the new phenomenon of smog, and air pollution replaced smoke as a major concern. |
| **G** | During these decades, the suburban out-migration, which had begun in the nineteenth century with commuter trains and streetcars and accelerated because of the availability and convenience of the automobile, now increased to a torrent, putting major strains on the formerly rural and undeveloped metropolitan fringes. To a great extent, suburban layouts ignored environmental considerations, making little provision for open space, producing endless rows of resource-consuming and fertilizer-dependent lawns, contaminating groundwater through leaking septic tanks, and absorbing excessive amounts of fresh water and energy. The growth of the outer city since the 1970s reflected a continued preference on the part of many people in the western world for space-intensive single-family houses surrounded by lawns, for private automobiles over public transit, and for the development of previously untouched areas. Without better planning for land use and environmental protection, urban life will, as it has in the past, continue to damage and stress the natural environment. |

**Questions 1-7  
  
The** [**Reading Passage 1**](http://www.ielts-exam.net/docs/Reading/IELTS_Reading_Academic_20_Passage_1.htm) **has seven sections, A-G.  
  
Choose the correct heading for each section from the list of headings below.  
  
Write the correct number, i-x, in boxes 1-7 on your answer sheet.**

|  |
| --- |
| **List of Headings** |
| |  |  | | --- | --- | | **i** | Legislation brings temporary improvements | | **ii** | The increasing speed of suburban development | | **iii** | A new area of academic interest | | **iv** | The impact of environmental extremes on city planning | | **v** | The first campaigns for environmental change | | **vi** | Building cities in earthquake zones | | **vii** | The effect of global warming on cities | | **viii** | Adapting areas surrounding cities to provide resources | | **ix** | Removing the unwanted by-products of city life | | **x** | Providing health information for city dwellers | |

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| |  |  |  |  | | --- | --- | --- | --- | | **1** | Section **A** |  |  | |
| |  |  |  |  | | --- | --- | --- | --- | | **2** | Section **B** |  |  | |
| |  |  |  |  | | --- | --- | --- | --- | | **3** | Section **C** |  |  | |
| |  |  |  |  | | --- | --- | --- | --- | | **4** | Section **D** |  |  | |
| |  |  |  |  | | --- | --- | --- | --- | | **5** | Section **E** |  |  | |
| |  |  |  |  | | --- | --- | --- | --- | | **6** | Section **F** |  |  | |
| |  |  |  |  | | --- | --- | --- | --- | | **7** | Section **G** |  |  | |
|  |

**Questions 8-13  
  
Do the following statements agree with the information given in the Reading Passage?**  
In boxes 8-13 on your answer sheet, write

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
|  | ***TRUE*** | if the statement agrees with the information |
|  | ***FALSE*** | if the statement contradicts the information |
|  | ***NOT GIVEN*** | if there is no information on this |

**8** In the nineteenth century, water was brought into the desert to create productive farming land.

**9** Women were often the strongest campaigners for environmental reform.

**10** Reducing urban air and water pollution in the early twentieth century was extremely expensive.

**11** The introduction of the car led to increased suburban development.

**12** Suburban lifestyles in many western nations fail to take account of environmental protection.

**13** Many governments in the developed world are trying to halt the spread of the suburbs.

**Practice 23**

**Television Addiction**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| |  |  | | --- | --- | | **A** | The term "TV addiction" is imprecise, but it captures the essence of a very real phenomenon. Psychologists formally define addiction as a disorder characterized by criteria that include spending a great deal of time using the thing; using it more often than one intends; thinking about reducing use or making repeated unsuccessful efforts to reduce use; giving up important activities to use it; and reporting withdrawal symptoms when one stops using it. | | **B** | All these criteria can apply to people who watch a lot of television. That does not mean that watching television, in itself, is problematic. Television can teach and amuse; it can be highly artistic; it can provide much needed distraction and escape. The difficulty arises when people strongly sense that they ought not to watch as much as they do and yet find they are unable to reduce their viewing. Some knowledge of how television becomes so addictive may help heavy viewers gain better control over their lives. | | **C** | The amount of time people spend watching television is astonishing. On average, individuals in the industrialized world devote three hours a day to the activity – fully half of their leisure time, and more than on any single activity except work and sleep. At this rate, someone who lives to 75 would spend nine years in front of the television. Possibly, this devotion means simply that people enjoy TV and make a conscious decision to watch it. But if that is the whole story, why do so many people worry about how much they view? In surveys in 1992 and 1999, two out of five adults and seven out of ten teenagers said they spent too much time watching TV. Other surveys have consistently shown that roughly ten per cent of adults call themselves TV addicts. | | **D** | To study people’s reactions to TV, researchers have undertaken laboratory experiments in which they have monitored the brain waves, skin resistance or heart rate of people watching television. To study behavior and emotion in the normal course of life, as opposed to the artificial conditions of the laboratory, we have used the Experience Sampling Method (ESM). Participants carried a beeper\*, and we signaled them six to eight times a day, at random, over the period of a week; whenever they heard the beep, they wrote down what they were doing and how they were feeling. | | **E** | As one might expect, people who were watching TV when we beeped them reported feeling relaxed and passive. The EEG studies similarly show less mental stimulation, as measured by alpha brain-wave production, during viewing than during reading. | | |  |  | | --- | --- | | **F** | What is more surprising is that the sense of relaxation ends when the set is turned off, but the feelings of passivity and lowered alertness continue. Survey participants commonly reflect that television has somehow absorbed or sucked out their energy, leaving them depleted. They say they have more difficulty concentrating after viewing than before. In contrast, they rarely indicate such difficulty after reading. After playing sports or engaging in hobbies, people report improvements in mood. After watching TV, people's moods are about the same or worse than before. | | **G** | Within moments of sitting or lying down and pushing the "power" button, viewers report feeling more relaxed. Because the relaxation occurs quickly, people are conditioned to associate viewing with rest and lack of tension. The association is positively reinforced because viewers remain relaxed throughout viewing. | | **H** | Thus, the irony of TV: people watch a great deal longer than they plan to, even though prolonged viewing is less rewarding. In our ESM studies the longer people sat in front of the set, the less satisfaction they said they derived from it. When signaled, heavy viewers (those who consistently watch more than four hours a day) tended to report on their ESM sheets that they enjoy TV less than light viewers did (less than two hours a day). For some, a twinge of unease or guilt that they aren't doing something more productive may also accompany and depreciate the enjoyment of prolonged viewing. Researchers in Japan, the U.K. and the U.S. have found that this guilt occurs much more among middle-class viewers than among less affluent ones. | | **I** | the orienting response is an instinctive reaction to any sudden or new, such as movement or possible attack by a predator. Typical orienting reactions include the following the arteries to the brain grow wider allowing more blood to reach it, the heart slows down and arteries to the large muscles become narrower so as to reduce blood supply to them. Brain waves are also interrupted for a few seconds. These changes allow the brain to focus its attention on gathering more information and becoming more alert while the rest of the body becomes quieter. | |  |  | |  |  | |

**Questions 1-3  
  
The list below gives some characteristics of addiction.  
Which THREE of the following are mentioned as characteristics of addiction to television?**

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
|  | **A** harmful physical effects |
|  | **B** loss of control over time |
|  | **C** destruction of relationships |
|  | **D** reduced intellectual performance |
|  | **E** discomfort when attempting to give up |
|  | **F** dishonesty about the extent of the addiction |

**Questions 4-8  
  
Do the following statements agree with the information given in the Reading Passage?**  
In boxes 8-13 on your answer sheet, write

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
|  | ***YES*** | if the statement agrees with the information. |
|  | ***NO*** | if the statement contradicts the information. |
|  | ***NOT GIVEN*** | if there is no information on this |

**4** One purpose of the research is to help people to manage their lives better.

**5** Watching television has reduced the amount of time people spend sleeping.

**6** People's brains show less activity while watching television than when reading.

**7** There is a relationship between the length of time spent watching TV and economic status.

**8** Pleasure increases in proportion to the length of time spent watching TV.

**Questions 9-13  
  
Classify the following feelings or mental states as generally occurring:**

**A** before watching television.

**B** while watching television.

**C** after watching television.

**D** both while and after watching television.

**9** reduced anxiety and stress.

**10** increased fatigue.

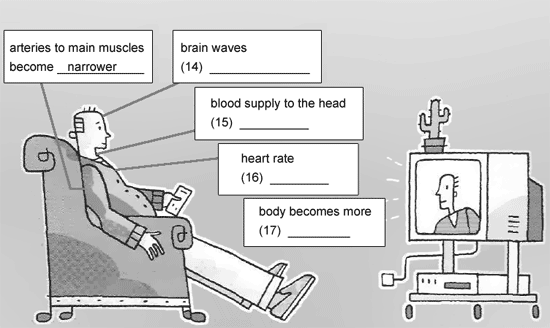
**11** higher levels of concentration.

**12** less mental activity.

**13** worry about time wasted.

**Questions 14-17  
  
Complete the labels on the diagram.  
Choose your answers from the box beside the diagram.  
  
NB There are more words / phrase than spaces, so you will not use them all.**

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **A** relaxed | **E** reduced |
| **B** accelerated | **F** stopped momentarily |
| **C** increased | **G** widened |
| **D** lengthened | **H** regulated |



**Practice 24**

**Light pollution**

**A** After hours of driving south in the pitch-black darkness of the Nevada desert, a dome of hazy gold suddenly appears on the horizon. Soon, a road sign confirms the obvious: Las Vegas 30 miles. Looking skyward, you notice that the Big Dipper is harder to find than it was an hour ago.

**B** Light pollution—the artificial light that illuminates more than its intended target area—has become a problem of increasing concern across the country over the past 15 years. In the suburbs, where over-lit shopping mall parking lots are the norm, only 200 of the Milky Way’s 2,500 stars are visible on a clear night. Even fewer can be seen from large cities. In almost every town, big and small, street lights beam just as much light up and out as they do down, illuminating much more than just the street. Almost 50 percent of the light emanating from street lamps misses its intended target, and billboards, shopping centers, private homes and skyscrapers are similarly over- illuminated.

**C** America has become so bright that in a satellite image of the United States at night, the outline of the country is visible from its lights alone. The major cities are all there, in bright clusters: New York, Boston, Miami, Houston, Los Angeles, Seattle, Chicago—and, of course, Las Vegas. Mark Adams, superintendent of the McDonald Observatory in west Texas, says that the very fact that city lights are visible from on high is proof of their wastefulness. “When you’re up in an airplane, all that light you see on the ground from the city is wasted. It’s going up into the night sky. That’s why you can see it.”

**D** But don’t we need all those lights to ensure our safety? The answer from light engineers, light pollution control advocates and astronomers is an emphatic “no.” Elizabeth Alvarez of the International Dark Sky Association (IDA), a nonprofit organization in Tucson, Arizona, says that overly bright security lights can actually force neighbors to close the shutters, which means that if any criminal activity does occur on the street, no one will see it. And the old assumption that bright lights deter crime appears to have been a false one: A new Department of Justice report concludes that there is no documented correlation between the level of lighting and the level of crime in an area. And contrary to popular belief, more crimes occur in broad daylight than at night.

**E** For drivers, light can actually create a safety hazard. Glaring lights can temporarily blind drivers, increasing the likelihood of an accident. To help prevent such accidents, some cities and states prohibit the use of lights that impair nighttime vision. For instance, New Hampshire law forbids the use of “any light along a highway so positioned as to blind or dazzle the vision of travelers on the adjacent highway.”

**F** Badly designed lighting can pose a threat to wildlife as well as people. Newly hatched turtles in Florida move toward beach lights instead of the more muted silver shimmer of the ocean. Migrating birds, confused by lights on skyscrapers, broadcast towers and lighthouses, are injured, sometimes fatally, after colliding with high, lighted structures. And light pollution harms air quality as well: Because most of the country’s power plants are still powered by fossil fuels, more light means more air pollution.

**G** So what can be done? Tucson, Arizona is taking back the night. The city has one of the best lighting ordinances in the country, and, not coincidentally, the highest concentration of observatories in the world. Kitt Peak National Optical Astronomy Observatory has 24 telescopes aimed skyward around the city’s perimeter, and its cadre of astronomers needs a dark sky to work with.

**H** For a while, that darkness was threatened. “We were totally losing the night sky,” Jim Singleton of Tucson’s Lighting Committee told Tulsa, Oklahoma’s KOTV last March. Now, after retrofitting inefficient mercury lighting with low-sodium lights that block light from “trespassing” into unwanted areas like bedroom windows, and by doing away with some unnecessary lights altogether, the city is softly glowing rather than brightly beaming. The same thing is happening in a handful of other states, including Texas, which just passed a light pollution bill last summer. “Astronomers can get what they need at the same time that citizens get what they need: safety, security and good visibility at night,” says McDonald Observatory’s Mark Adams, who provided testimony at the hearings for the bill.

**I** And in the long run, everyone benefits from reduced energy costs. Wasted energy from inefficient lighting costs us between $1 and $2 billion a year, according to IDA. The city of San Diego, which installed new, high-efficiency street lights after passing a light pollution law in 1985, now saves about $3 million a year in energy costs.

**J** Legislation isn’t the only answer to light pollution problems. Brian Greer, Central Ohio representative for the Ohio Light Pollution Advisory Council, says that education is just as important, if not more so. “There are some special situations where regulation is the only fix,” he says. “But the vast majority of bad lighting is simply the result of not knowing any better.” Simple actions like replacing old bulbs and fixtures with more efficient and better-designed ones can make a big difference in preserving the night sky.

\*The Big Dipper: a group of seven bright stars visible in the Northern Hemisphere.

**Question 1-5  
The first six paragraphs of the Reading Passage are lettered A-F.  
Choose the most suitable headings for paragraphs A-F from the list of headings below.  
NB There are more headings than paragraphs, so you will not use them all.**

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **List of Headings** | |
| i Why lights are needed | vii Seen from above |
| ii Lighting discourages law breakers | viii More light than is necessary |
| iii The environmental dangers | ix Approaching the city |
| iv People at risk from bright lights |  |
| v Illuminating space |  |
| vi A problem lights do not solve |  |

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| Example | Answer |
| Paragraph A | ix (Approaching the city) |

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **1** Paragraph B | .................... |
| **2** Paragraph C | .................... |
| **3** Paragraph D | .................... |
| **4** Paragraph E | .................... |
| **5** Paragraph F | .................... |

**Question 6-9  
Complete each of the following statements with words taken from the passage.  
Write ONE or TWO WORDS for each answer.**

|  |
| --- |
| **6** According to a recent study, well-lit streets do not .................... or make neighbourhoods safer to live in. **7** Inefficient lighting increases .................... because most electricity is produced from coal, gas or oil.  **8** Efficient lights .................... from going into areas where it is not needed. **9** In dealing with light pollution .................... is at least as important as passing new laws. |
|  |

**Questions 10-13  
  
Do the following statements agree with the information given in** [**Reading Passage 1**](http://ielts-exam.net/docs/reading/IELTS_Reading_Academic_10_Passage_1.htm)**?**In boxes 8-13 on your answer sheet, write

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
|  | ***TRUE*** | if the statement agrees with the information. |
|  | ***FALSE*** | if the statement contradicts the information. |
|  | ***NOT GIVEN*** | if there is no information on this |

**10** One group of scientists find their observations are made more difficult by bright lights.

**11** It is expensive to reduce light pollution.

**12** Many countries are now making light pollution illegal.

**13** Old types of light often cause more pollution than more modern ones.

**Practice 25**

***Progress Test***

Read the passage and answer the questions. Use your predicting skills. Note the type of questions.

**Antarctic Penguins**

Though penguins are assumed to be native to the South Pole, only four of the seventeen species have evolved the survival adaptations necessary to live and breed in the Antarctic year round. The physical features of the Adelie, Chinstrap, Gentoo, and Emperor penguins equip them to withstand the harshest living conditions in the world. Besides these four species, there are a number of others, including the yellow feathered Macaroni penguin and the King penguin that visit the Antarctic regularly but migrate to warmer waters to breed. Penguins that live in Antarctica year round have a thermoregulation system and a survival sense that allows them to live comfortably both on the ice and in the water.

In the dark days of winter, when the Antarctic sees virtually no sunlight, the penguins that remain on the ice sheet sleep most of the day. To retain heat, penguins huddle in communities of up to 6,000 of their own species. When it's time to create a nest, most penguins build up a pile of rocks on top of the ice to place their eggs. The Emperor penguin, however, doesn't bother with a nest at all. The female Emperor lays just one egg and gives it to the male to protect while she goes off for weeks to feed. The male balances the egg on top of his feet, covering it with a small fold of skin called a brood patch. In the huddle, the male penguins rotate regularly so that none of the penguins have to stay on the outside of the circle exposed to the wind and cold for long periods of time. When it's time to take a turn on the outer edge of the pack, the penguins tuck their feathers in and shiver. The movement provides enough warmth until they can head back into the inner core and rest in the warmth. In order to reduce the cold of the ice, penguins often put their weight on their heels and tails. Antarctic penguins also have complex nasal passages that prevent 80 percent of their heat from leaving the body. When the sun is out, the black dorsal plumage attracts its rays and penguins can stay warm enough to waddle or slide about alone.

Antarctic penguins spend about 75 percent of their lives in the water. A number of survival adaptations allow them to swim through water as cold as -2 degrees Celsius. In order to stay warm in these temperatures, penguins have to keep moving. Though penguins don't fly in the air, they are often said to fly through water. Instead of stopping each time they come up for air, they use a technique called "porpoising," in which they leap up for a quick breath while swiftly moving forward: Unlike most birds that have hollow bones for flight, penguins have evolved hard solid bones that keep them low in the water. Antarctic penguins also have unique feathers that work similarly to a waterproof diving suit. Tufts of down trap a layer of air within the feathers, preventing the water from penetrating the penguin's skin. The pressure of a deep dive releases this air, and a penguin has to rearrange the feathers through a process called "preening." Penguins also have an amazing circulatory system, which in extremely cold waters diverts blood from the flippers and legs to the heart.

While the harsh climate of the Antarctic doesn't threaten the survival of Antarctic penguins, overheating can be a concern, and therefore, global warming is a threat to them. Temperate species have certain physical features such as fewer feathers and less blubber to keep them cool on a hot day. African penguins have bald patches on their legs and face where excess heat can be released. The blood vessels in the penguin's skin dilate when the body begins to overheat, and the heat rises to the surface of the body. Penguins who are built for cold winters of the Antarctic have other survival techniques for a warm day, such as moving to shaded areas, or holding their fins out away from their bodies.

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| http://www.ielts-exam.net/images/bl.gif | **Classifying Information** |

**Questions 1-5**  
Classify the following facts as applying to

**A** Antarctic penguins  
  
**B** Temperature-area penguins

Write the appropriate letter, A or B, in boxes i-5 on your answer sheet.

**1** stand in large groups to keep warm  
  
**2** spend about three quarters of its time in the water  
  
**3** have feathers that keep cold water away from its skin   
  
**4** have areas of skin without feathers  
  
**5** have less blubber.

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| http://www.ielts-exam.net/images/bl.gif | **Completing Sentences** |

**Questions 6-9**  
Complete each of the following sentences with information from the reading passage. Write your answers in boxes 6-9 on your Answer Sheet. Write No MORE THAN THREE words for each answer.

**6** Most penguins use .......................... to build their nests.  
  
**7** While the male emperor penguin takes care of the egg, the female goes away to .......................... .  
  
**8** A ..........................  is a piece of skin that the male emperor penguin uses to protect the egg.  
  
**9** Penguins protect their feet from the cold of the ice by standing on their ..........................

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| http://www.ielts-exam.net/images/bl.gif | **Choosing Answers from a List** |

**Questions 10-13**  
The article mentions many facts about penguins.  
  
Which four of the following features are things that enable them to survive in very cold water?   
  
Write the appropriate letters **A-H** in boxes 10-13 on your Answer Sheet.

**A** They move through the water very quickly.  
  
**B** They hold their flippers away from their bodies. C They choose shady areas.  
  
**C** When necessary, their blood moves away from the flippers and toward the heart.  
  
**D** They breathe while still moving.  
  
**E** The blood vessels in their skin dilate.  
  
**F** They waddle and slide.  
  
**G** Their feathers hold in a layer of air near the skin.

Критерии оценивания теста:

15правильных ответов-10 баллов;

14-13—9 баллов

12-11—8 баллов

10-9—7 баллов

8-7—6 баллов

6-5—5 баллов

4—4 балла

0-3—незачет

SUPPLEMENTARY READING

**While reading these texts try using READING STRATEGIES practiced above.**

**TEXT 1**

**The story of the jet plane - an invention that has changed the way we live**

*For millions of people, particularly in the United States of America, boarding a jet plane for a quick journey to a city many hundreds or even thousands of miles away, is very much a routine act. More than any other object, the jet airliner is the machine that has served to “shrink the globe”, bringing in the modern age of international travel and international economies; yet it was only in the 1950s that the first commercial jet passenger plane took to the skies.*

**Radlett**, near London; April 1951; with a deafening roar, a great shining silver airplane hurtles down the runway outside the De Havilland Company's huge hangers on this airfield just north of London; a minute later, the world's first jetliner, the Comet, is airborne for the first time as the property of a commercial airline, B.O.A.C, the precursor of today's British Airways.

 At that moment, few of those on the ground watching the historic take-off could have had any idea of the impact that this new invention was going to have on civilization in the second half of the twentieth century.

Yet without the jet plane to carry passengers over vast distances at high speed, be they businessmen, holidaymakers, politicians or even whole armies, the world in which we now live would be a very different place.

The Comet that took to the skies that day in 1951, after a year of test flights, was of course not the first jet plane.

It was in the year 1930 that an English engineer called Frank Whittle had patented the first jet engine; but in an all-too common British twentieth-century manner, Whittle and others failed to grasp the commercial and military potential of his invention, and it was a German company, Heinkel, who actually produced the first jet aircraft, in 1937.

The first British jet aircraft to fly was an adapted version of the Gloster E-28 in 1941; but in the fever of the war years, priority was given not to developing experimental aircraft, but to mass producing those propellor planes, such as the famous Spitfire, whose performance was guaranteed. So it was not until 1944 that the world's first two real jet aircraft appeared, the Messerschmitt Me 262 in Germany, and the Gloster Meteor in England.

In the immediate post-war years, with the German aircraft industry out of action, development of jet aircraft technology progressed rapidly in Britain, as did aircraft design in general; and within three years of the ending of the war, the De Havilland company was working on its great project, the first passenger jetliner.

A year after being handed over to BOAC, the Comet entered commercial service, with a flight from London to Johannesburg; but it was a premature beginning. Within two years, two Comets crashed in mysterious circumstances, and all existing planes were grounded. The cause of the problem was soon identified: it was metal fatigue, a problem that had not existed with the smaller lighter aircraft of earlier times.

By 1955, a solution had been found, Comets were able to take to the skies again, and transatlantic jet services were reintroduced between London and major destinations; this time, the age of jet air travel had really begun.

   A pioneering aircraft, the Comet however was not a big commercial success. Over in the USA, Boeing had been working on an American jetliner, and within weeks of the reintroduction of Comet services by BOAC, the first Boeing 707’s came into service. Stimulated by sales on the vast North American market, the 707 was soon established as the world’s leading jetliner, pushing Boeing to the top as undisputed world leader in its field.

    The Comet, France’s Caravelle, and later Britain’s Vickers VC 10, products of sophisticated but small national aerospace industries, could not hope to compete in the world markets against the domination of Boeing; and it was their relative failure that eventually forced national governments to support the creation of Europe’s first really successful manufacturer of jetliners, the Airbus Consortium.

    Today, thanks to a steady increase in the size of aircraft and an improvement in their efficiency, the cost of air travel has fallen by over 80% since the first Comet flights half a century ago. Once the exclusive reserve of a privileged few, air travel has become a very ordinary event, and in North America at least, something that is considerably more of a part of everyday life than taking the train.

    Thanks to cheap and rapid air travel, allowing businessmen and politicians to travel vast distances at relative ease, the nature of trade and international relations has changed profoundly. Sixty years ago, international meetings of heads of state were rare events; today they are daily occurrences; sixty years ago, few people from Northern Europe had ever seen the Mediterranean, and today’s holiday resorts like Torremolinos or Cap d'Agde were just sleepy fishing ports; in military terms, the idea of a “rapid reaction force” was unheard of.

    If so much has changed since 1950, it leaves one wondering what people will be doing in 2050....

**TEXT 2**

# Music: the story of the Blues

# by Robert Springer

          What is - or what are - the Blues? The Blues is a feeling, most African Americans will tell you. If your girl or boyfriend leaves you, for instance, it's quite likely you'll feel sad or dejected for days. In other words, you'll feel *blue*; you'll *have the blues*.

     What few African Americans will tell you is that the origin of the expression isn't black and American, but English, al­though to­day it's usually associated with Black Americans. In 16th century Eng­land, people who were depressed were said to be persecuted by the "blue devils". Later, in 1807, American author Wash­ington Irving already talked about "having a fit of the blues".

     But the blues today is generally understood as being a type of music which expresses the feeling of depression which was once common to Blacks, due to oppression, segregation and problems with the other sex. This may be the rea­son why Blacks used to say "White men can't have the blues", at least not the same kind of blues.

    The origins of the blues are diffi­cult to retrace because, quite naturally, an oral genre like the blues leaves few written traces. It seems to have develop­ed about 100 years ago, though the name "blues" was not yet used at the time. It grew out of black field songs, negro spirituals and the white folk ballads imported by British settlers and somewhat modified on American soil.

     The first blues recordings ap­peared around 1920. They were made by black women singers who were actually singing a somewhat adulterated form of the music which, strangely enough, was later called "the classic blues". Ma Rainey and Bessie Smith were the most authentic and popu­lar performers of the genre in the 1920's.

    The original country or rural blues did not come to be recorded until around 1925, when the record com­panies realized they could make quite a profit by asking black farmers, who were at best semi-professional musicians, to record a few songs for them in return for a little whisky and about $5 per song. The lady singers, being professional entertainers, of course requested more.

     Thanks to this fortunate circum­stance, we are now rea­sonably certain that the country blues originated from the Mis­sissippi Delta (an area in the *state of Mississippi* which must not be confused with the Delta of the Mississippi river in *Louisiana*). Blacks here once made up over 90% of the population, and were heav­ily exploited and oppressed. Typic­ally in this original form of blues, a black sharecropper would sing about his hardships, while accompanying himself on the guitar. The rural blues also developed in the cotton-growing region of East Texas, and through much of the South Eastern part of the USA.

     In the 1920s and 1930s, many Blacks migrated to the North and Mid­west. They found work in the factories in Chi­cago, Detroit, St. Louis, and other ci­ties; but ghettoes formed quite soon, when, by sheer weight of numbers, they began to overwhelm the whites who left city areas they had once had to themselves. Blacks brought their ethnic culture and their music with them. Blues singers migrated too, especially since, in a lot of cases, they were workers them­selves, and like everyone else they were trying to make a better living.

     A certain nostalgia for the south de­veloped; but at the same time, the trans­planted Blacks were becoming more soph­isticated, preferring to listen to music played by musicians more sophisticated than the rural blues performers. Thus small blues combos, with piano, guitar, har­monica and other instruments, began to replace the solo performers. From the 40's onwards, they converted to electric in­struments, and began to play a new form of blues, louder, more aggressive, which came to be call­ed "urban blues". In the 50's, *Muddy* *Waters* and *Howlin*' *Wolf* were among the major exponents of this type of music, and later served as models imitated by many sixties groups such as the *Rolling* *Stones* and the *Animals*.

     After a period of hibernation in the 50's, the growing popularity of blues with young white audiences gave a lot of black blues-singers the opportunity to play again on a larger scale, for more money than before.

     Still, it is quite clear that today the blues, as an inde­pendent genre, is no longer considered as very fashion­able. Yet with its easy-to-learn three-chord structure, it is a conven­ient springboard for musical improvisation. It has had a wide influence on modern popular music of many varieties, and on musicians who wish to return to the roots of modern popular music before jumping off in another, perhaps new, direction.

**TEXT 3**

# California's Water Wars

by Larry Wood

**Water.......**  
    This five-letter word is one that Californians see almost daily in headlines.   
    How to dam it, how to sell it, how to use it, how to share it, how to keep it pure.... these are just a few of the major problems that face California's people and political leaders.

    Thousands of dollars are spent annually on studies, and on *lawsuits*, in California's "Water Wars", and the seemingly endless conflict between the *overwhelming* needs of Central and Southern California, and their drain on Northern California rivers.

 California has what has been called "the biggest waterworks in history". *Dams* in the Sierra Nevada mountains hold back water provided by great rivers fed by rain and snowmelt; they *tame* raging rivers, help prevent damaging floods, generate cheap, pollution-free hydro-electricity, and release a steady supply of water for California's citizens.

 California's great cities get their water via an immense network of dams, aqueducts, pipelines and wells that is one of the engineering wonders of the world. Part of the water supply for the Los Angeles area comes from a 445-mile long canal running south from the "Delta" area of Northern California. During its long journey, the water is pumped up a 3000 ft. elevation, then enters a tunnel through the mountains, before reaching the Los Angeles area. More water for this thirsty area is brought in along the Colorado River Aqueduct, over a distance of 185 miles; and the City of Los Angeles also takes water from a place called Owens Valley, 338 miles away!

Even the city of San Francisco, in cooler Northern California, has long-distance water, its supply being carried almost 150 miles from an artificial lake in Yosemite National Park.  
    Yet *mammoth* as this interlocking system is, in years ahead it is going to be inadequate to handle the state's rapidly growing population. The *prospect* of major water problems in the near future has become particularly alarming.

Yet mammoth as this interlocking system is,  it is now proving to be inadequate to supply both the needs of the state's huge agricultural areas, and the state's rapidly growing population. The prospect of major water problems in the near future has become particularly alarming. Many California farmers have already had to abandon crops on account of water shortages during recent dry summers; and in many towns and cities, the sprinklers that traditionally keep the *lawns* green round suburban homes have been turned off.

    As if dry summers and growing needs were not enough problems already, Californians also have problems getting water from outside their state. For instance, the Colorado river provides water to several states, and also to Indian reservations, and there has been a lot of argument about water rights. In 2003, the state of California agreed to take a smaller quota of water from the Colorado River - partly to allow the state of Nevada to have more, on account of the dramatic increase in needs of the city of Las Vegas.

    One of the most serious environmental problems was that of Mono Lake. In 1989, California's State Legislature voted $65 million to find alternatives to save Mono Lake from evaporating in the desert sun of Eastern California. Since then, the depletion of this unique environmentally-sensitive lake has been reversed, and though the water level today is still some 35 ft.  below the natural level recorded back in 1941, it is now 10 feet higher than it was at its lowest point, in 1982.

Since the year 2000, California has had a series of *drought* years with below normal rainfall. Emergency water conservation ordinances have made lawns turn brown, cars and sidewalks get dirty. Violators of the ordinances have had their water supply cut to a *trickle*. In Fresno, a city which does not even meter how much water its residents use, the *wells* have already run dry.

Water conservation measures are part of the answer; but political analysts predict that it will require many years and some serious and unattractive lifestyle changes to resolve California's Water Wars. The tense competition for a scarce resource, among groups with conflicting interests, will demand *give and take* forever.

**TEXT 4**

# Meet Robodog

*THE WORLD'S LARGEST AND MOST ADVANCED COMMERCIAL LEGGED ROBOT RE-WRITES ROBOTICS RULEBOOKS*

RoboScience, a  UK company specializing in commercial robotic technology, recently [launched](http://linguapress.com/advanced/robodog.htm#WORDS) its RS-01 RoboDog - the world's most powerful, most advanced and largest commercial legged robot. Compared to other robotic animals, such as those produced by Sony, this new invention is the "Formula 1" of robotic [pets](http://linguapress.com/advanced/robodog.htm#WORDS).

Technical and design [breakthroughs](http://linguapress.com/advanced/robodog.htm#WORDS) made during the creation of this remarkable new robot will form the [platform](http://linguapress.com/advanced/robodog.htm#WORDS) for next-generation lightweight robots that will automate many ordinary tasks and eliminate human [involvement](http://linguapress.com/advanced/robodog.htm#WORDS) in high-risk commercial and military environments. Nick Wirth - [formerly](http://linguapress.com/advanced/robodog.htm#WORDS) a designer of Formula One racing cars and [co-founder](http://linguapress.com/advanced/robodog.htm#WORDS) and technical director of RoboScience - and a small team of [highly-skilled](http://linguapress.com/advanced/robodog.htm#WORDS) specialists created the RoboDog in only seven months using a s[tate-of-the-art](http://linguapress.com/advanced/robodog.htm#WORDS) computer-aided design tool provided by software house UGS.

Mark Oates, co-founder and marketing director of Northamptonshire based RoboScience, said, "All legged robots now for sale are nothing more than entertainment. This is an advanced computer in animal form - it's history [in the making.](http://linguapress.com/advanced/robodog.htm#WORDS) We have done what was thought impossible - creating a robot that is light and strong, yet large enough to show the true potential of legged robotics that are [genuinely](http://linguapress.com/advanced/robodog.htm#WORDS) useful to human life." The RoboDog will be sold as a hand-made [limited edition](http://linguapress.com/advanced/robodog.htm#WORDS) product [tailored to](http://linguapress.com/advanced/robodog.htm#WORDS) the [customers](http://linguapress.com/advanced/robodog.htm#WORDS)' requirements. A maximum of 200 robots will be offered for sale worldwide over the course of this year at a price of £20,000.

The RoboDog is the size of an adult Labrador and is powerful enough to raise itself from the ground carrying a five-year old child. Its sophisticated [motor capabilities](http://linguapress.com/advanced/robodog.htm#WORDS) and balancing software allow it to climb obstacles and [perform handstands](http://linguapress.com/advanced/robodog.htm#WORDS), and its motion and colour detection sensors enable it to find and kick a football. It connects to the Internet via a wireless network, and can be controlled from a PC. It can also recognize sixty oral commands.

Production versions of the RoboDog will allow owners to view [locations remotely](http://linguapress.com/advanced/robodog.htm#WORDS) via an on-board camera or have the RoboDog access and read aloud e-mails. The RoboDog is 820mm long, 670mm tall and 370 mm wide and thanks to its advanced carbon-fibre and Kevlar construction, it weighs only 12kg (26 [lbs](http://linguapress.com/advanced/robodog.htm#WORDS)) and can operate independently for 1.5 hours.

The manufacturers intend to [licence](http://linguapress.com/advanced/robodog.htm#WORDS) elements of the RoboDog technology to companies in fields as diverse as industrial automation, special effects, security and military services. Mark Oates adds, "For companies struggling with the limitations of current robotics technology, this is - quite literally - tomorrow's world today! This RoboDog also proves that legged robots can now have the size and power to perform in high-risk environments, whether that is a [power station](http://linguapress.com/advanced/robodog.htm#WORDS) or a mine-field. After all, the loss of a robot is an [inconvenience](http://linguapress.com/advanced/robodog.htm#WORDS); the death of a human being is a tragedy."

The Robodog has been designed and developed in a remarkably short space of time. Nick Wirth says "This is breakthrough technology created at breakneck speed."

**TEXT 5**

# Smugglers: old activity,  new phase

*The European Union is a "single market"; since 1992, goods have been able to move freely from one country to another. But this has not stopped the ancient tradition of cross-Channel smuggling! For almost a thousand years, the cross-Channel trade in contraband has been a lucrative business, often involving criminal gangs; but in recent years, its nature has changed...*

       March 28th 1690. It is dead of night; in the small creek near Dymchurch, a village on Romney Marsh, a dark boat ap­proaches a well-hidden landing stage. It moves noiselessly across the water, slows down, and ties up. Immediately, but without a sound, some thirty figures emerge from the bushes and approach the water. A horse and cart appear from nowhere, and the work begins. In the space of quarter of an hour, the boat's cargo is totally unload­ed, carried up the bank and loaded onto the cart, and onto another one that follows it. Twenty minutes later, the boat, with dark­ened sail, is turning round and heading back out to sea whence it had come. Its cargo, a hundred barrels of finest cognac, is on its way to a hiding place, for later dispatch to London.

      The smugglers have succeeded again; as they usually do. For in this part of south east England, smuggling is a lucrat­ive business, and has been so for centur­ies. In fact, in the seventeenth century, it is one of the most profitable professions in the region.

     From the eleventh to the eigh­teenth century, cross-Channel smuggling was a busy activity, providing a living for hundreds of people round the English coast. It began in serious shortly after the Norman conquest of England in 1066, when William the Conqueror brought over thousands of his men from France. They brought with them a taste for French wine and other continental products, and these tastes soon spread among the English population.

       To supply their own tables and those of their courts, the Norman kings im­posed a duty on imported products, taking a percentage of everything that came in. It was to avoid this loss that smuggling first developed.

    Long before the seventeenth century, smuggling had become a major industry; and indeed, until this period, there was virtually nothing that could be done to effectively stop it. Tax collectors, or re­venue men, were not generally well res­pected people in those days, and whole communities, from the local priest to the ordinary folk, would work together to outwit any officials who came along.

     The eighteenth century saw the climax of the smuggling trade; it also saw its worst horrors. During this century, when Britain really began to expand as an inter-national trading nation, the rise in imported goods was spectacular; so too was the rise in the number of different products on which the government imposed taxes. Tea, coffee, silk, spices, tobacco, and other luxuries from round the world; all became subjected to sometimes very high dues.

    With so much at stake, it was not surprising therefore that smugglers went to great lengths to ensure that their oper­ations ran smoothly. Armed gangs of men were paid to keep the King's officers well away from what they were looking for. They did not hesitate to beat up, or even torture or kill those who tried to get in their way; and customs officers soon realized that it was not in their interest to intervene, unless they wanted to come to a sticky end.

   It is estimated that three quarters of the tea imported into England at one stage was brought in by smugglers.  
    It was Napoleon, in the end, who brought the great age of English smuggling to an end. Fear of invasion from France led the government to establish a permanent watch round the south east coast of Eng­land, a watch which later developed into the Coast Guard service. Confronted with this alert and respected force, smugglers were no longer able to go on ruling the roost as they had done for so long; and subterfuge and cunning came to replace force and threats. From then on, organized smuggling became a minor activity, per­ceived more and more as a criminal activity like any other.

    Of course, smuggling has never stopped, and today there are still active smugglers in operation; their methods, how­ever, have changed. From time to time, the odd small boat still comes in furtively to a small English harbor, to discharge a cargo of brandy, or more likely drugs or arms; but most contraband now comes in hidden in personal luggage, or in legally imported consignments of goods; contain­ers from Columbia, or trailers from Turkey, for instance.

    But in the event, the worst form of modern smuggling across the Channel is the smuggling of people; or "people trafficking" as it is often called.  The last twenty years have seen a massive increase in the number of people from distant countries trying to enter Britain illegally. They come from Africa, from Iraq, from China, from Afghanistan, from all over the world.... they speak a couple of words of English, and imagine that a life in Britain will be their Eldorado. But these are people who have no visa; often they have paid lots of money to criminal gangs, who have promised to smuggle them into England. Occasionally, the people-traffickers succeed, but for most of the would-be immigrants, the journey to England ends in disaster, sometimes death.  Customs and immigration officials are increasingly vigilant in their fight against this kind of contraband, and "illegal immigrants" as they are known cannot hope to live a normal life if they reach England. At best, they will live a life in the shadows, hiding from the authorities, hoping that no-one will discover them. At worst, they will end up in a life of misery, exploited as virtual slaves by the gangs that brought them to England in the first place. The men will be used as cheap labor, little paid, and living and working in bad conditions.  The women will be forced to work as prostitutes, if they are young, or work and live in miserable conditions if they are older.

     The coming of the Single European Market has changed the nature of smuggling, and the cust­oms men still remain vigilant. So do the coast guards. The fight against smugglers may not be the same as it once was; but if the coast guards ceased to exist, the door would be open to the new age of smuggling. It is certain that a new generation of smug­glers would quickly make the most of it!

**TEXT 6**

**Read the following text quickly and answer the questions that follow.**

**The Voices of Time**

Time talks. It speaks more plainly than words. The message it conveys comes through loud and clear. Because it is manipulated less consciously, it is subject to less distortion than the spoken language. It can shout the truth where words lie.

I was once a member of a mayors' committee on human relations in a large city. My assignment was to estimate what the chances were of non-discriminatory practices being adopted by the different city departments. The first step in this project was to interview the department heads, two of whom were themselves members of minority groups. If one were to believe the words of these officials, it seemed that all of them were more than willing to adopt non-discriminatory labor practices. Yet I felt that, despite what they said, in only one case was there much chance for a change. Why? The answer lay in how they used the silent language of time and space.

Special attention had been given to arranging each interview. Department heads were asked to be prepared to spend an hour or more discussing their thoughts with me. Nevertheless, appointments were forgotten; long waits in outer offices (fifteen to forty-five minutes) were common, and the length of the interview was often cut down to ten or fifteen minutes. I was usually kept at an impersonal distance during the interview. In only one case did the department head come from behind his desk. These men had a position and they were literally and figuratively sticking to it!

The implications of this experience (one which public-opinion pollsters might well heed) are quite obvious. What people do is frequently more important than what they say. In this case the way these municipal potentates handled time was eloquent testimony to what they inwardly believed, for the structure and meaning of time systems, as well as the time intervals, are easy to identify. In regard to being late there are: "mumble something" periods, slight apology periods, mildly insulting periods requiring full apology, rude periods, and downright insulting periods. The psychoanalyst has long been aware of the significance of communication on this level. He can point to the way his patients handle time as evidence of "resistances" and "transference."

Different parts of the day, for example, are highly significant in certain contexts. Time may indicate the importance of the occasion as well as on what level an interaction between persons is to take place. In the United States if you telephone somebody very early in the morning, while he is shaving or having breakfast, the time of the call usually signals a matter of utmost importance and extreme urgency. The same applies for calls after 11.00 p.m. A call received during sleeping hours is apt to be taken as a matter of life and death, hence the rude joke value of these calls among the young. Our realization that time talks is even reflected in such common expressions as, "What time does the clock say?"

An example of how thoroughly these things are taken for granted was reported to me by John Useem, an American social anthropologist, in an illuminating case from the South Pacific. The natives of one of the islands had been having a difficult time getting their white supervisors to hire them in a way consistent with their traditional status system. Through ignorance the supervisors had hired too many of one group and by so doing had disrupted the existing balance of power among the natives. The entire population of the island was seething because of this error. Since the Americans continued in their ignorance and refused to hire according to local practice, the head men of the two factions met one night to discuss an acceptable reallocation of jobs. When they finally arrived at a solution, they went en masse to see the plant manager and woke him up to tell him what had been decided. Unfortunately it was then between two and three o'clock in the morning. They did not know that it is a sign of extreme urgency to wake up Americans at this hour. As one might expect, the American plant manager, who understood neither the local language nor the culture nor what the hullabaloo was all about, thought he had a riot on his hands and called out the Marines. It simply never occurred to him that the parts of the day have a different meaning for these people than they have for us.

On the other hand, plant managers in the United States are fully aware of the significance of a communication made during the middle of the morning or afternoon that takes everyone away from his work. Whenever they want to make an important announcement they will ask: "When shall we let them know?" In the social world a girl feels insulted when she is asked for a date at the last minute by someone she doesn't know very well, and the person who extends an invitation to a dinner party with only three or four days' notice has to apologize. How different from the people of the Middle East with whom it is pointless to make an appointment too far in advance, because the informal structure of their time system places everything beyond a week into a single category of "future" in which plans tend to "slip off their minds."

Advance notice is often referred to in America as "lead time," an expression which is significant in a culture where schedules are important. While it is learned informally, most of us are familiar with how it works in our own culture, even though we cannot state the rules technically. The rules for lead time in other cultures, however, have rarely been analyzed. At the most they are known by experience to those who have lived abroad for some time. Yet think how important it is to know how much time is required to prepare people, or for them to prepare themselves, for things to come. Sometimes lead time would seem to be very extended. At other times, in the Middle East, any period longer than a week may be too long.

How troublesome differing ways of handling time can be is well illustrated by the case of an American agriculturalist assigned to duty as an attaché of our embassy in a Latin country. After what seemed to him a suitable period he let it be known that he would like to call on the minister who was his counterpart. For various reasons, the suggested time was not suitable; all sorts of cues came back to the effect that the time was not yet ripe to visit the minister. Our friend, however, persisted and forced an appointment which was reluctantly granted. Arriving a little before the hour (the American respect pattern), he waited. The hour came and passed; five minutes - ten minutes - fifteen minutes. At this point he suggested to the secretary that perhaps the minister did not know he was waiting in the outer office. This gave him the feeling that he had done something concrete and also helped to overcome the anxiety that was stirring inside him. Twenty minutes - twenty-five minutes - thirty minutes - forty-five minutes (the insult period)!

He jumped up and told the secretary that he had been "cooling his heels" in an outer office for forty-five minutes and he was "damned sick and tired" of this type of treatment. The message was relayed to the minister, who said, in effect, "Let him cool his heels." The attaché’s stay in the country was not a happy one.

The principal source of misunderstanding lay in the fact that in the country in question the five-minute delay interval was not significant. Forty-five minutes, on the other hand, instead of being at the tail end of the waiting scale, was just barely at the beginning. To suggest to an American's secretary that perhaps her boss didn't know you were there after waiting sixty seconds would seem absurd, as would raising a storm about "cooling your heels" for five minutes. Yet this is precisely the way the minister registered the protestations of the American in his outer office! He felt, as usual, that Americans were being totally unreasonable.

Throughout this unfortunate episode the attaché was acting according to the way he had been brought up. At home in the United States his responses would have been normal ones and his behavior legitimate. Yet even if he had been told before he left home this sort of thing would happen, he would have had difficulty not feeling insulted after he had been kept waiting for forty-five minutes. If, on the other hand, he had been taught the details of the local time system just as he should have been taught the local spoken language, it would have been possible for him to adjust himself accordingly.

What bothers people in situations of this sort is that they don't realize they are being subjected to another form of communication, one that works part of the time with language and part of the time independently of it. The fact that the message conveyed is couched in no formal vocabulary makes things doubly difficult, because neither party can get very explicit about what is actually taking place. Each can only say what he thinks is happening and how he feels about it. The thought of what is being communicated is what hurts.

AMERICAN TIME

People of the Western world, particularly Americans, tend to think of time as something fixed in nature, something around us from which we cannot escape; an ever present part of the environment, just like the air we breathe. That it might be experienced in any other way seems unnatural and strange, a feeling which is rarely modified even when we begin to discover how really different it is handled by some other people. Within the West itself certain cultures rank time much lower in over-all importance than we do. In Latin America, for example, where time is treated rather cavalierly, one commonly hears the expression, "Our time or your time?" "Hora Americana, hora Mexicana?"

As a rule, Americans think of time as a road or a ribbon stretching into the future, along which one progresses. The road has segments or compartments which are best kept discrete ("one thing at a time"). People who cannot schedule time are looked down upon as impractical. In at least some parts of Latin America, the North American (their term for us) finds himself annoyed when he has made an appointment with somebody, only to find a lot of other things going on at the same time. An old friend of mine of Spanish cultural heritage used to run his business according to the "Latino" system. This meant that up to fifteen people were in his office at the same time. Business which might have been finished in a quarter of an hour sometimes took a whole day. He realized, of course, that the Anglo-Americans were disturbed by this and used to make some allowance for them, a dispensation which meant that they spent only an hour or so in his office when they had planned on a few minutes. The American concept of the discreteness of time and the necessity for scheduling was at variance with this amiable and seemingly confusing Latin system. However, if my friend had adhered to the American system he would have destroyed a vital part of his prosperity.

People who came to do business with him also came to find out things and to visit each other. The ten to fifteen Spanish-Americans and Indians who used to sit around the office (among whom I later found myself after I had learned to relax a little) played their own part in a particular type of communications network.

Time with us is handled much like a material; we earn it, spend it, save it, waste it. To us it is somewhat immoral to have two things going on at the same time. In Latin America it is not uncommon for one man to have a number of simultaneous jobs which he either carries on from one desk or which he moves between, spending a small amount of time on each.

While we look to the future, our view of it is limited. The future to us is foreseeable future, not the future of the South Asian that involves many centuries. Indeed, our perspective is so short as to inhibit the operation of a good many practical projects, such as sixty- and one-hundred-year conservation works requiring public support and public funds. Anybody who has worked in industry or in the government of the United States has heard the following: "Gentlemen, this is for the long term! Five or ten years."

For us a "long time" can be almost anything - ten or twenty years, two or three months, a few weeks, or even a couple of days. The South Asian, however, feels that it is perfectly realistic to think of a "long time" in terms of thousands of years or even an endless period. A colleague once described their conceptualization of time as follows: "Time is like a museum with endless corridors and alcoves. You, the viewer, are walking through the museum in the dark, holding a light to each scene as you pass it. God is the curator of the museum, and only He knows all that is in it. One lifetime represents one alcove."

The American's view of the future is linked to a view of the past, for tradition plays an equally limited part in American culture. As a whole, we push it aside or leave it to a few souls who are interested in the past for some very special reason.

There are, of course, a few pockets, such as New England and the South, where tradition is emphasized. But in the realm of business, which is the dominant model of United States life, tradition is equated with experience, and experience is thought of as being very close to if not synonymous with know-how. Know-how is one of our prized possessions, so that when we look backward it is rarely to take pleasure in the past itself but usually to calculate the know-how, to assess the prognosis for success in the future.

Promptness is also valued highly in American life. If people are not prompt, it is often taken either as an insult or as an indication that they are not quite responsible. There are those, of a psychological bent, who would say that we are obsessed with time. They can point to individuals in American culture who are literally time-ridden. And even the rest of us feel very strongly about time because we have been taught to take it so seriously. We have stressed this aspect of culture and developed it to a point unequalled anywhere in the world, except, perhaps, in Switzerland and North Germany. Many people criticize our obsessional handling of time. They attribute ulcers and hypertension to the pressure engendered by such a system. Perhaps they are right.

SOME OTHER CONCEPTS OF TIME

Even within the very borders of the United States there are people who handle time in a way which is almost incomprehensible to those who have not made a major effort to understand it. The Pueblo Indians, for example, who live in the Southwest, have a sense of time which is at complete variance with the clock-bound habits of the ordinary American citizen. For the Pueblos events begin when the time is ripe and no sooner.

I can still remember a Christmas dance I attended some twenty-five years ago at one of the pueblos near the Rio Grande. I had to travel over bumpy roads for forty-five miles to get there. At seven thousand feet the ordeal of winter cold at one o'clock in the morning is almost unbearable. Shivering in the still darkness of the pueblo, I kept searching for a clue as to when the dance would begin.

Outside everything was impenetrably quiet. Occasionally there was the muffled beat of a deep pueblo drum, the opening of a door, or the piercing of the night's darkness with a shaft of light. In the church where the dance was to take place a few white towns-folk were huddled together on a balcony, groping for some clue which would suggest how much longer they were going to suffer. "Last year I heard they started at ten o'clock." "They can't start until the priest comes." "There is no way of telling when they will start." All this punctuated by chattering teeth and the stamping of feet to keep up circulation.

Suddenly an Indian opened the door, entered, and poked up the fire in the stove. Everyone nudged his neighbor: "Maybe they are going to begin now." Another hour passed. Another Indian came in from outside, walked across the nave of the church, and disappeared through another door. "Certainly now they will begin. After all, it's almost two o'clock." Someone guessed they were just being ornery in the hope that the white men would go away. Another had a friend in the pueblo and went to his house to ask when the dance would begin. Nobody knew. Suddenly, when the whites were almost exhausted, there burst upon the night the deep sounds of the drums, rattles, and low male voices singing. Without warning the dance had begun.

After years of performances such as this, no white man in his right mind will hazard a guess as to when one of these ceremonial dances will begin. Those of us who have learned now know that the dance doesn't start at a particular time. It is geared to no schedule. It starts when "things" are ready!

As I pointed out, the white civilized Westerner has a shallow view of the future compared to the Oriental. Yet set beside the Navajo Indians of northern Arizona, he seems a model of long-term patience. The Navajo and the European-American have been trying to adjust their concepts of time for almost a hundred years. So far they have not done too well. To the old-time Navajo time is like space - only the here and now is quite real. The future has little reality to it.

An old friend of mine reared with the Navajo expressed it this way: "You know how the Navajo love horses and how much they love to gamble and bet on horse races. Well, if you were to say to a Navajo, 'My friend, you know my quarter horse that won all the races at Flagstaff last Fourth of July?' that Navajo would eagerly say 'yes, yes,' he knew the horse; and if you were to say, 'In the fall I am going to give you that horse,' the Navajo's face would fall and he would turn round and walk away. On the other hand, if you were to say to him, 'Do you see that old bag of bones I just rode up on? That old hay-bellied mare with the knock knees and pigeon toes, with the bridle that's falling apart and the saddle that's worn out? You can have that horse, my friend, it's yours. Take it, ride it away now.' Then the Navajo would beam and shake your hand and jump on his new horse and ride away. Of the two, only the immediate gift has reality; a promise of future benefits is not even worth thinking about."

In the early days of the range control and soil conservation programs it was almost impossible to convince the Navajo that there was anything to be gained from giving up their beloved sheep for benefits which could be enjoyed ten or twenty years in the future. Once I was engaged in the supervision of the construction of small earth dams and like everyone else had little success at first in convincing Navajo workmen that they should work hard and build the dam quickly, so that there would be more dams and more water for the sheep. The argument that they could have one dam or ten, depending on how hard they worked, conveyed nothing. It wasn't until I learned to translate our behavior into their terms that they produced as we knew they could.

The solution came about in this way. I had been discussing the problem with a friend, Lorenzo Hubbell, who had lived on the reservation all his life. When there were difficulties I used to find it helpful to unburden myself to him. Somewhere in his remarks there was always a key to the underlying patterns of Navajo life. As we talked I learned that the Navajo understood and respected a bargain. I had some inkling of this when I noticed how unsettled the Indians became when they were permitted to fall down on the job they had agreed to do. In particular they seemed to be apprehensive lest they be asked to repay an unfulfilled obligation at some future time. I decided to sit down with the Navajo crew and talk to them about the work. It was quite useless to argue about the future advantages which would accrue from working hard; linear reasoning and logic were meaningless. They did respond, however, when I indicated that the government was giving them money to get out of debt, providing jobs near their families, and giving them water for their sheep. I stressed the fact that in exchange for this, they must work eight hours every day. This was presented as a bargain. Following my clarification the work progressed satisfactorily.

One of my Indian workmen inadvertently provided another example of the cultural conflict centering around time. His name was "Little Sunday." He was small, wiry, and winning. Since it is not polite to ask the Navajo about their names or even to ask them what their name is, it was necessary to inquire of others how he came to be named "Little Sunday." The explanation was a revealing one.

In the early days of the white traders the Indians had considerable difficulty getting used to the fact that we Europeans divided time into strange and unnatural periods instead of having a "natural" succession of days which began with the new moon and ended with the old. They were particularly perplexed by the notion of the week introduced by the traders and missionaries. Imagine a Navajo Indian living some forty or fifty miles from a trading store that is a hundred miles north of the railroad deciding that he needs flour and maybe a little lard for bread. He thinks about the flour and the lard, and he thinks about his friends and the fun he will have trading, or maybe he wonders if the trader will give him credit or how much money he can get for the hide he has. After riding horseback for a day and a half to two days he reaches the store all ready to trade. The store is locked up tight. There are a couple of other Navajo Indians camped in the hogan built by the trader. They say the trader is inside but he won't trade because it's Sunday. They bang on his door and he tells them, "Go away, it's Sunday," and the Navajo says, "But I came from way up on Black Mesa, and I am hungry. I need some food."What can the trader do? Soon he opens the store and then all the Navajo pour in. One of the most frequent and insistent Sunday visitors was a man who earned for himself the sobriquet "Big Sunday." "Little Sunday," it turns out, ran a close second.

The Sioux Indians provide us with another interesting example of the differing views toward time. Not so long ago a man who was introduced as the superintendent of the Sioux came to my office. I learned that he had been born on the reservation and was a product of both Indian and white cultures, having earned his A.B. at one of the Ivy League colleges.

During a long and fascinating account of the many problems which his tribe was having in adjusting to our way of life, he suddenly remarked: "What would you think of a people who had no word for time? My people have no word for 'late' or for 'waiting', for that matter. They don't know what it is to wait or to be late." He then continued, "I decided that until they could tell the time and knew what time was they could never adjust themselves to white culture. So I set about to teach them time. There wasn't a clock that was running in any of the reservation classrooms. So I first bought some decent clocks. Then I made the school buses start on time, and if an Indian was two minutes late that was just too bad. The bus started at eight forty-two and he had to be there."

He was right of course. The Sioux could not adjust to European ways until they had learned the meaning of time. The superintendent's methods may have sounded a bit extreme, but they were the only ones that would work. The idea of starting the buses off and making the drivers hold to a rigid schedule was a stroke of genius; much kinder to the Indian, who could better afford to miss a bus on the reservation than lose a job in town because he was late.

There is, in fact, no other way to teach time to people who handle it as differently from us as the Sioux. The quickest way is to get very technical about it and to make it mean something. Later on these people can learn the informal variations, but until they have experienced and then mastered our type of time they will never adjust to our culture.

Thousands of miles away from the reservations of the American Indian we come to another way of handing time which is apt to be completely unsettling to the unprepared visitor. The inhabitants of the atoll of Truk in the Southwest Pacific treat time in a fashion that has complicated life for themselves as well as for others, since it poses special problems not only for their civil and military governors and the anthropologists recording their life but for their own chiefs as well.

Time does not heal on Truk! Past events stack up, placing an ever-increasing burden on the Trukese and weighing heavily on the present. They are, in fact, treated as though they had just occurred. This was borne out by something which happened shortly after the American occupation of the atoll at the end of World War II.

A villager arrived all out of breath at the military government headquarters. He said that a murder had been committed in the village and that the murderer was running around loose. Quite naturally the military governor became alarmed. He was about to dispatch M.P.s to arrest the culprit when he remembered that someone had warned him about acting precipitously when dealing with "natives." A little enquiry turned up the fact that the victim had been "fooling around" with the murderer's wife. Still more enquiry of a routine type, designed to establish the place and date of the crime, revealed that the murder had not occurred a few hours or even days ago, as one might expect, but seventeen years before. The murderer had been running around loose in the village all this time.

A further example of how time does not heal on Truk is that of a land dispute that started with the German occupation in the 1890s, was carried on down through the Japanese occupation, and was still current and acrimonious when the Americans arrived in 1946.

Prior to Missionary Moses' arrival on Uman in 1867 life on Truk was characterized by violent and bloody warfare. Villages, instead of being built on the shore where life was a little easier, were placed on the sides of mountains where they could be better protected. Attacks would come without notice and often without apparent provocation. Or a fight might start if a man stole a coconut from a tree that was not his or waylaid a woman and took advantage of her. Years later someone would start thinking about the wrong and decide that it had not been righted. A village would be attacked again in the middle of the night.

When charges were brought against a chief for things he had done to his people, every little slight, every minor graft would be listed; nothing would be forgotten. Damages would be asked for everything. It seemed preposterous to us Americans, particularly when we looked at the lists of charges. "How could a chief be so corrupt?" "How could the people remember so much?"

Though the Truk islanders carry the accumulated burden of time past on their shoulders, they show an almost total inability to grasp the notion that two events can take place at the same time when they are any distance apart. When the Japanese occupied Truk at the end of World War I they took Artie Moses, chief of the island of Uman to Tokyo. Artie was made to send a wireless message back to his people as a demonstration of the wizardry of Japanese technology. His family refused to believe that he had sent it, that he had said anything at all, though they knew he was in Tokyo. Places at a distance are very real to them, but people who are away are very much away, and any interaction with them is unthinkable.

An entirely different handling of time is reported by the anthropologist Paul Bohannan for the Tiv, a primitive people who live in Nigeria. Like the Navajo, they point to the sun to indicate a general time of day, and they also observe the movement of the moon as it waxes and wanes. What is different is the way they use and experience time. For the Tiv, time is like a capsule. There is time for visiting, for cooking, or for working; and when one is in one of those times, one does not shift to another.

The Tiv equivalent of the week lasts five to seven days. It is not tied into periodic natural events, such as the phases of the moon. The day of the week is named after the things which are being sold in the nearest "market." If we had the equivalent, Monday would be "automobiles" in Washington, D.C., "furniture" in Baltimore, and "yard goods" in New York. Each of these might be followed by the days for appliances, liquor and diamonds in the respective cities. This would mean that as you travelled about the day of the week would keep changing, depending on where you were.

A requisite of our own temporal system is that the components must add up: Sixty seconds have to equal one minute, sixty minutes one hour. The American is perplexed by people who do not do this. The African specialist Henri Alexandre Junod, reporting on the Thonga, tells of a medicine man who had memorized a seventy-year chronology and could detail the events of each and every year in sequence. Yet this same man spoke of the period he had memorized as an "era" which he computed at "four months and eight hundred years' duration." The usual reaction to this story and others like it is that the man was primitive, like a child, and did not understand what he was saying, because how could seventy years possibly be the same as eight hundred? As students of culture we can no longer dismiss other conceptualizations of reality by saying that they are childlike. We must go much deeper. In the case of the Thonga, it seemed that a "chronology" is one thing and an "era" something else quite different, and there is no relation between the two in operational terms.

If these distinctions between European-American time and other conceptions of time seem to draw too heavily on primitive peoples, let me mention two other examples - from cultures which are as civilized, if not as industrialized, as our own. In comparing the United States with Iran and Afghanistan very great differences in the handling of time appear. The American attitude toward appointments is an example. Once while in Tehran I had the opportunity to observe some young Iranians making plans for a party. After plans were made to pick up everyone at appointed times and places everything began to fall apart. People would leave messages that they were unable to take so-and-so or were going somewhere else, knowing full well that the person who had been given the message couldn't possibly deliver it. One girl was left stranded on a street corner, and no one seemed to be concerned about it. One of my informants explained that he himself had had many similar experiences. Once he had made eleven appointments to meet a friend. Each time one of them had failed to show up. The twelfth time they swore that they would both be there, that nothing would interfere. The friend failed to arrive. After waiting for forty-five minutes my informant phoned his friend and found him still at home. The following conversation is an approximation of what took place:

"Is that you, Abdul?" "Yes." "Why aren't you here? I thought we were to meet for sure." "Oh, but it was raining," said Abdul with a sort of whining intonation that is very common in Parsi.

If present appointments are treated rather cavalierly, the past in Iran takes on a very great importance. People look back on what they feel are the wonders of the past and the great ages of Persian culture. Yet the future seems to have very little reality or certainty to it. Businessmen have been known to invest hundreds of thousands of dollars in factories of various sorts without making the slightest plan as to how to use them. A complete woolen mill was bought and shipped to Tehran before the buyer had raised enough money to erect it, to buy supplies, or even to train personnel. When American teams of technicians came to help Iran's economy they constantly had to cope with what seemed to them to be an almost total lack of planning.

Moving east from Iran to Afghanistan, one gets farther afield from American time concepts. A few years ago in Kabul a man appeared, looking for his brother. He asked all the merchants of the market place if they had seen his brother and told him where he was staying in case his brother arrived and wanted to find him. The next year he was back and repeated the performance. By this time one of the members of the American embassy had heard about his inquiries and asked if he had found his brother. The man answered that he and his brother had agreed to meet in Kabul, but neither of them had said what year.

Strange as some of these stories about the ways in which people handle time may seem, they become understandable when correctly analyzed. To do this adequately requires an adequate theory of culture. Before we return to the subject of time again - in a much later chapter of this book - I hope that I will have provided just such a theory. It will not only shed light on the way time is meshed with many other aspects of society but will provide a key to unlock some of the secrets of the eloquent language of culture which speaks in so many different ways.

(Edward T. Hall: *The Silent Language* published by Doubleday & Company, New York in 1959)

**1. What do you think the title means? Ask three questions that you would like the text to answer.**

**2. Read the first and last paragraphs. What do you expect the passage to be about?**

**3. Read the first paragraph of the second section: AMERICAN TIME, and the first paragraph of the third section: SOME OTHER CONCEPTS OF TIME. What do you now expect the passage to be about?**

**4. Fill in the following table about the ways in which time communicates.**

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Example given by** | **Situation** | **Problems** | **Implications/Conclusions** |
| *Author* |  |  | *What people do is more important than what they say* |
| *John Useem* |  |  |  |
|  | *Embassy in Latin country* |  |  |

**5. Which of the following views of time are associated with American people?**

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | **Views of time** | **American** | **Not American** |
| a. | time is like a museum |  |  |
| b. | it is pointless to make appointments too far in advance |  |  |
| c. | future oriented |  |  |
| d. | handled like a material |  |  |
| e. | divided into discrete segments |  |  |
| f. | many things happening at the same time |  |  |
| g. | scheduled |  |  |
| h. | don't value promptness |  |  |
| i. | time is like space |  |  |
| j. | time does not heal |  |  |
| k. | components must add up |  |  |
| l. | early morning calls signal urgency |  |  |
| m. | treated cavalierly |  |  |
| n. | tradition plays an important role |  |  |
| o. | a five-minute delay interval is not significant |  |  |
| p. | fixed in nature |  |  |
| q. | like a ribbon along which one progresses |  |  |

**6. Fill in the following table giving information about the different ways in which some non-American groups of people see time and the problems that this can cause.**

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Group of people** | **Problem/difference** | **Examples(s)** |
| *Pueblo Indians* | *Not clock bound* | *The Christmas dance began when things were ready* |
| *Navajo Indians* |  |  |
| *Sioux Indians* |  |  |
|  | *Time does not heal* |  |
|  |  |  |
| *Thonga* |  |  |
|  |  | *The people made arrangements to pick each other up but did not stick to the plans* |
|  |  |  |