

1. Before adding the suffix, double the final consonant

- when a one syllable word ending in a single consonant (b, d, f, g, k, l, m, n, p, r, s, t, v) is preceded by a single vowel.

Example: cut - (cut**tt**) -ING cutting
 beg - (beg**gg**) -AR beggar

BUT: quiz (two syllables) -ES quizzes

or

- when the word has two syllables, and the stress is on the second syllable.

Example: begin - (begin**nn**) -ER beginner
 admit - (admit**tt**) -ANCE admittance

BUT: préfér - préférence, préférable référ - référence

2. The final **e** in the root

- is dropped when the suffix begins with a vowel or **y**.

Example: write - (writ) -ING writing
 ice - (ic) -Y icy

BUT: Europe - European mile - mileage
 dye - dyeing use - useable

- is kept when the suffix to be added begins with a consonant.

Example: excite - excitement
 love - lovely

BUT: produce - production argue - argument
 true - truly, truth wise - wisdom
 judge - judg(e)ment wide - width

- is kept if the word ends in **-ee**, **-ce**, **-ge**, and the suffix begins with the vowels **a** or **o**.

Example: agree - -ABLE agreeable
 notice - -ABLE noticeable
 courage - -OUS courageous

BUT: space - spacious
 grace - gracious

- is dropped and **i** is changed to **y** when the word ends in **-ie** and the suffix **-ING** is added.

Example: die (dy) -ING dying
 tie (ty) -ING tying

3. The final **y**

- is changed to **i** when **y** is preceded by a consonant before any suffix except the ones beginning with **i** such as -ISH, -IZE, -IST. If the suffix begins with **i**, the final **y** is either dropped or retained as **y**.

Example: ordinary (ordinari) -LY ordinarily
 beauty (beauti) -FUL beautiful

BUT: copy - copyist beauty - beautify
 biology - biologist economy - economize

- is retained if **y** is preceded by a vowel.

Example: joy - joyful
 pay - payment

BUT: pay - paid day - daily say - said gay - gaily

- is retained if **y** is preceded by double consonant but pronounced as /ay/.

Example: shy - /say/ shyly
 dry - /dray/ dryness

Exercises

XIII. Complete the following words by adding the missing letters. This type of exercise is good to help you read fast.

- a) b-cau-e
- b) ph-t-g--ph
- c) t-m-t-e
- d) i-l-nd
- e) sc-o-l
- f) str--ge
- g) n-t-re
- h) sp-n-ch
- I) m-xt-r-
- j) t-mpr-t-re
- k) v-ri-t-on
- l) st-dy
- m) inf-u-nce
- n) re-p-ns-bl-

Noun +	suffix =	Adjective
person	-AL	personal
finance	(-IAL)	financial
confidence	(-TIAL)	confidential
event	(-UAL)	eventual
Hungary	-AN	Hungarian
circle	-AR	circular
skill	-ED	skilled
wool	-EN	woolen
care	-FUL	careful
artist	-IC	artistic
system	(-ATIC)	systematic
sympathy	(-ETIC)	sympathetic
book	-ISH	bookish
care	-LESS	careless
child	-LIKE	childlike
day	-LY	daily
danger	-OUS	dangerous
water	-Y	watery

Verb +	suffix =	Adjective
prefer	-ABLE	preferable
divide	(-IBLE)	divisible
descend	-ANT	descendant
depend	(-ENT)	dependent
imagine	-ARY	imaginary
consider	-ATE	considerate
define	(-ITE)	definite
tire	-ED	tired
see	-EN	seen
charm	-ING	charming
act	-IVE	active
prepare	-ORY	preparatory
tire	-SOME	tiresome

IX. Here is a list comprising most of the adjective-forming suffixes (p.102). Study them carefully.

Now read the following sentences, and fill in each blank with **an adjective** related to the noun or the verb given in parentheses.

1. (critic) The audience was highly of the actor's interpretation of Hamlet's character.
2. (sympathy) Mr. Black felt very towards his nephew, but he didn't offer him any financial help.
3. (music) The composer announced the completion of a new work.
4. (storm) Linda's boy friend apologized for taking her out on such a day.
5. (gold) Miss Turkey was a girl with beautiful long-colored hair.
6. (boy) With that new haircut Suzan looks
7. (influence) Psychologists can be very in changing a patient's behavior.
8. (intellect) Jean is more at ease while having a conversation with people.
9. (confide) Our professor is very of himself and takes on any responsibility even in dangerous situations.
10. (explode) substances can be very destructive; therefore, we should be cautious when handling them.
11. (practice) The teacher realized that the book was im..... because of its complexity, and he considered simplification.
12. (hope) That factory owner feels about his future.
13. (persuade) In the hospital for mentally retarded people, all the irresponsible and nervous staff members were fired. They were replaced by and reliable nurses to take care of the unpredictable patients.
14. (history) My sister is doing a survey on the emperors of Ottoman Empire.
15. (furnish) When the hippies were unable to pay the rent of the un..... house, they started camping in the park.

Verb	+	suffix	=	Noun
carry		-AGE		carriage
arrive		-AL		arrival
attend		-ANCE		attendance
differ		(-ENCE)		difference
serve		-ANT		servant
dance		-ER		dancer
act		(-OR)		actor
type		-IST		typist
begin		-ING		beginning
agree		-MENT		agreement
give		-T		gift
grow		-TH		growth
produce		-TION		production
act		(-ION)		action
decide		(-SION)		decision
permit	(-SSION)		permission
define		(-ITION)		definition
organize		(-ATION)		organization
classify		(-ICATION)		classification
depart		-URE		departure
deliver		-(R)Y		delivery
rob		(-ERY)		robbery
direct		(-ORY)		directory

X. Here is a list of most of the noun-forming suffixes (pp.104-105). Go over these one by one.

A. Now fill in each blank with the **noun form** of the word given in parentheses.

- (vary) The textbook we're studying is very dull. We need in the program.
- (complain) The police will investigate all thes.
- (converse) We had a pleasant on the telephone.

Adjective +	suffix =	Noun
disturb	-ANCE	disturbance
absent	(-ENCE)	absence
vacant	-ANCY	vacancy
frequent	(-ENCY)	frequency
wise	-DOM	wisdom
strange	-ER	stranger
false	-HOOD	falsehood
social	-ISM	socialism
cold	-NESS	coldness
true	-TH	truth
safe	-TY	safety
honest	(-Y)	honesty
moral	(-ITY)	morality

Noun +	suffix =	Noun
bag	-AGE	baggage
crime	-AL	criminal
king	-DOM	kingdom
message	-ER	messenger
neighbor	-HOOD	neighborhood
library	-IAN	librarian
art	-IST	artist
friend	-SHIP	friendship

4. (certain) The lawyer answered our questions with great
5. (kind) Bob appreciates his sister's in helping him with his Spanish.
6. (confident) Considering how little he knows about the subject, his is surprising.
7. (magnify) By using this new microscope, you can get a great
8. (careless) Most of his mistakes are due to his

9. (explode) The people in the factory were frightened by the
10. (decide) After consulting his advisor, the manager came to a regarding a new accountant.
11. (permit) The little boy's mother has never given him to play in the street.
12. (react) The chemist was experimenting with the of acids on metals.
13. (illuminate) Candles are a means of
14. (confuse) The fire started in the neighborhood caused great
15. (direct) You'd better read the before answering the questions on the test.

B. Fill in each blank with a **noun** related to the word in bold print.

1. A person who **composes** music is a
2. **Loyal** men are noted for their
3. Looking at the **long** car, she was obviously impressed by its
4. The decision the judge made was very **important**, but he wasn't aware of its at that time.
5. The host tried to **entertain** his guests, but no one was pleased with the
6. The ambitious student was **dissatisfied** with his grade, and he indicated his to his teacher.
7. Tom was very **happy** that he finally graduated from high school, and he wanted to share his with his friends by giving a party.
8. If you want to have your eyes **examined**, you'd better go and see an eye doctor for an
9. Mr. Brown doesn't eat **fish**, but he enjoys
10. When the rich boy **proposed** to the girl he loved, he never dreamed that his would be refused.
11. The young boy wanted to live in a **free** country and enjoy his
12. That penniless man was brought up as the **child** of a wealthy family; now he misses the happiness he had in his

13. Since they spent a whole day **joining** the two pipes together, they were very disappointed when they found a leakage in the
14. Although his father **allows** him to spend \$200 a month, Ken is not satisfied with his monthly
15. Man can't **exist** for a long time in a desert without water, which he needs for his

XI. The following are most of the verb-forming suffixes and prefixes utilized in English. Go over these formations carefully.

A. Fill in each blank with **a verb** related to the word in parentheses.

1. (valid). The immigration official our visas.
2. (sign) The policeman me to stop while I was making an illegal U turn.
3. (origin) The quarrel between the two boys when both wanted to dance with the same girl.
4. (terror) We were when we heard that a lion had escaped from the zoo.

Adjective +	suffix =	Verb
valid	-ATE	validate
modern	-IZE	modernize
simple	-IFY	simplify
sharp	-EN	sharpen

Noun +	suffix =	Verb
circle	-ATE	circulate
apology	-IZE	apologize
class	-IFY	classify
length	-EN	lengthen

Prefix	Adj. or Verb =	Verb
EN-	large	enlarge
EN-	lighten	enlighten
RE-	fine	refine
RE-	assure	reassure

- | | |
|---------------|--|
| 5. (large) | The profits from that business deal enabled them to their business. |
| 6. (economy) | They want to equalize expenditure in the various departments and standardize equipment so that they can |
| 7. (circle) | They have intensified their efforts to gain better working conditions bying a protest among the workers. |
| 8. (mystery) | The magician the children with his tricks. |
| 9. (memory) | I can see no justification for our having to all this detailed information about the circulation of the blood. |
| 10. (courage) | His mother him to take the entrance examination for the university. |
| 11. (symbol) | According to the painter the picture is supposed to freedom. |

B. Rewrite each of the following sentences, using **the verb** related to the word in bold print.

1. Can't you make this knife **sharp**?
.....
2. The mother felt **sympathy** toward the child.
.....
3. If you use this powder, it will make your false teeth **white**.
.....
4. I wish you could make this problem **simpler** for me.
.....
5. Law makers have made gambling **legal** in that country.
.....
6. With the help of the computers, industry is making use of **machines** instead of man power.
.....
.....
7. They tried to make the gas **pure** by letting it pass through a number of filters.
.....
.....

8. Some of the rooms in the palace have been changed in **mode** for the distinguished guests.
-
-

9. Her father has become **specialist** in heart surgery.
-
-

10. Frequent earthquakes put villages in that area in **danger**.
-
-

XII. Look at the chart containing some common Latin, (L) Greek (G), and English (E) prefixes (pp.110-111). Some of these prefixes occur in loan words from Latin; they are also used in the formation of compound words, where the second element is of any origin, including English. Roots with a plus sign are either Greek or Latin origin.

Now fill in the blanks with the words containing these prefixes. A list of the prefixed words is given for you in the box (p.111).

1. Did the students much from these drills?
2. The little boy likes to ride on his
3. What kind of ships are used in of the earth?
4. It's going to be 5° below 0° tonight. Do you have in the engine of your car?
5. Her eldest son was to college this year.
6. It is considered for a person to have six fingers on one hand.
7. Naphta is one of the of petroleum.
8. Not knowing the circumstances, John was by his friends.
9. My roommate is most of the time. He is quite lazy.
10. Don't me while I'm speaking.
11. Water is of hydrogen and oxygen.
12. The little boy knew that he would get punished whenever he his parents.
13. During the process of breathing, we and then air from our lungs.
14. The doctor gave the patient an injection.

Prefix	Origin of the prefix	Meaning of the prefix	Words with the prefix	Root	Common meaning of the root
AB-	L	away from	abnormal	normal	
A(D, T, S, S)-	L	toward	admit	mittere+	to send
ANTI-	G	against	antifreeze	freeze	
BENE-	L	well	benefit	factum+	done
BI-	L	two	bicycle	kyklos+	circle, wheel
CIRCUM-	L	around	circumnavigation	navigare+	navigate
CO-, COM-COL, CON-	L	together	compose	posere+	to place
CONTRA-	L	against	contradict	dicere+	to say
DE-	L	down from	descend	scandere+	to climb
A-	L	up	ascend	scandere	to climb
DIS-	L	apart from, not	disobey disconnect	obey connect	
EX-	L	out of	exhale explode	halere+ plalere	to breathe to blow
IN-	L	into	inhale	halere+	breathe
IN-	L	not	inactive	active	
INTER-	L	between	interrupt	rumpere+	to break
INTRA-	L	within	intramuscular	muscular	
MAL-	L	bad	maladjustment	adjustment	
MIS-	L	wrong	mislead	lead	
MONO-	L	one, alone	monosyllabic	syllabic	
MULTI-	L	many	multilingual	lingual	
NON-	L	not	nonpolitical	political	
OUT-	E	outside of beyond	outdoors outdo	door do	
OVER-	E	above, beyond	overcoat	coat	
POLY-	G	many	polytechnic	teche+	technical art
POST-	L	after, behind in time or position	postpone postwar	ponere+ war	to place
PRE-	L	before in time or position	prepare preheat	parare+ heat	to make ready

Prefix	Origin of the prefix	Meaning of the prefix	Words with the prefix	Root	Common meaning of the root
PRO-	L	forward, in favor of	pro-Arabic proclaim	claim	
RE-	L	again	reread	read	
SEMI-	L	half	semicircle	circle	
SUB-	L	under, below	subnormal submarine	normal marine	
SUPER-	L	above, beyond	supersonic	sonic	
TRANS-	L	across, over, beyond	transatlantic	Atlantic	
TRI-	L	three	triangle	angle	
UNDER-	E	below	underline	line	
UNI-	L	one	uniform	form	

by-product abnormal compose inactive maladjustment monosyllabic triangle underline uniform bicycle exhale postpone	admit antifreeze benefit circumnavigate interrupt mislead contradict descend ascend inhale prepare supersonic	outdoors politechnic reread underline semicircle progress overcoat disobey nonpolitical submarine transatlantic multilingual intramuscular
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15. Although these two reports are given by the same person, they each other.
16. Tim's girl friend the stairs as soon as she heard the horn of his car.
17. The plane to an altitude of 22,000 ft.
18. Patricia still suffers from; she could not adapt herself properly to her new environment.

19. "Cat" is a word.
20. are the only warships that operate under the surface of the sea.
21. General Benson wears his when he goes to work.
22. Mr. Smith is planning to take a voyage this summer.
23. The firm is going to hire a translator.
24. Robert attends a school.
25. The students are advised to their lessons every day.
26. Two equal make a circle.
27. The final exam has been because of the bad weather conditions.
28. Don't forget to take your; it's snowing outside.
29. As a review, please today's story.
30. You must the new words in this passage.
31. The sum of the angles of a is 180° .
32. Some airplanes are able to fly at speed.
33. My uncle prefers to be a member of a association.
34. We like to cook

XIII. Making use of your dictionary, make a list of words that begin with the following prefixes:

1. super-
2. semi-
3. self-
4. re-
5. pre-
6. post-
7. over-
8. multi-
9. inter-
10. in-
11. dis-
12. de-
13. counter-
14. co-
15. anti-

- XIV.** In the chart below, there are some common word stems frequently used in English. The meaning of the stem is given in the second column. Using your dictionary, try to find some words which are built upon the stem.

WORD STEM	AREA OF MEANING	WORDS BUILT UPON THE STEM
anthro	man, mankind	
auto	self	
bibl	book	
chron	time	
cosm	order, world	
cycl	circle	
dic, dict	say, speak	
duc, duct	lead	
geo	earth	
gram, graph	write, writing	
hetero	other, different	
homo	same	
log, logy	speech, word, study	
man, manu	hand	
medi	middle	
pathy	feeling, suffering	
phon	sound	
port	carry	
scrib, script	write	
sequ, secut	follow	
soph	wisdom, wise	
tax, tact	arrange, order	
tele	far, distant	
tempor	time	
tract	draw, pull	
voc, vok	call	

- XV.** Analyze the following words indicating the word stems and the attached suffixes or prefixes.

inductive	prediction
edict	formula
evoke	provocative
intervene	deported
sophisticated	foresee
comfort	prepare

Assignment

- I.** Here is a word formation chart for some basic words. Some slots are left blank for you to fill out. You may use your dictionary to find the right word.

NOUN	VERB	ADJECTIVE	ADVERB
action		
activity		active	actively
actuality	actually
actor			
.....	amaze	amazing
anger		angrily
.....	appear	apparent
.....	attend	attentive
attendance			
	brighten	brightly
calculation	calculable	calculably
center	centrally
.....	characterize	characteristic
.....	encircle	
circulation		
	circularize		
.....	clear

NOUN	VERB	ADJECTIVE	ADVERB
coincidence
.....	confide
.....	confident
.....	confuse	confusing
.....
collection
.....
correction
.....
courage
.....	create
creation
.....
critic
.....
danger
.....	dark
.....	die
.....	deep
democrat
.....
.....	despair
.....	destroy
.....	detect
detector
detection
.....	determine
.....	differ

NOUN	VERB	ADJECTIVE	ADVERB
economy
.....	educate educated
.....	encourage
.....	excel
.....	excite	exciting
.....	explode
.....	extend
horror
human humanity humane
.....	ignore
.....	imagine
.....	integrate
integrity
.....	intense
.....	introduce
.....	join	joint
joiner	joint rejoin
joy	jovial
.....	just	justly
.....	lead	leading
leadership

NOUN	VERB	ADJECTIVE	ADVERB
.....	legal
liberty
.....	manage
.....	managerial
machine
.....
.....
memory
norm
normality
.....
.....	observe
observance
origin
.....
person
.....
.....	please
.....
.....	produce
product
productivity
public
publicity
.....	real
.....
.....	regularly
regulation

NOUN	VERB	ADJECTIVE	ADVERB
..... relative	relate relative
.....	represent
.....	resist
.....	see	seen	
.....	sense
.....	short
.....	simple
.....	social
..... specialization	special	
.....	strong
sympathy	sympathetic
system systematic
terror
.....	tolerate
unit unification	unite unify	unified united	
.....	uniform uniformed	uniformly
..... variable	vary
violence	violate

II. A. Using the last adjective used in **Sentence a**, fill in the blank in **Sentence b** with a related verb, and fill in the blank in **Sentence c** with a related noun. The first one is done for you.

1. a. There are many different kinds of students at Çukurova University.
 b. Theydiffer..... in their opinions.
 c. Sometimes thesedifferences..... cause arguments.
2. a. Mr. Brown is a very creative writer.
 b. He some wonderful short stories with interesting endings.
 c. His friends admire his
3. a. The workers at the factory are very dependent.
 b. They on their manager completely.
 c. Their often makes the manager very angry.
4. a. Bill looks like an imaginative child.
 b. He all sorts of things.
 c. He is well known at school for his
5. a. My neighbors have a very forgetful son.
 b. He what his parents tell him.
 c. His parents worry about his
6. a. Some teachers appear to be very suspicious.
 b. They the students of cheating most of the time.
 c. Their makes even the innocent students feel guilty.
7. a. The professor had some very explosive substances in his lab.
 b. Suddenly they and destroyed his lab.
 c. People in the neighborhood were terrified by the
8. a. The professor's invention was exceptionally original.
 b. The idea while he was repairing his car.
 c. The professor has been noted for this ever since.

B. Fill in the blank with a suitable word related to the word in bold print.

1. Bruce was **absent** today. His teacher, however, did not notice his

2. Everyone is **admitted** to that theater free this week. Children made use of this free
3. All the teachers agreed to **apply** that new teaching method. This resulted in better teaching.
4. I **allow** my son to spend two hundred thousand liras a week. Consequently, he has a monthly of eight hundred thousand liras.
5. The guest of honor **arrived** at the banquet late. His late caused confusion.
6. I was **curious** about the reason for his failure in the chemistry test. Because of my, I asked him why he failed.
7. You must **enter** the opera building through the front
8. Mrs. Johnson usually addresses people very **formally**. She favors
9. The judge found the young man **guilty**. However, he won't admit his
10. Taner's English has **improved**. We have noticed his since the second semester.
11. Don't **interfere** with my work. I don't want any
12. I **invited** Tom to come to the party. I sent him the last week.
13. David is a **loyal** friend. He is always praised for his
14. Mrs. Brown's grandson **doesn't obey** his parents. He is very
15. The ambassador delivered the letter in **person**. He handed it to the Prime Minister
16. I **prefer** reading English novels. My is for historical ones.
17. Dr. Scovel **doesn't** keep **regular** hours. He doesn't have many patients due to his
18. This medicine **relieves** all pains. It gives great to the patients.
19. The bank across the street was **robbed** last night. Details about the are in the newspaper.
20. The fisherman is a very **rough** person. He treats his wife

21. Keep this medicine in a **safe** place. It is important for the of the children.
22. Mr. and Mrs. Johnson live **separately** but no one knows the reason for their
23. The trees on the other side of the street provide a lot of **shade**. Let's walk on the side of the street.
24. What those two are saying makes **no sense**. They are having a argument.
25. The knife is not **sharp** enough. I'd better it.
26. They're running **short** of food. There's a serious of meat.
27. Can I have some more **soap** powder? The water in the washing machine isn't enough.
28. Tom thinks he's **strong**. He wants to show his by hitting his younger brother.
29. Her mother is being **treated** for cancer. The is long and expensive.
30. The old villager appears to be very **weak**. His recent operation must have him a lot.

RAPID READING

Rapid reading saves you time and makes reading more efficient. When you read fast, you find more time for greater range of reading matter. When you read more, your knowledge of the world increases, and your mental horizon gets broader. In order to read rapidly, you need to have concentration. Moreover, you should not be disturbed by either inner or outer distracters, which hinder the concentration. According to Dudley (1977: 24), there may be four main reasons to obstruct your concentration.

These are:

1. Outer distractions such as pressure, temperature, pain, equilibrium, hunger and thirst. In order to concentrate while reading, we need to eliminate all these outer distractions.
2. Inner distractions such as day-dreaming and emotional conflict: If you achieve great satisfaction from reality, you tend to day-dream less. When you have worries, it is difficult to concentrate. Therefore, it is suggested that you first find a solution to your worries, then concentrate on reading.

3. Loss of interest in the subject matter: If you think the subject matter is of no interest to you, try to find a way to get interested. Or else there is no way to get concentrated.
4. A conflict between will-power and imagination: While you want to read, you may be thinking of other things. In such instances, imagination will always over-rule you.

WAYS OF IMPROVING YOUR READING SPEED

A. ENLARGE YOUR VOCABULARY

As you read, when you come across a word you do not know, you stop to think of the meaning of that word. If you know more words, you can read faster, without slowing down. Therefore, try to enlarge your vocabulary. The suggestions and exercises given in this chapter will help you in this respect.

B. MAKE USE OF THE CONTENT

As you read, when you come across a word you do not know, try to guess the meaning by making use of the content of the sentence. Sometimes the content may not help at all (Example 1). "Wog" could be anything. But there are instances, where you have a better chance in your guess. Example 2 gives us the opportunity to eliminate certain items such as fish, plants, animals etc. The information in Example 3 is sufficient enough to come up with an item that is as close as possible to the right word

- | | |
|------------|--|
| Example 1. | This is a <i>wog</i> . |
| Example 2. | This is a <i>wog</i> but the handle is broken. |
| Example 3. | This is a <i>wog</i> but the handle is broken; therefore, we can not use it for cooking. |

Exercises

- I. Try to guess the meaning of the following words in italics from the content.
 1. She had *lesion* in her finger that would not heal.
 2. I keep all my cosmetic *paraphernalia* in that cupboard so that whenever I need them for make up, I know where to look for.
 3. All his work came to *naught* when the fire destroyed the house he was building.

4. I went to the *flea market* to buy some used furniture for our summer house.
5. As I've forgotten my key inside the house when I went out, the only *expedient* was to break in the house.

II. Read each statement and making use of the content, pick the right word to fill in the slot. Then tell which word you made use of in choosing the right word.

1. Some people in their sleep.
 - a) snore
 - b) read
 - c) write
2. Fill the with water. Then wait for it to boil.
 - a) window
 - b) kettle
 - c) spoon
3. The woman is waiting to her train.
 - a) arrive
 - b) dine
 - c) catch
4. There are two in that city. They swim in both.
 - a) museums
 - b) lakes
 - c) schools
5. are the commonest cause of death among children.
 - a) Accidents
 - b) Hospitals
 - c) Electricity

C. THE LINE TECHNIQUE

Instead of reading a word at a time, train yourself to read a phrase, a sentence, a line or two lines at a time. Yorkey (1982: 98) provides exercises of the following nature to help you read in phrases rather than word by word:

(Successful improvement) (of your reading) (depends upon)
 (your eagerness) (to improve) (and your willingness) (to
 practice.) (Your teacher) (can guide you.) (but only you)
 (can do) (your own reading.) (No one else) (can do it)
 (for you.)

D. THE CARD TECHNIQUE

In order not to go back and look at the words you have already read, train yourself to do the suggested:

Draw a line in pencil down the centre of the pages on which the following passage appears. Then take a postcard or a piece of stiffish cardboard of the same width as the pages of this book. Hold the card in both hands and as your eyes follow the centre line slide the card down the page, cutting off the lines which you have already read.

(Dudley 1977: 71)

D. THE PENCIL TECHNIQUE

Do not whisper or point at words as you read. In order to eliminate lip movements, hold a pencil in your mouth. Keep applying the line and card techniques.

E. TWO LINE TECHNIQUE

Fix your gaze on the center of the line and try to take as much of the line on both sides. After you practice this with a single line, apply it on two lines.

SPEED w.p.m.	TIME	
	mins.	secs.
200	2	20
300	1	33
400	1	10
500		56
600		47
700		40
800		35
900		31
1,000		28
1,100		25
1,200		23

Figure 4.2 Speed Time Chart (Dudley 1977: 111)

The pencil lines you had in the center of the book to apply the card technique will this time help you focus your eyes to the center of the page.

As you try to read fast, try to get the meaning conveyed in the passage. You can time yourself and find out your speed. In order to do this, choose a passage of two or three pages. Look at your watch and start reading. When you finish reading, see how long it took you to read. Calculate the time in seconds. Count the number of words in the passage you have read. Divide the number of words by the number of seconds. Then multiply this number by 60. This will give you your reading speed.

ASSIGNMENT

Take a book of your choice. Then try the suggested techniques to improve your reading. In class you can help one another in timing yourselves. Make a Speed-Time Chart as in Figure 4.2 for yourself to see the development in your reading.

Note-taking

IMPORTANCE OF NOTE-TAKING

Note-taking techniques play an important role in the process of compiling information and in putting this information on paper. If the notes are not put down on paper according to certain criteria, they will prove to be useless at the end.

Since you will use your notes for writing your project, or studying for an exam, the quality of your essay or the degree of your success in the exam is more or less based on how well you have taken your notes.

Wallace (1980: 52) gives three main reasons for note-taking:

1. To have a record of the speaker's or writer's main idea.
2. To help one's memory when reciting, e.g. before an examination.

Pauk (1984: 122) brings into our attention the following findings from studies concerned with note-taking:

- a) "Students who study their lecture notes using the recitation method remember one and a half times more after six weeks than students who do not review."
 - b) If students do not take notes, or if they do not study the notes they have taken, they tend to forget approximately 80 percent of the lecture by the end of the second week.
3. To make what the speaker or writer says a part of your own knowledge. Pauk (1984: 122) also claims that note-taking does not interfere with listening and comprehension as assumed by most of the students. Instead, it helps the students listen more carefully.

SPECIFIC PURPOSES OF NOTE-TAKING

We take notes as we read or as we listen. The notes we take from written texts are generally for **research purposes**. We may be asked to write a pa-

per, or prepare a project on a specific topic. For that reason we go to the library and try to collect all the information we can get from different documents. During this process of data collection, we take notes relevant to our purpose.

We also take notes for study purposes as we read our textbooks, or as we listen to the lectures in class. Our aim in this case is to transfer the given information into our long-term memory. The only way to transfer the obtained information into our long-term memory is to go over it. The best and the quickest way to go over it is to write down some key words from what we have read or listened to. With these notes in hand we can easily remember the content and review the given information and thus make it part of our own knowledge. In the same manner, we would also prepare ourselves for any written or oral examination. In fact, the aim of examinations is to check whether the given information has been acquired or not.

A. NOTE-TAKING FOR RESEARCH PURPOSES

Roth (1982) makes the following suggestions on note taking for the purpose of collecting data for a research paper:

To be legible

- write the notes in ink.
- put only one idea on a card.
- do not abbreviate words unless the abbreviation is commonly and frequently used.

To be accurate

- read the research material carefully not to make any distortions or misinterpretations. Read to the very end to get the whole idea.
- record precisely, be careful especially with words that have similar spelling or pronunciation.
- make the distinction between fact and opinion.
- follow the conventional mechanics of writing; such as quotation, punctuation and capitalization, so that no errors will be transferred during the writing of the research.

To be complete

- identify the source for each piece of information written on the card.
- write down the page number from which you have obtained the information.
- identify the subject of each card correctly.

(Roth 1982: 79-84)

Types of note cards

In taking notes scholars suggest the use of two or three different types of note cards. Meyer (1982) mentions three types:

- a) For quotation (Fig. 5.1)
- b) For summary (Fig. 5.2)
- c) For paraphrase (Fig. 5.3)

Meyer (1982: 64) warns people not to write any "cryptic and too sketchy" notes as in Figure 5.4. Meyer also suggests a fourth type, where three of these techniques are combined into one.

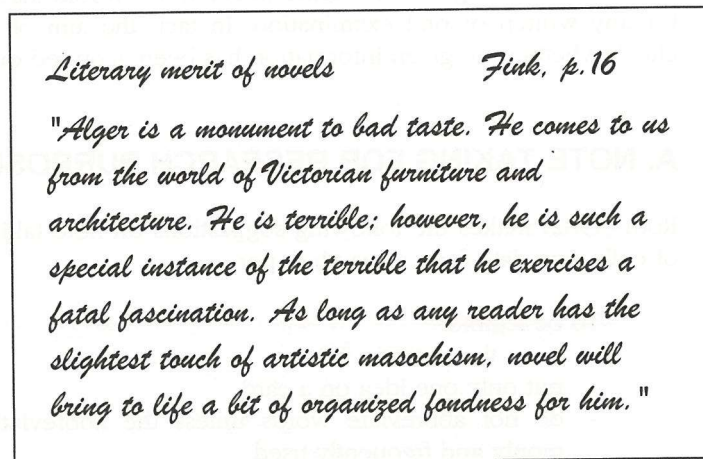


Figure 5.1 Quotation note card

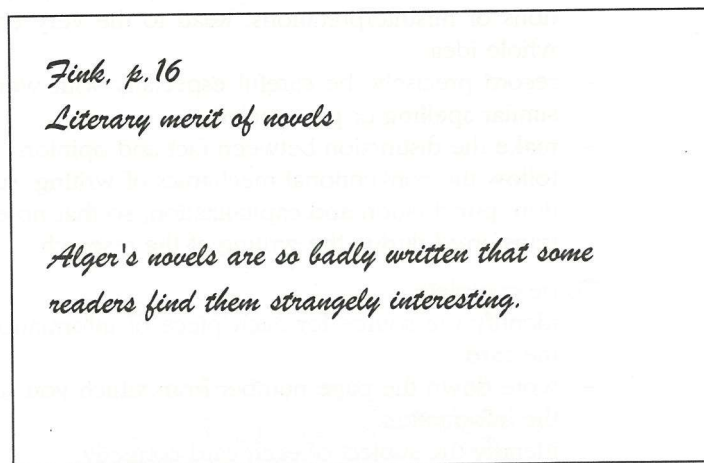


Figure 5.2 Summary note card

As seen in the examples, in the quotation the actual words of the author are copied. Therefore, the text is written within quotation marks. In the paraphrase, the idea is expressed by the words of the researcher keeping the tone and important vocabulary close to the original. In the summary, the idea expressed by the author is condensed, leaving out the details and focusing on the point of argument.

It is always a good idea to keep two different types of cards: one card for bibliography and the other for content. Since, in the bibliography card, only the full bibliography and a short remark or relevant subtitles of publications are written, not much space is needed. Therefore, a 3" x 5" card suffices for

Fink, p.16
Literary merit of novels
Alger's novels are famous for being badly written.
They are as awful as the Victorian decoration
contemporary to them, and yet his novels are also
fascinating for readers whose literary tastes include
"artistic masochism". For their pains these readers
inevitably derive a curious pleasure from his novels.

Figure 5.3 Paraphrase note card

reading novels -
like monuments,
Victorian architecture,
furniture - "artistic masochism"

Fig. 5.4 Incoherent summary note card (Meyer 1982: 64-68)

this purpose (Fig. 5.5). Notes, quotations, summaries, and paraphrases are kept in the content card; therefore, a larger card, 5" x 8", is desired (Fig. 5.6).

As stated in the previous chapter, on a bibliography card in a library, the library number is written at the top to the right. The name(s) of the author(s) is(are) written on the first line. The title of the book or the article takes the second line. On the next line, the publisher's name, and on the last line, the date is written down. Some scholars suggest the application of the same format in keeping personal bibliography cards. If you adopt this format, you will not have much difficulty in preparing the bibliography for your projects.

Rowley, J. E. and Turner C. M. D. 024
 The Dissemination of Information R 884d
 London: Andre Deutsch
 A Grafton Book
 1978

Information use/Characters of Information
 Abstracting and indexing

Figure 5.5 Bibliography card

Ref.: Shannon and Weaver

Page
23

Topic: Levels of Communication

- Level 1. Technical problem: how accurately can the symbols of communication be transmitted?
- Level 2. Semantic problem: how precisely do the transmitted symbols convey the desired meaning?
- Level 3. The behavioral problem: how effectively do the received meanings affect conduct in the desired way?

Figure 5.6 Content card

The content cards (note cards) are very useful because they can easily be classified and categorized according to the headings of the preliminary outline. Thus, you can rearrange these cards and revise your preliminary outline accordingly. Later, these cards help you in compiling the information and putting it on paper as the first draft. Since the topic is indicated on each card, there is no danger for the cards to get disorganized, and they can easily be rearranged. Depending on the planned outline, the topics can be subtitled and numbered to make a more detailed classification. If you use only one side of the card, you will not cause any inconvenience. If you need more space to write, you can get a second card. In such instances, you need to number the cards as "1" and "2" with the same topic and the same reference.

In writing out the content cards, you have to be sure that whatever you write on the card is a summary, a paraphrase, or a direct quotation. You cannot use the statements made by others as if they are your own. This is considered dishonesty. The act itself is called plagiarism. In order to avoid plagiarism, direct quotations need to be inserted within quotation marks. You should also write the page number so that if you have to use that quotation in your paper, you can easily refer to it by indicating the author, the date of publication and the page it is taken from.

Outlining

An outline is used to indicate the organization of a lecture or a written article. Within this organization you show the relationship of the ideas to one another. In other words, the reason for putting the information in an outline form is to indicate which pieces of information are in the same category with the others, and which pieces of information indicate the main ideas, and which ones indicate the details. Your outline may vary depending on your purpose and the amount of information you have gathered on your topic. You organize your information using different language structures as well. Some of these types have been illustrated below:

A. Rough Outline

(At word or phrase level)

Hazards from Nuclear Power

- Transportation of radioactive material
- Waste produced by the power stations
- Accidental exposure
 - a leak
 - explosion at the power station

B. Question Outline

Air Pollution in New York

1. Who suffers the most from New York City air pollution?
2. Who discovered this problem?
3. What kind of air pollution comes from New York City?

C. Rhetorical Outline

Biorhythm

- Definition of biorhythm
- Examples and case studies on biorhythm
- Contrasts of opinions on biorhythm
- Analogies

D. Deductive Outline

Thesis: *Several hundred Navajo members of the United Mine Workers Union in Arizona have asked the union's health fund to pay for treatment by tribal medicine men as well as by doctors.*

- Belief in medicine men
- Recognition of physicians and anthropologists
- The National Institute of Mental Health
- Existence of several hundred of Navajo members of the Mine Workers

E. Inductive Outline

- Experiment with 1) copper, 2) steel, 3) gold
- Generalizations about metals

The Standard Format of an Outline

In indicating the relations of all the information within an outline, a system consisting of Roman numerals, capital letters, Arabic numbers, and small letters is used. The ideas are attributed to these symbols. The most important pieces of information are indicated with the Roman numerals. Any additional information that supports the main idea is cited with capital letters. In an outline the way the topics are placed on paper is also important. The less important the items get, the farther to the left they are placed. Thus, a typical outline would be in the following format:

- I. _____
 - A. _____
 - B. _____
 - C. _____
- II. _____
 - A. _____
 - 1. _____
 - a. _____
 - b. _____
 - (1) _____
 - (2) _____
 - 2. _____
 - B. _____
- III. _____

Figure 5.7 Standard format

- 1. _____
 - 1.1 _____
 - 1.2 _____
 - 1.3 _____
- 2. _____
 - 2.1 _____
 - 2.1.1 _____
 - 2.1.1.1 _____
 - 2.1.1.2 _____
 - 2.1.1.2.1 _____
 - 2.1.1.2.2 _____
 - 2.1.2 _____
 - 2.2 _____
- 3. _____

Figure 5.8 Decimal System

Another format which you may see in some articles is the use of the decimal system. If we try to apply the outline done in Figure 5.7 according to decimal system, we will obtain a format as indicated in Figure 5.8.

When you are writing your own outline, there may not be enough details to fill in each blank as indicated in the outlines in Figures 5.7 and 5.8. You adjust and organize your outline according to the content of what you read or listen to. The main important issue is to make sure that there are at least two items of the same importance or level. In other words, when you cite A, you need a B. When you have an 'a' section, you need to have a 'b' section as well.

B. NOTE-TAKING FOR STUDY PURPOSES

Note-taking while reading a text

Note-taking for study purposes is done within a system. In this system, scholars suggest the students to be involved in different activities such as reviewing the book, questioning the headings, reading the text paragraph by paragraph, and taking notes. In order to help the learners remember each technique, they have even formalized the steps:

3Rs System	:	read-record-recite.
SQ3R System	:	survey-question-read-recite-review (Robinson 1970: 32-33)
PQRST Study Plan	:	preview-question-read-summarize-test (Spache and Berg 1966: 93)
OK5R System	:	overview-key ideas-read-record-recite- review-reflect
SUPER SIX Rs	:	reconnoiter-read-recite-record-review-reflect

1. In most of these systems, you see the **preview** of the book. Therefore, before reading a text, go over the content page, the introduction paragraph, the headings, the pictures, graphs and illustrations, and the conclusion sections. These will give you some idea on what you will be finding in the text. This type of orientation will help you organize your ideas as you read the text.
2. While previewing, you can write out questions for which you expect to find answers. This way you would be **questioning** the content of the text.
3. After you write your questions, start **reading** the text paragraph by paragraph or section by section to see if you can find answers to the questions you have formulated.

4. After you read:
 - a) **recite** the main idea of the paragraph or the section. See how minor ideas are organized to support the main idea. Reciting helps you think. Learning does not take place without thinking.
 - b) **summarize** these ideas and **take notes** in your notebook or on the margin of your book.
 - c) **underline** the key words or phrases in the book, or **write** these key words in your notebook. Make your notes brief and to the point.
5. **Repeat Step 4** for each paragraph or section till you finish reading the whole unit or the chapter.
6. **Review** the chapter on your own by going over your notes either in the form of summary or key words. If you do not review the text you have read, you can easily forget. In order to fight forgetting, you must review.
7. **Consider** all the facts and ideas given in the chapter from different angles. Try to
 - **speculate** on them;
 - **compare and contrast** them;
 - **organize** them into larger categories in the form of an outline of different types: (A) Rough outline using words or phrases, (B) Question outline, (C) Rhetorical outline, (D) Deductive outline, (E) Inductive outline;
 - try to **associate** them with what you already know.

If you do not manipulate the ideas, you can easily forget what you have read. You need to allow yourself to do analysis to see the similarities and differences, classes and categorizations. As you do this type of an analysis, you use your mind and allow all the information to penetrate into your long-term memory. Thus, as you reflect what you have read, you show that you use your wisdom and creativity, and trap all the information in your memory not giving it a chance to leak out.

Note-taking while listening

As Dunkel and Pialorsi (1982: xix) point out, at colleges and universities note-taking is a common practice because students benefit a great deal as they take notes while listening to their lectures. One of these benefits is that "the notes provide a written record of the information discussed by the professor in class, information that the professor believes is especially important for students to learn" (1982: xix). In fact most of the professors point out these important issues or highlight them one way or another. For instance, they would project the important part of the information on the screen or

write it on the board. Your class notebook can be compared to a computer where the information is recorded and stored for study or review. This is called the "recording and storing information" function of note-taking. That is why you should learn to take good notes on lectures. If you listen without taking notes, you can easily forget the given information.

Dunkel and Pialorsi also point at another important advantage of note-taking in class. They claim that taking notes while listening in class "forces you to pay closer attention to the class lecture or discussion" (1982: xix). In other words, by taking notes, you keep yourselves alert and listen to the lecture actively by concentrating on the main points and writing your notes as a result of your analysis of the lecture rather than writing every word the professor says. In Dunkel's and Pialorsi's terms, as you take notes, you try to "transform what you hear into an understandable, abbreviated written form" (1982: xix). This type of an activity might seem a little difficult to perform but as you practice doing it, you will be able to attain this skill.

Note-taking does not mean writing everything you hear. In order to take good notes, you need to be good listeners. As you listen, you must make quick judgments as to what to note down. You need to see the major point of the lecture and take your notes accordingly. In order to be successful in this task, you have to eliminate any of your bad listening habits most of which are listed below by Ralph Nichols (in Pauk 1984: 119-120):

1. Finding a subject dull
2. Criticizing the lecturer
3. Overreacting for what you do not agree with
4. Listening for facts only
5. Outlining everything mentioned
6. Losing your concentration
7. Yielding to distractions
8. Choosing to note only the easy piece of information
9. Overreacting to emotional words
10. Wasting thought speed

If you want to eliminate the bad listening habits mentioned above, take the following "don'ts" into consideration:

1. Don't *turn off* your mind as soon as you decide that the lecture is going to be dull. You should listen closely for information that can be important or useful.
2. Don't try to find fault with the lecturer. Try to look for ideas rather than the way these ideas are presented.
3. Don't get distracted with the lecturer's ideas that you disagree with. Otherwise, you miss most of the important points. As you take your notes, underline the point you disagree with. Later you can go and talk to the lecturer to ask for clarification.

4. Don't only listen to facts but also note down the ideas, arguments, examples that illustrate these facts. If you cannot make an association between facts and the supporting principles and ideas, you can not grasp the essence of the lecture.
5. Don't try to write down everything said by the lecturer. Focus on the first words of his or her lecture, decide on the organizational pattern of the lecture, and then work out your notes in an outline form.
6. Don't day dream while looking at the speaker with the belief that you can get all that information out of the book. The information in the book makes sense with the explanation given by the teacher or the lecturer.
7. Don't be distracted by the noises in the background.
8. Don't think that following the lecturer's complex argument is hard work. Try to be curious and be willing to find out how the speaker is trying to prove his or her points.
9. Don't get angry with the speaker for using terms that you do not approve of. When you become angry, your blood pressure goes up, and this prevents you from listening to the rest of the lecture. Instead of becoming angry, try to listen to the speech very carefully to see where the speaker's prejudices lie.
10. The speed of thought is faster than the speed of speech. Thus every individual finds time to think of something else during the listening period. But what is important is that once you start thinking of something else, there is a danger of getting carried away with that idea and not being able to concentrate on the lecture. So whenever you find time for thought, try to make summaries of the lecture or try to relate what the lecturer has been saying with what has already been mentioned, or try to anticipate the lecturer's next point.

NOTE-TAKING STRATEGIES

Pauk (1984) suggests the following twenty strategies in taking notes:

1. Attend lectures faithfully. The lecture system is the backbone of almost all courses, and a complete set of notes, in your handwriting, is crucial to success.
2. Consolidate your notes. Keep the notes for each course in one place, in a separate notebook.
3. Use large note paper to give yourself room to indent, and to see the pattern of your notes. The standard size for a large notebook is 8½ x 11 inches.

4. Record the name and number of the course, the date, and the lecturer's name on the first sheet for each lecture. This safeguards against loss or mix-up of notes.
5. [Do not get involved in other activities as you listen in the classroom.] Manual activity of this kind inhibits note taking, interferes with concentration, and breaks eye contact with the lecturer.
6. Be academically aggressive. Work hard at concentrating and taking notes on the lecturer's development of each topic.
7. Discover the lecturer's pattern. The lecturer usually speaks from a set of notes, so he or she is following an organized pattern. Try to spot it.
8. Write legibly to save time later when you review.
9. Make your notes complete and clear enough so that they will have meaning for you weeks and months later. You need not write in full sentences, however, since note taking is a process of selection, condensation, and comprehension.
10. Leave blanks for words, phrases, or ideas you think you may have missed. Directly after the lecture, ask the instructor or a fellow student to help you fill the gaps.
11. Develop your own system of enumeration and indentation. Don't indent so far that you are crowded into a small area at the right-hand side of the page.
12. Develop abbreviations of common words and recurring terms. This will give you more time both to listen and to write.
13. Use a symbol (such as an asterisk, arrow, or underline) to mark ideas the lecture emphasizes.
14. Mark off assignments that are mixed in with the lecture. Similarly note and mark off any books or other references the lecturer mentions; these will be valuable guides to further reading.
15. Separate your own thoughts from the lecturer's. It is an excellent practice to jot down questions and your own examples, ideas, and references; but make sure you bracket or otherwise label these as yours, not the lecturer's.
16. Be alert for clues. Often an instructor will say, "You'll see this later," or "This is important," or "This is a common pitfall." Use such clues to note important statements with an asterisk or other symbol in the margin. Listen for enumerations such as "The four steps in the process are as follows." Listen for words such as "finally", "therefore", and "furthermore", which may warn that an important point is about to be presented. Listen for other transitional words, phrases or sentences that may signal the end of one main idea and the beginning of another.

17. Always record the lecturer's examples. They often clarify abstract ideas. Indicate the fact that they are examples with special notation like Ex.
18. Pay as close attention to the end of a lecture as to the beginning. Lecturers do not always pace themselves accurately, and they may have to cram half the content into the last five or ten minutes. Record such packed finales as rapidly as you can. If necessary, stay in your seat for a few extra minutes to write down as much as you can remember.
19. Record additional ideas of your own immediately after the lecture.
20. Review your notes after the lecture, and improve the organization if necessary.

(Pauk 1984: 125-126)

TECHNIQUES OF NOTE-TAKING

There is not one single method of taking notes which may suit everybody. In note-taking individuals develop their own methods, which work the best for them. However, there are some basic principles that you would like to abide with in taking notes.

First of all, you should write your notes in words or phrases rather than sentences. In this case, the most important thing is the choice of words that need to be written on paper. The words you write down should be the key words. By 'key words', we mean the words that will help you recall the rest of the given information; in other words, these words would act as clues for you to remember the details. In general, 'content' words act as key words because they contain most of the important information. Words like nouns referring to objects, places or people, verbs referring to actions, numbers referring to dates, quantity or statistical information are given via 'content' words. When you write down the 'content' words, you do not need to write down articles and prepositions unless they signal an important change in the course of the information. For instance, if you are writing down the year an event occurred, you only write the date as *in 1985*. If you want to indicate the occurrence of the event before or after that particular date or another event, you need to write it down as in *after 1985* or *before the Civil War*.

Another important task in taking notes is to learn to ignore the information repeated for the purpose of redundancy. As an active listener, you will train yourself to screen out the redundant and the minor sections of the lecture. Dunkel and Pialorsi (1982: xx) give the following example to demonstrate the task of writing down the 'content' words and ignoring the repeated information.

Suppose you listen to the following information:

The President of the United States arrived back in Washington, D.C. late in the evening of Monday, July 6th. His trip took him to the Middle Eastern country of Saudi Arabia where he took part in several meetings about the price of oil and world-wide inflation.

You are expected to reduce the message using the following key words:

President United States arrived D.C. Monday July 6.
Trip Saudi Arabia meetings about price oil world
inflation.

The third important task in note-taking is to be able to use some abbreviations and symbols in order to shorten the time of writing and thus be able to follow the piece of information to be delivered next. Dunkel and Pialorsi demonstrate how the notes, written by making use of the 'content' words, could still be condensed into a shorter piece of note by means of abbreviations and symbols:

Pres. U.S. arriv. D.C. Mon. 7/6
Trip- S.A. meetings re pr. oil + world infl.

(Dunkel and Pialorsi: 1982: xxi)

Here, aside from the abbreviated words, we see the use of symbols 're' meaning "about" and '+' meaning "and". There are other symbols which are commonly used in note-taking:

=	equals; is the same as
≠	does not equal; is different from; is not the same as
>	is greater than; is more than
<	is less than
->	causes; results in
<-	is caused by; resulted in
re	about
e.g.	for example
i.e.	that is; for example (also)
\$	money
%	percent

Pauk (1984: 136-137) gives the following suggestions as to how to abbreviate words while taking notes:

- a) Leave out the periods in standard abbreviations.

cf	compare
NYC	New York City

- b) Use only the first syllable of the word.

lib	liberal
dem	democracy

- c) Use the entire first syllable and only the first letter of a second syllable.

subj	subject
cons	conservative

- d) Eliminate final letters. Use sufficient part of the beginning of a word to form an easily recognizable abbreviation.

assoc	associate
biol	biology
intro	introduction

- e) Omit vowels from the middle of words, and keep the relevant consonants to provide a recognizable skeleton of the word.

bkgd	background
prblm	problem

- f) Use an apostrophe to indicate the deletion.

gov't	government
educat'l	educational

- g) Indicate the plural of a symbol or abbreviated word by adding s.

chaps	chapters
co-ops	cooperatives

- h) Use g to indicate ing ending

decr	decreasing
exptg	experimenting

- i) After a term, phrase, or name is written out in full at the beginning of a lecture, initials can be substituted whenever the term, phrase, or name is used again.

Initial writing: Modern Massachusetts Party
Subsequently: MMP

You do not have to use symbols that do not mean much to you. You can create your own symbols, but you have to be sure what each symbol stands for, and you must get accustomed to using these symbols and use them consistently.

ORGANIZING THE NOTES AFTER LECTURES

After you take your notes of the same topic, you would like to go over them after class to see the link between ideas. Thus, you categorize your notes under specific headings and prepare a condensed set of notes to let you see the materials discussed in different sessions under one or two headings. Pauk (1984: 211) suggests two different types of summary sheets for you to prepare:

1. Summary sheets for classroom lecture notes
2. Summary sheets for textbook chapters

Pauk also gives an example of a summary sheet in which ten pages of notes taken in two lectures are condensed into less than half a page (Fig. 5.9). The notes are in the form of words or phrases. These key words or phrases serve as cues for you to recall all the related information discussed in class. Once you organize the information in an outline form, it is easier for you to fill in the details when required.

	<i>Sociology 103</i>	
	<i>19th CENTURY</i>	<i>20th CENTURY</i>
<i>Head of family</i>	1. Patriarchal. Father head of family	1. Now, individualistic democratic
<i>Stable – non extended family.</i>	2. Family stable	2. Family less stable
	3. Many children and relatives under one roof = extended family	3. Smaller in size. Only two generations (parents & children)
<i>non-mobile</i>	4. Non-mobile Rarely moved "old family homestead"	4. Mobility increased and residence changes often
<i>women at work</i>	5. Women: housework and children	5. Women: work outside and care for children after hours
<i>sex</i>	6. Puritanical on sex matters	6. Increasingly liberal
<i>family types</i>	7. Family types in community alike	7. Greater variability in family type
<i>family functions</i>	8. Family had many functions: political, religious, economic	8. Now function – procreation and socialization

Figure 5.9 Summary Sheet for Classroom Lecture Notes: Cornell System (Pauk 1984: 211)

In Fig. 5.10, you see a summary sheet for a textbook chapter on the advantages and disadvantages of single proprietorship, partnership and incorporation. In the first column, you see the key words that would apply for the other two columns reflecting the situation in the 19th and 20th centuries. In the two columns to the right, you see the comparison of the social set-up of the family in two different centuries.

Economics 102	
I. Single	I. Single proprietorship
Adv.	<u>ADVANTAGES</u>
1. freehand	1. Can do what desires
2. profits – his	2. All profit goes to owner
Disadv.	<u>DISADVANTAGES</u>
1. liable	1. All losses hurt owner (unlimited liability)
2. venture capital	2. Commercial banks ordinarily will not provide "venture capital"
II. Partner	II. Partnership
Adv.	<u>ADVANTAGES</u>
1. Common pool	1. Pool wealth, profits, losses
2. vertical integration	2. "Vertical integration" = gain control of resources, become own wholesaler
3. horizontal integration	3. "Horizontal integration" = bring out competitions, add products, improve products
Disadv.	<u>DISADVANTAGES</u>
1. death & change	1. Each time a member dies or leaves, a new partnership needs to be joined
2. liable	2. Unlimited liability, even if owns a small share
III. Corporation	III. Corporation
Adv.	<u>ADVANTAGES</u>
1. legally formed	1. Easy to form (legal permission needed)
2. stock – capital	2. Issue stock to raise capital; banker underwrites stock issue and sells to public.
3. limited liability	3. Limited liability-corp, distinct from its owners, can sue and be sued.
4. perpetual – bored	4. "Perpetual succession", or existence. Board of directors.
Adv. to society:	<u>ADVANTAGES TO SOCIETY</u>
1. production	1. Technical efficiency – production of goods and services
2. continuation	2. Pool business risks – continuation of production
3. creates capital	3. Creates further capital for expansion or finance new
4. pays taxes	4. It is taxed.

Figure 5.10 Summary Sheet for Textbook Chapter: Cornell System (Pauk 1984: 212)

The HopiA. Speech

1. Uto-Aztecan family (Ute, Paiute, Shoshone)

B. Subsistence Economic Life

1. Skillful farmers – Growing maize (mainstay) beans, squash,
2. Main fields not irrigated – small gardens irrigated. Cotton.
3. Domestic animals not important.
 - a. turkeys – for feathers.
 - b. sheep – for wool
4. Wild flora – onions, potatoes, tobacco – yucca for soap.
5. Hunting
 - a. rabbit

C. Settlement and Houses

1. Proximity of water
2. Desire for security – mesa residence.
3. Clay, sandstone, mud – terraced effect – hole in top
4. Only women own houses.
 - a. matrilineal residence – brings together matrilineal kin.
 - b. kinship groups are strong.

D. Crafts

1. Basketry (not too good)
2. Loom work – wool has become the principal textile material.
3. Pottery (coiled) painted.

E. Division of Labor

1. Men
 - a. most of farming.
 - b. spin, weave, tan skins, make clothing for selves & wives.
 - c. house building: both sexes work.
2. Women
 - a. make pottery
 - b. tend gardens

F. Trade

1. Other Pueblo
2. Paiute, Apache, Navaho.

G. Society-Lineage & Clan

1. Typical matrilineal residence – underlie the clan system.
2. Houses owned by women – » » » »
3. All-important ceremonials associated with maternal lineage.
4. Clans are exogamous.
5. Clans have totemic names, but do not believe descended from totem.

H. Family and Clan

1. Boy accompanies father to corn fields; learns from him.

I. Government

1. Chief – head of Flute ceremony.
2. Power vested in hierarchical council of headmen.
3. Town chief must learn long ceremonial chants.

Figure 5.11 Summary Sheet in Modified-Outline Form (Pauk 1984: 214)

Greek RaceUnity, well rounded

The early Greeks were a vigorous people who constantly strove to achieve a well-rounded life—a unity of human knowledge. The Greeks did not have a departmental view. They believed that one man should know all things in one lifetime. The well-rounded Greek, in addition to being well versed in the arts, had to be an athlete, soldier, and statesman.

Competition

The Greeks loved competition. For example, they got together for athletic games each year. The athletic competitions best known to us were the games held at Mount Olympus and at Delphi.

Human-Image

A strong religious force permeated their lives. The early Greek religion was an interpretation of nature-polytheism. The Greeks invested the gods with a human image in order to define these forces as tangible beings. These gods had greater power than humans, but they possessed human frailties. There was a close connection between government and religion. Every city was supposed to have been established by some God. For example, Athena was supposed to have founded Athens and the people were descended from her.

Figure 5.12 Summary Sheet in Paragraph Form (Pauk 1984: 215)

Aside from the summary sheets, notes can be organized in a modified outline (Fig. 5.11), or paragraph forms (Fig. 5.12). Contrary to the summary sheets, the key words in the modified outline are indicated as headings and subheadings of the format instead of being displayed in columns.

You should get all your summaries ready before finals because you will have time only to review them. As you review your notes, using the Cornell System summary sheet, look at the first column and try to recite the content yourself. If you cannot remember, then refer to the information in the other columns. With the modified-outline form, put a piece of paper on top of your summary sheet. Slip that sheet slowly, stopping at the headings. By looking at the headings, see how much information you can recite in relation to the topic. After you recite it, move the blank sheet down to check whether you have recited everything that was noted.

You may adopt any of these four types of summary sheets depending on your style of learning. The importance of summary sheets is that as you write the information in a condensed way, you help your memory recall the information by the key words you have inscribed.

EXERCISES

- I. Here is a "Note-Taking Model" given by Dunkel and Pialorsi (1982: 5). Observe the notes carefully and try to answer the questions following the notes.

The United Nations: The Promise of Peace

U.N.	- 141 countries		
purp.	- orig. purpose	peace+coop.	
hdqtr.	- NYC		
branch	- Paris, Rome, Geneva		
'44	- 1st planned		
"	- 26 cos.-> fight Germ. #Italy WW II		
chart.	10/45	- .50 "	- S.F. Calif.
	'50	- Rockefeller	- oil-phil.->land NYC
		- U.S. govt.	- \$65 m. -building
today	- 73 hect. (18 acres)		
budget	- +\$450m/yr.		
	- U.S. 25%		
	- USSR 12,9%		
	- Japan 7,15%		
	- Fr. 5,86%		

no-str. U.N.

co. joins U.N.	prom.	- settle disp. peacefully
"	"	- n. easy -keep
"	"	- nuc. weap.

1. What are these notes about?
2. What does U.N. stand for?
3. What does *cos.* stand for?
4. What is the purpose of the U.N.?
5. What does *hdqtr.* stand for? Where is it?
6. Where are the branches?
7. When was it first planned?
8. What did the 26 countries pledge to do?
9. When was the first charter signed? How many countries were involved? Where was it signed?
10. What did Rockefeller, the well-known millionaire and philanthropist, give the United Nations Organization? When did he give it?

11. How much money did the U.S. government donate? What was the purpose of the donation?
12. How much land does the U.N. occupy today?
13. How much is the U.N.'s budget?
14. Which countries contribute to the budget? What are the percentages?
15. *n-str.* *U.N* stands for *no structure of the United Nations*. Does this phrase mean
 - a) U.N. has no structure or
 - b) the structure of U.N. will not be discussed?
16. When a country joins U.N., what does it promise?
17. Write an essay of four or five paragraphs giving information about the United Nations.

II. How would you abbreviate the following terms, which appear frequently in many academic lectures ?

positive	-----	increase	-----
negative	-----	therefore	-----
for example	-----	women	-----
concerning	-----	majority	-----
men	-----	with	-----

III. Complete the following by writing *one or more words* in each space as you listen to the talk.

How to Take Notes (after transferring the essay to the key section leave out some spaces)

Begin with anticipation: Preread the textbook chapter so you'll easily be able to follow the development of the material. In the take a seat near the lecturer, to better and see the board better. Then begin taking notes as soon as the lecture begins, and don't stop you have notes on the entire lecture.

Do not try to take the lecture word for word. Instead, write telegraphic style, using both your own words and those of the lecturer. Make special note all vivid or striking words that the lecturer uses; they will help you the lecturer's statements later. Remember that your purpose is to record the lecturer's for later study. Don't waste valuable time trying to find synonyms for the lecturer's precise words simply to have them. You can use your own words when you have the time to think, write, and understand the ideas more fully.

Make notes on ideas and on sub-ideas, examples, and details. You need to come away from the lecture with enough information from each concept as fully as possible. If you can detect the lecturer's main and subheadings, write them down. They will help you organize your ideas and facts. But don't use an inability to detect these headings as an excuse for not taking notes.

Listen carefully as you make your notes, but don't stop to the ideas presented. By the time you have finished on idea number one, the lecturer will probably be on idea number four or five. It is important that you consider these ideas, but the time for is after classes. Your job in the classroom is to capture the lecturer's ideas.

If a particular lecturer talks too fast for normal note taking, try the system. On the left-hand page record only the main ideas in a bold, non formal way. Make sure that you the key words. Immediately after the lecture, as well as during pauses in the lecture itself, record on the right-hand page as many details as you can recall. Place them the main ideas that they support. You will end up with the important information from the lecture in brief form on the left, which will serve you when it's time for review. And you'll have the supporting details on the right.

Don't try to get around note taking by using a tape or cassette You'll end up spending more time. When a lecture is recorded, you can't it in five or ten minutes; you have to replay the entire lecture. Moreover, you will lose the benefits of note taking -the attention, concentration, and organization the act provides- and you won't be able to see relationships among various ideas that become evident when they are set down on paper.

Your notes should be and complete enough so that you can make sense of them several months later. They should be enough so that a classmate who missed the lecture can understand them. Then, when you are reviewing your notes and trying to on their meaning, your mind will not be bogged down in deciphering them. With messy notes, you'll have to review some and decipher some, then review some more and some more. And so on. You'll not only waste time, but seriously drain your energy doing unnecessary work.

(Pauk 1984: 123)

IV. Listen to Recording 1 to find answers to the following questions.

1. Who has a question to ask about cars?
2. Who answers his questions?
3. Are these people in the same place?
4. Where is Joanne?
5. What does Joanne want to know about her car?
6. Why is electronic ignition an important advancement in cars?
7. What is Joanne's second question about?
8. What's advised in buying cars?

V. Listen to Recording 2 to find answers to the following questions.

1. Who is the person talking about?
2. What is the job of the person talking?
3. Is he doing his job now?

VI. Listen to Recording 3 to find answers to the following questions.

1. What are the people talking about?
2. Is it an authentic conversation?
3. What is the purpose of the dialogue?

VII. Listen to Recording 4 to find answers to the following questions.

1. What is the speaker talking about?
2. What is the occupation of the speaker?

VIII. Listen to Recording 5 to find answers to the following questions.

1. What are the speakers talking about?
2. Where does this conversation take place?
3. Do they have an audience? If so where?
4. What does the audience expect to hear after the conversation?

IX. Listen to Recording 6 to find answers to the following questions.

1. Is this a political talk?
2. Is this a scientific talk?
3. What is the talk on?

X. Listen to Recording 7 to find answers to the following questions.

1. Is this a lecture?
2. What is the subject of the talk?
3. Why do English speaking people have different accents?

XI. Listen to Recording 8 to find answers to the following questions.

1. Is this a lecture given in class?
2. Is the talk given in the form of classification or narration?
3. What is the main event?
4. Where was the speaker when the event happened?
5. What did he do after the event?
6. What may be the reason of the event?

XII. Listen to Recording 9 to find answers to the following questions.

1. Is it easy to understand the speaker? Why?
2. Could he be a foreign student or a native speaker with a nonstandard dialect?
3. Give reasons for your answer to Question 2.

XIII. Listen to Recording 10 to find answers to the following questions.

1. Who is the speaker?
2. What does he talk about?
3. What are some important events he mentions?

XIV. Listen to the recording on dinosaurs and try to fill in the blanks in the given outline.

----- proposed about the disappearance of dinosaurs from earth.

I. ----- theory

The world became ----- and cold weather resulted in ----- of food for dinosaurs.

II. ----- theory

A. The ----- caused by a ----- hitting the earth about ----- million years ago, covered the whole earth and ----- for months. Without sunshine most of the ----- died and dinosaurs were left without -----.

B. Evidence for this theory: -----

C. Importance of this theory:

1. -----
2. -----

XV. Listen to the recording on cacholot and tell us

- a) what they are. _____
- b) where they live. _____
- c) how long they are. _____
- d) how they travel. _____
- e) how big their heads are. _____

XVI. Listen to the recording on Chicago.

- A. Try to take brief notes as illustrated in this chapter by making use of symbols.
- B. By making use of your notes, make an outline.
- C. Using the outline, write a summary giving information about Chicago in general.

XVII. Listen to the recording on Albania.

- A. Try to take brief notes as illustrated in this chapter by making use of symbols. Be sure you write all the numerals.
- B. By making use of your notes, make an outline.
- C. Using the outline, write a summary giving information about Albania in general.

XVIII. Read the following passage.

- A. Underline the key words or sentences that indicate the main ideas.

CAMERAS

A camera is an instrument used for the production of an optical image. Essentially a camera consists of a light-tight box with a lens in the center of one side, capable of throwing an image of a lighted scene on the side opposite to that containing the lens. There is usually a means of adjusting the brightness of the image by varying the effective diameter of the lens; a shutter, or mechanical device for adjusting the duration of exposure of the sensitive material; a means of varying the distance between lens and sensitive material so as to focus the image sharply; and a view-finder for ascertaining the portion of the original view which is framed on the film. Many modern cameras incorporate photoelectric exposure meters, coupled to the camera control to give automatic or semi-automatic exposure adjustment.

There are different types of cameras. Early forms of cameras were of wooden construction, often large enough to take plates up to 12x10 inches in individual holders and usually providing variable extension by means of flexible bellows: they were necessarily used on stands or tripods.

Cameras have almost entirely changed over to the use of photographic film in roll or cassette form, giving up to 36 exposures at a single loading, or even as many as 250 in special models. Modern cameras are designed for use in the hand and are constructed in metal.

Current roll-film models are of the twin-lens reflex type. Such cameras are fitted models with two matched lenses, one giving a ground-glass screen image for visual inspection and the other forming the image on the surface of the film. The lenses are coupled so that focusing the visual image automatically sets the camera lens to correct focus. The visual and the recorded images are not quite identical in perspective, since the two lenses are on slightly different horizontal levels: but parallax errors are negligible for all but close-up subjects. With this construction the image remains in view on the screen at all times and there is no moving mirror to involve even slight time-lag in exposure.

An alternative form of ground-glass screen focusing is the single-lens reflex design. This construction makes use of a hinged mirror to permit the single lens to provide the visual picture on the screen and then to make the exposure on the film. A light-weight mirror lying at 45 deg. behind the lens throws an image up on to a ground-glass screen set horizontally in the camera top: when the picture has been arranged and focused and the shutter release has been operated, the mirror is first swung upwards out of the beam passed by the lens and the image then falls on the film as the shutter opens. The image seen on the screen is identical with that recorded on the film, except that the screen image is laterally reversed.

In a few of the latest designs the viewing system includes a photoelectric meter device which automatically sets the lens aperture for exposure control, just at the moment of exposure. Both these patterns of reflex camera serve for view finding and focusing at the same time. With non-reflex cameras view finding is usually provided for by means of small direct-vision viewfinders mounted within the camera body, and it is then necessary to control the accuracy of focus either by scale focusing or by range finder focusing. Range finder focusing depends on the use of an optical device which gives two images of the same object in one eyepiece, the amount of adjustment required to superimpose or align the two images serving to indicate the distance of the subject from the camera.

In more expensive types of cameras the built-in range finder is coupled to the focusing mechanism so that, when the two images are correctly superimposed or aligned in the range finder, the camera is automatically adjusted to the exact focus. This is known as coupled range finder focusing.

(Universal Encyclopedia 1969)

- B.** By making use of the underlined words and sentences, make an outline for this passage on cameras.

Compare your outline with your friend sitting next to you.

- C. After having modified your outline, write a summary giving brief information about cameras. Add any other technological improvements on cameras.

XVIII. Read the following passage.

- A. Take notes on the sides of the sheet.

There are several ways in which learning to speak a language differs from acquiring other skills. Whereas a person can learn to play chess, to dance, or to make wood carvings at almost any age, his ability to learn a language natively deteriorates rapidly after he reaches *puberty*. After that time he must spend many hours of intensive study to gain any kind of facility, and except in the most rare cases he will speak the new language with a foreign accent. Second, in learning a language a person masters a body of material which is infinitely more complex than anything else he learns during the rest of his lifetime. One contribution of linguistic research of the past few years has been a demonstration of how complex language really is. By complexity linguists are not referring simply to vocabulary. Rather, they mean the system into which words fit. The greatest part of this learning is completed by the time the child is about six or eight years old. Third, if instruction or learning conditions are poor, a person will not learn to type, play the trumpet, or make pottery. Except in the most severe cases of mental *retardation* or emotional disturbance, however, a child who is exposed to a language learns it. No one is really "taught" his mother tongue; teaching is either nonexistent or very sketchy and poor. Similarly, learning conditions are never *optimal*, since poorly formed sentences are heard at least as often as those that are well constructed; yet the child in some way knows to ignore *malformations* when he is forming his theories about language. Fourth, all humans acquire a language, and there are *discernible* patterns in the ways in which they learn. There are no groups of people anywhere in the world without language. Fifth, motivation cannot have a major influence on the acquisition of a skill so uniformly distributed throughout the human race as language is. Some children are so *neglected* that it does not matter what they ask for or how they ask for it. Others are so *pampered* that they seem to obtain everything they want simply by yelling loudly.

(Liles 1975: 22-23)

- B. Try to guess the meaning of the words typed in italics.
C. Make an outline of the reading passage.
D. Find an appropriate title for the passage.

Organization of Texts

A text is organized by arranging pieces of information from different sources in a systematic way to form unity (Ekmekçi 1991). Relationship within the sentences and paragraphs can be maintained by putting the parts in a logical sequence with comparative degree of importance. Thus, the most important items are indicated under general headings, the minor ones under sub-headings.

D'Angelo (1977) talks about paradigms as devices to represent one's patterns of thought and gives the following examples:

– Analysis paradigm

Introduction

Characteristic 1

Characteristic 2

Characteristic 3

Characteristics 4, 5, 6

Conclusion

– Classification paradigm

Introduction

Type 1

Type 2

Type 3

Types 4, 5, 6

Conclusion

– Exemplification paradigm

Introduction

Example 1

Example 2

Example 3

Examples 4, 5, 6,

Conclusion

– Cause-to-effect paradigm

Introduction

Cause 1

Cause 2

Cause 3

Causes 4, 5, 6

Conclusion

Effect-to-cause paradigm

Introduction

Effect 1

Effect 2

Effect 3

Effects 4, 5, 6

Conclusion

D'Angelo also gives the categorization of logical organization of topics under two major headings based on whether they are progressive or static:

I. Progressive logical topics

- A. Narration
- B. Process
- C. Cause and effect

II. Static logical topics

- A. Identification
- B. Description
- C. Definition
- D. Analysis
 - 1. Partition
 - 2. Enumeration
- E. Classification
- F. Exemplification
- G. Comparison and contrast
 - 1. Similarity
 - a. Literal
 - b. Figurative
 - 2. Difference
 - a. In kind
 - b. In degree

(D'Angelo 1977: 32)

ORGANIZATIONAL PATTERNS

In accordance with D'Angelo's categorization, the logical patterns will be discussed one by one with emphasis on the function and the developmental pattern of each. Furthermore, the common vocabulary items and the structural patterns utilized in each pattern will be exemplified.

NARRATION

The aim is to answer the following questions:

- What happened or is happening or will happen?
- When and where did (will) it happen?

While the events are mentioned, they are elaborated and clarified by relevant details. Each event is narrated in such a way that one part guides the reader to develop expectations towards the following event. Thus, the

reader anxiously waits for the rest of the narration to see if his expectations are fulfilled.

Since the focus is on what happened and when and where it happened, the writing consists of many verbs, prepositional phrases and adverbs. Action verbs such as *go, walk, turn, enter, arrive*, and prepositional phrases or adverbs such as *then, afterwards, later, since, thereafter, after, from that time on, today, tomorrow, eventually, while, early, slow, fast, till, by, in, at, from, to*, are used intensively.

Since, in narration, the time factor plays an important role, words indicating the order of events in a time cycle are used at great length:

now	first	previously
then	second	everyday
before	third	a long time ago
after	fourth	one of these days
earlier	former	last year
soon	latter	up to this time
later	prior to	on that occasion

In narration, adverbial clauses of time and place (a, b) are frequently utilized. Short sentences are placed one after the other, and they are separated with commas or semicolons (c). As seen in Sentence c, information that needs to be mentioned but not within that structure is cited between dashes and sometimes within commas:

- a. When they were children, they used to swim by the lake.
- b. Sheila went to dine where she and her husband had first met.
- c. Something happened to the hindmost sledge; the driver lost control –he was probably very drunk– the horses left the road, the sledge was caught in a clump of trees, and overturned.

PROCESS

"Process is a series of actions, changes, functions, steps or operations that bring about a particular end or result" (D'Angelo 1977: 98). The process takes place in a series of interrelated steps, and the gradual change can be observed through these steps. The process involves variation within a sequence of time; therefore, in the explanation of this variation, we observe the frequent use of the following words:

Verbs- *change, alter, vary, invert, modify, transform, convert, and transmit*

Nouns- *phase, occurrence, step, change, state, condition, modification, alteration, variation, transformation, conversion, shifting, transplantation*

In indicating the sequence of steps, terms similar to those of narration are used. Among the very common ones are *now*, *then*, *next*, *afterwards*, *later*, *from*, *to*. Terms used in enumeration are also applied in mentioning the exact order of steps. Thus, terms like *first*, *second*, *third* are often encountered in writings of this sort.

In explaining a process, after the items needed for the process mentioned (a), consequent activities (b), and the simultaneous actions (c) are cited.

- (a).
 1. Before beginning, you must have the following materials.
 2. The chief ingredients for this {production} are
{process}
- (b).
 1. The first step is to boil the water.
 2. The first thing you need to do is to cut the glass into pieces.
 3. Once the glass is completely covered, it is time to**V**.....
 4. When the pieces have dried, attach them
 5. After soaking it in the tub for a while, you start**V**.ing.
- (c).
 1. While you let the pieces dry, cover the drinking glass with a thin coat of glue.
 2. While the necessary equipment was sterilized, the patient was prepared for the surgery.

As seen from the examples, the process is dictated to a second person (a 1), (b 2, 4, 5) and (c 1), and it is explained in general terms using passive voice (b 3), or it is narrated (c 2). In most texts, the process is described in the passive voice, ignoring the agent unless it is significant for the performance of the process.

CAUSE AND EFFECT

Cause and effect organization is used if the author is interested in giving answers to questions of the following nature:

- Why do events happen?
- What are the causes of these events?
- What could be the purpose behind it?
- How is that event or action related to another event or action?

Cause and effect organization may overlap with narration, process, and description because as the author makes generalizations about the reasons causing the event, he gives a detailed account of the chronological progression of the preceding events.

Although there are other organizational patterns involved in the cause and effect paradigm, the ultimate goal is to find an answer to *why* and not to *how* and *what*. The *how* and *what* questions are answered in arriving at the answer for the *why* question. Since the cause and effect organization aims at finding the logical relationship between events, the following verbs and nouns are frequently used :

VERBS	PREPOSITION	ADVERBS CONJUNCTIONS	NOUNS
cause	in	since	the cause of
produce	by	as	the reason for
give reason	due to	because (of)	the effect of
lead to	owing to	if.....then	the consequence of
result from	by means of	thus	
originate		therefore	
make possible		consequently	
lead to		accordingly	

The cause and effect organizational pattern has two basic forms. In one pattern, the cause(s) are stated first, and the effect(s) are mentioned later (Ex. 1). In the other form, the effect(s) are mentioned, and the cause(s) are investigated later (Ex. 2).

Example 1

Cause : The Agriculture Department estimates the 1975 corn crop will yield a record 6.05 billion bushels.

Effect 1 : One effect of this projected record harvest is expected to be lower prices for whisky drinkers and drinkers of other kinds of alcoholic spirits,

Effect 2 : Another effect of a bumper corn crop would be that the cost of livestock grain will go down, this resulting in low prices for milk and poultry.

(From "Liquor Prices Could Go Down" D'Angelo 1977: 115)

Example 2

Effect 1 : The trees on the streets in that city keep drying up.

Effect 2 : Many people in that city have heart attacks and lung problems.

Effect 3 : The hand and the face of the people in that city get black when they go out for a walk.

Cause : These are due to the fact that there is intense air pollution in that city.

The basic structural patterns for cause and effect:

The [cause of]
[reason for]

The [effect]
[consequences] of
[result]

Because]
As] CAUSE, EFFECT
Since]
Now (that)]

	[Therefore,]	
	[So,]	
	[As a [result of]]	
	[consequence of]	
CAUSE	[Accordingly,]	EFFECT
(Main	[Consequently,]	(Subordinate clause)
clause)	[Because of this,]	
	[Thus,]	
	[Hence,]	
	[For this reason,]	

Because of CAUSE (noun/noun phrase), EFFECT (main clause).

One reason for EFFECT (noun/noun phrase) is CAUSE (nominal).

	[causes]	
X	[results in]	Y
CAUSE	[leads to]	EFFECT
	[produces]	

Y	[caused by]	X
EFFECT	[due to]	CAUSE
	[because of]	

	[because of]	
	[as a result of]	
	[on account of]	
Y	[owing to]	X
RESULT	[through]	CAUSE
	[because there is]	
	[since]	
	[as]	

When] **X** (CAUSE), (then) **Y** (RESULT)
If]

DESCRIPTION

In description, the writer is interested in the physical properties of items in relation to time and space. Thus, he describes the shapes, dimensions, features, characteristics, and structure of the items.

According to D'Angelo, (1977: 128) description can be in the:

1. **spatial order:** describing the items within a location in a specific order.
2. **radiant order:** describing the items in the group depending on which ones strike observers most.
3. **dominant order:** taking one concept and describing all the other items in the scene with that concept in mind. Therefore, there is probably much repetition of the items in which the reader should focus.
4. **order of memory:** the order of definition of ideas depends on the vividness in the memory with no logical order. This type of description is fantasy.
5. **order of observation:** the randomly selected impressions of the past are described.

Description of the observable items can be made from different points of view:

1. From near to far or vice versa
2. From above to below or vice versa
3. In a direct line
4. In an oblique form
5. From inside to outside or vice versa

DEFINITION

Definition is the explanation of concepts. In defining a concept, the writer discusses how a concept is defined by other sources or scholars, and then brings his views and opinions about the concept, and tries to arrive at a definition of his own. Meantime, he investigates if this concept is associated with others, and how people are affected by this concept.

In any research writing, the technical vocabulary items and other new words that are not known to most people are defined in order to clarify the meaning.

D'Angelo mentions three types of definition (1977: 141-143):

1. **Logical or formal definition:** putting the word into a class and differentiating it from other members of the same class.

e.g. *Term* *Class* *Differentiation*
 Mini is a short dress two or more inches above the knee.

2. **Etymological definition**: tracing the origin and the historical development of the word.

e.g. The word "*problem*" comes from the Greek word "*probella*" meaning "put forward".

3. **Substitutional definition**: using a synonym.

e.g. retrieve: withdraw

In defining a term, aside from the vocabulary items used for description, the following vocabulary items and sentence structures are employed:

	[means]	
	[signifies]	
X	[is considered to be]
	[is taken to be]	
	[refers to]	
			[the science of]
X	[may be defined as]	[the study of]
	[is]	[the branch of]

[In this paper]		[will be taken to mean]
[In this context]	X	[will be used in this sense]
	
[For this reason]		[will be considered to be]

By X I mean

By X it is meant

ANALYSIS: DEDUCTIVE OR INDUCTIVE REASONING

If, in analysis, the attempt is made to arrive at the aimed result by starting with parts, and showing how these parts are related to the whole, this would be the indication of inductive reasoning. If the analysis starts with the whole, and details and parts qualifying the characteristics of the whole are found accordingly, then the reasoning pursued would be deductive.

In an analysis pattern of writing, the following words and phrases usually appear (D'Angelo 1977: 165):

characteristic	member	trait
feature	component	particular
aspect	constituent	division into part
portion	subdivision	section
originate	fraction	unit
sector	fragment	piece
element	particle	detail
sum	entity	ingredient
whole	analyze	entirely
totality	resolve	unique
collectivity	separate	significant
unity	break up	individualistic
positive	constitute	partly
individuality	aggregate	active
trace	compose	affirmative

ENUMERATION

Enumeration is a kind of informal analysis where the concern lies on the sequential arrangement of groups of objects, events, or ideas. Therefore, the basic pattern is the numerical order (e.g. first, second, third... finally). For that reason, the following vocabulary items are frequently used in this type of text:

NOUNS

number	succession	string	list
item	analysis	sequence	progression
series	set	chain	catalogue

VERBS

to count	to mention separately
to catalogue	to take an account of
to number	to assign a number to
to tell	to come to
to enumerate	to limit or restrict
to itemize	to constitute a group

CLASSIFICATION

In classification, parts are classified and categorized into distinct groups on some common basis. Corbett (1977: 35) gives an example of how a topic can be classified in different ways according to different bases:

Topic: College Students

<i>Basis</i>	<i>Classification</i>
sex	male/female
geographical origin	in-state/out of state
year-standing	freshman/sophomore/junior/senior
department	engineering/science/agriculture etc.
ethnic groups	black/white
religious groups	Catholic, Methodist, Muslim, etc.

There are certain vocabulary items utilized in a classification theme that enables the reader to follow the logical progression:

VERBS	NOUNS	MODIFIERS
classify	categories	two, three, etc.
categorize	divisions	several
group	groups	main
divide into	classes	general
arrange	subdivisions	broad
put into	types/sorts	primary
fall into	qualities	major
place in	orders	fundamental
distinguish	families	mutually exclusive
differentiate	members	collection of
assemble	bases	centered around
collect	varieties	various
cluster	parts	
string together		species/kinds
sub-classify	sources	
sub-categorize		sub-group
sub-divide	criteria	
	features/characteristics	

The basic structures utilized in the classification pattern are the following:

X [consists of]
 [comprises]

X may be classified [on the basis of]
 [depending (up) on]
 [according to]

X [may be divided]
 [may be subdivided]
 [may be further subdivided]

X (can/may/might) be [divided]
[classified] into
[categorized]
[grouped]

X (can/may) be [sub-divided]
[classified] according to
[grouped]

We can/may/might [classify]
[divide] X
[categorize]
[group]

There are [X number of] [classes]
[two] [kinds]
[several] [methods]
[types]
[divisions]
[categories]
[aspects]
[qualities]

There are [several] types of X
[two etc.]

EXEMPLIFICATION

Exemplification is the process of illustrating a general principle, statement, or law by citing specific examples. It is a manner of illustration by using examples. Examples are useful not only to clarify the statement but also to support the claim made in the text.

Among the vocabulary items utilized in exemplification, the following are the most common ones:

NOUNS	VERBS	ADJECTIVES	ADVERBS
example	show	typical	generally
instance	exemplify	illustrative	always
sample	illustrate	particular	invariably
case	cite		particularly
specimen	quote		namely

OTHER EXPRESSIONS

for example	exemplified by	for one thing
for instance	as illustrated by	as an example to
to illustrate	in other words	as proof
as follows	as an illustration	to substantiate as
as shown	that is	to give an example
on the whole	such as	to provide a case

Aside from the cited phrases, the following constructions or phrases are frequently encountered in exemplification themes:

[shows]
X [exemplifies] **Y**
 [illustrates]

The following are examples of 'X':

Noun+pl such as **X** and **Y**

(e.g. Animals such as cats and dogs are used as pets.)

Such *Noun+pl* as **X** and **Y**

(e.g. Such people as my sister cannot go into business.)

COMPARISON / CONTRAST

Comparison is a process of identifying the similarities and differences of two or more items as a result of a thorough examination. In comparison, answers to two main questions are investigated:

- How is **X** similar to **Y**?
- How does **X** differ from **Y**?

The following patterns are frequently observed in writings involved in comparison:

Structures commonly used in comparison:

Both **X** and **Y**

In the same way that **X**, **Y**

X corresponds to

X is comparable to **Y** in

A comparison between **X** and **Y** [demonstrates]
 [reveals]
 [suggests]

X [is like] **Y** in
[is similar to]

X and **Y** have in common.

Structures commonly used in contrast:

X [is different] from **Y**
[differs]

The difference between **X** and **Y** is

[In contrast to] **X**, **Y**
[Unlike]

[Although]
[While] **X**, **Y**
[Whereas]

Y; [in contrast,]
[however,] **X**
[on the other hand,]

X iser than **Y**

X is [more/less] than **Y**

Qualification of Comparison / Contrast :

X BE + INTENSIFIER + ADJECTIVE + THAN **Y**

considerably	smaller
(very) much	bigger
(quite) a lot	softer
rather	thicker
somewhat	larger
a bit	greater
(only) a little	harder
slightly	taller

X BE + INTENSIFIER + ADJECTIVE + AS COMPARED TO **Y**

a great deal	important
scarcely	noticeable
hardly	know

X VERB exactly the same as **Y**
 precisely
 just
 virtually
 practically
 more or less
 almost
 nearly
 approximately
 about

X NOT + VERB [quite]
 [exactly] the same as **Y**
 [entirely]

X VERB [quite]
 [entirely] different from **Y**
 [totally]
 [completely]

X is not quite as/so [big]
 [clear] as **Y**
 [good]

X and **Y** are [different] in every [way]
 [dissimilar] [respect]
 [totally]

X and **Y** are [completely] different
 [entirely]
 [quite]

ARGUMENT

Organizational pattern for argument is used :

1. to introduce a point of view
2. to give one's own opinion
3. to agree with others' opinions (doubtful/certain)
4. to oppose to others' opinion (doubtful/certain)

Common patterns used in introducing a point of view:

[The first thing] [we have to] consider is
[First of all] [we need to]

The first thing to be considered is

One of our main arguments [in favor of] **X** is that
[against]

Common patterns used in expressing one's opinion:

In my opinion,

It appears to me that

From my perspective it seems that

The way I see it

It is a fact]
There is no doubt]
I believe] that
I predict]

It is [likely] [may/might]
[possible] that **X** [will]
[probable] [could]

X [will] [increase/decrease]
[should] [lead to]
[may/might] [produce]
[could] [result]
[cause]
[change]

Common patterns used to agree with other opinions:*Cautious agreement:*

X may be correct [when he says] that
[in saying]

I [tend to agree] that
[hesitate to disagree]

nat

e [says] that ..

1994]

provided by

argue that

.....

with

that]

with others' opinion:

]

Strong disagreement:

I completely disagree with]
I am in total disagreement with]
I thoroughly disapprove of]
I reject the idea that]

EXERCISES

I. Below are the titles of some essays.

A. By examining the title, can you tell which organizational pattern has been applied in general in developing each of these essays?

1. Theories on UFO's: what are they?
2. What sort of people see ghosts?
3. Why do people see ghosts?
4. University education at the present and in the past
5. Which sports are good for children?
6. Benefits of milk for children
7. Types of western music
8. Advantages and disadvantages of public and private schools
9. How to play tennis
10. Life of James Dean
11. A portrait of village life
12. Reasons for building the Fatih Mehmet Suspension Bridge in Istanbul
13. Thames barriers: the answer to London floods
14. Trains in Europe
15. Dangers of driving at night

B. In the above titles which words helped you in determining the organizational pattern of the essay. For each title, write these words down.

1.
2.
3.
4.
5.
6.

7.
8.
9.
10.
11.
12.
13.
14.
15.

II. Suppose you are going to read an article entitled:
What are people worried about?

A. Which of the following do you expect to find?

1. types of worries
2. worries according to age
3. worries according to cultures
4. the author's personal worries
5. statistical information
6. charts and graphs

B. Can you give some examples for each item cited above?

1.
2.
3.
4.
5.
6.

III. In an article entitled *An unusual sport*, which of this do you expect to be discussed?

1. swimming
2. hang-gliding
3. football

IV. Go over the following texts.

1. Find out the organizational pattern for each text.
2. Write down the words or phrases that helped you decide on the organizational pattern of that specific text.
3. Find a title for each text.

TEXT I.

Culture shock is a psychological term used to define the mental state that a person experiences when learning to live in a new culture. Learning to cope with regular daily life is often difficult for a foreigner because he or she may find, among other things, totally different food, clothing manners, and language. During the first few months in the United States, a person might feel lack of appetite when offered a "sloppy Joe" sandwich, or disgust at the sight of barefoot students going into classes, or amazement as the dignified professor sits on a desk while lecturing, or total bewilderment as the intercom in a drive-in restaurant squawks the menu. With such a bombardment of new customs, the foreigner often becomes angry, numb, or melancholic. Many foreigners give up and in a very short time return home in a state of disillusionment. Some psychologists believe that more than six months are necessary to overcome this state of mind and become acclimated to the society. However, once people realize that culture shock is a common occurrence, they can better cope with unpleasant reactions and feelings during the difficult first months in a new culture.

(Johnston and Zukowski/Faust 1985: 100)

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.

TEXT II.

Using chopsticks is not as difficult as it may seem. First, pick up the two chopsticks so that the square ends are at the top. Make sure they are even by tapping them against a plate. Always keep the lower stick at the base of your thumb and between the top and first joint of your third finger. Next, keeping the lower stick in the same position, hold the upper stick with the top of your right thumb, index finger and third finger in the same way as you hold a pencil. Remember to keep the lower stick in a fixed position and move only the upper stick.

(Baskoff 1984: 44)

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.

TEXT III.

Shanghai is different from New York in many ways, but there are many things that are similar.

Shanghai is one of the most populated cities in Asia, and New York is one of the most populated cities in North America. The weather in the summer is very hot in Shanghai, and it is the same in New York. Shanghai is a port and an industrial city, and New York is too. Shanghai has a problem with pollution, and New York has a similar problem. They both have serious traffic problems.

The traffic problem in Shanghai is caused by too many bicycles. The traffic problem in New York, on the other hand, is caused by too many automobiles. The population of Shanghai is homogeneous, but the population of New York is heterogeneous. Most of the people in Shanghai live in apartments in low buildings, while most of the people in New York live in apartments in high buildings. People eat with chopsticks in Shanghai, but they eat with knives and forks in New York. While there are some differences, the major problems of big cities are almost the same everywhere in the world.

(Baskoff 1984: 35)

1.
2.
3.

TEXT IV.

Belize City, capital of Belize (once British Honduras), has always been the country's administrative, cultural, and geographic center. It is a unique waterfront community characterized by large frame houses with rambling, screened verandas. Located on the periphery of the hurricane zone, and at an average elevation of two feet above sea level, the city is vulnerable to any tidal wave. Hence, most buildings are on stilts, and many others have spartan furnishings at the street level. The cooling effect of sea breezes in a community surrounded on three sides by salt water relieves the otherwise oppressive climate

(Babin et al. 1983: 179)

1.
2.
3.

TEXT V.

Output per man-hour has been growing over a long term at an increasing rate. During most of the world's history, productivity grew very slowly indeed, or probably not at all. During the first half of the nineteenth century, productivity per-hour in the U.S. may have increased as much as twenty-five percent. In the second half of the century it doubled, and in the first half of the twentieth century it almost trebled. But this long-run tendency for productivity to rise at an increasing rate is marked by variations in the rate of increase. Thus, during the last hundred years there have been two periods, 1870 or 1880 to about 1910, and 1920 to the present, when growth in productivity has been rather rapid, and two periods, 1850 to about 1870 or 1880, and 1910 to 1920, when growth has been somewhat slower.

(Babin et al. 1983: 216)

1.
2.
3.

TEXT VI.

Three basic types of automobile tires have become popular. All tires manufactured today fall into one of these three categories. The most common and cheapest tires are bias tires. Like all tires, these are made of rubber, mixed with chemicals for added strength and molded over cord base. The cord fabric of bias tires runs diagonally from one to the other. Each layer or ply of the fabric is crossed on the layer above it for strength. The belted bias tire has essentially the same construction as the bias tire; however, a belt of fiberglass, rayon, or steel reinforces the tire. The belt is placed between the plies and the tread, greatly reducing the chance of punctures. Radial tires are the newest and strongest type of tires. The cord fabric runs from rim to rim, straight across the tire. Also all radials are belted usually with steel. These tires are the longest-lasting and safest; however, they have less flex and are, therefore, not as comfortable as bias tires. Predictably, radial tires are also the most expensive. Although the radial tire is becoming more popular because of its reliability, consumers continue to have need for and to buy all three types of tires.

(Johnston and Zukowski/Faust 1985: 132)

1.
2.
3.

TEXT VII.

If I were asked to select five items to represent American life today that would be placed in a 3' x 3' x 3' time capsule not to be opened until the year 5000, I would choose the following items. The first item would be a pair of jogging shoes. This would represent the American people's craze for physical fitness at present. Next, I would include a picture of a hamburger and of a roadside McDonald's or Burger King. Fast food chains are proliferating all over the country, and the pictures would represent an American food habit. The third item would be a computer. We are living in a computer age today, and it is predicted that every business and most homes will soon have one as well. The fourth item would be the book, *How to Live to be 100 – or More*, by George Burns. This is advertised as "the ultimate diet, sex, and exercise book" and would be an example of the kind of book that always appears on America's best-seller lists. The last item would be a videotape of a few soap operas. On this one could see the clothes of today, the homes of today, and some of the problems Americans face in their social life. When they open the capsule in the year 5000, I wonder what the people of the future will think of us.

(Baskoff 1984: 149)

1.
2.
3.

VI. Read Texts IV and VII again to find the sentences indicating the main idea. Write these sentences down. Also indicate the sentences that support the main ideas.

Text IV

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

Text VII

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

VI. Following are excerpts from different texts. You can only read the first sentence of each paragraph in each text. The texts are numbered from I to V.

1. Try to guess the organizational pattern of each text.
2. Then choose among the following a suitable title for each text and write down the text number in the space provided.

- a. Definition of loneliness
- b. Why does food cost so much?
- c. Truck driving: A way of life
- d. Problems of truck drivers
- e. The old south and the new
- f. Clocks through time
- g. Who gets lonely?
- h. Meat costs in the States
- i. How clocks are made?
- j. The reflection of the old south in new movies

TEXT I.

The Rubenstein and Shaver survey and other recent research have turned up some surprising clues to who's most vulnerable. Their conclusions:

Youth vs. age. Old people are not, as was previously thought, most prone to loneliness.

Married vs. singles. Though single people are usually stereo-typed in magazine articles, books, and movies as being excruciatingly lonely and desperate to wed, virtually all recent surveys find this view highly inaccurate.

Men vs. women. Married women are more likely to describe themselves as lonely than are married men, but single or divorced men are lonelier than single or divorced women.

Happy vs. unhappy childhood. Researchers find, predictably, that respondents who did not have warm, helpful mothers and fathers are more likely to be lonely as adults.

Rich vs. poor. Chances of being lonely are greater if you're poor, sociologist Fischer finds.

TEXT II.

It was probably around 3,000 years ago that people first began making things to help them measure the passage of time. Having observed the shadows move around trees as the sun moves across the sky, someone drew a circle and put a stick in the center.

Of course, a sundial did not work at night or on cloudy days, so men kept inventing other ways to keep track of time. One invention was a striped candle.

A water clock was another way of telling time.

Candles and water clocks helped people know how much time had gone by. But candles had to be remade, and water clocks had to be refilled. So, after glass blowing was invented, the hourglass came into use.

Finally the first clock with a face and an hour hand was made.

Watches came into use as soon as clocks were made small enough to be carried.

The pendulum clock was invented in 1657.

Today, of course, we have electric clocks that keep giving the right time until they are unplugged or the electricity goes off.

Many electric clocks are combined with radios, which can sometimes be set to turn on automatically.

TEXT III.

In 1959 the average American family paid \$989 for a year's supply of food. In 1972 the family paid \$1,311.

Every family has had this sort of experience Who is really responsible?

Many blame the farmers who produce the vegetables, fruit, meat, eggs, and cheese that stores offer for sale.

But farmers claim that this increase was very small compared to the increase in their cost of living.

Of the \$1,311 family food bill in 1972, middlemen received \$790,- which was thirty-three percent more than they had received in 1959

According to economists at the First National City Bank, the middleman's actual profit was low.

Who then is actually responsible for the size of the bill a housewife must pay before she carries the food home from the store?..... These economists blame the housewife herself for the jump in food prices.

Vegetables cost more when they have been washed and cut and sometimes even cooked before being packaged.

Economists remind us that many modern housewives have jobs outside the home.

"If the housewife wants all of these," the economists say, "that is her privilege, but she must be prepared to pay for the services of those who make her work easier."

It appears that the answer to the question of rising prices is not a simple one.

TEXT IV.

The southern part of the United States has become familiar to people around the world through such movies as *Gone with the Wind*.

What is not generally known, however, is how rapidly the South is changing.

Geography has been kind to the Southeast.

Before the United States declared its independence from England in 1776, the colonies were not encouraged to make things.

Cotton was a crop that the warm South could grow very well.

Farming of that kind, before the days of farm machines, required a large labor force.

Slavery system was a curse to the slaves, and it was a curse to the slaves' owners, too.

The southern farmers had to produce for export, since the region did not have a population of well-paid workers who could buy what was produced there.

During the unhappy years of 1861-65, the United States put men and resources into conflict between northern and southern states.

Luckily, the old errors, the misuse and misunderstanding of resources, are being corrected in the South today.

The change in farming has started in many different ways in different parts of the South.

Among the resources now being used instead of wasted is water power.

Industry is an important part of life in the new South.

There is still much to be done.

TEXT V.

Huge trucks are a familiar sight to anyone who travels across the United States by car.

This way of life has certain disadvantages.

Another problem is that truckers' families can seldom plan ahead.

But drivers and their wives also point to advantages in their way of life.

Driving a truck requires little physical labor.

Some of the sleeping is done inside the truck.

When a trucker does not sleep in the truck, he spends the night at a truck stop.

After a shower the driver can enjoy a good meal in the dining room, listening to music.

To the average citizen, who works in the same place from 9:00 to 5:00 each day and then goes home to his family, the truckers live in a different world.

ASSIGNMENT

- I. Choose one of the topics given in the texts in Exercise VI.
- II. Discuss it with your friends or your family or go to the library to find more information about it. Then write an essay, finishing the rest of the paragraphs for that text.

Success in Examinations

PREPARING FOR EXAMINATIONS

Most students claim that they study very hard for the examinations. Teachers expect them to study for the examinations as well, but students should know that when they prepare for the examinations, they should review the material, and they should not attempt to learn the material for the first time at the last moment. A day or two before the exam date, students are expected only to review the material with the assumption that this material has already been learned throughout the teaching period.

From the first day of class if you take notes for each lecture, and go over your notes the same evening; and moreover, if you review your notes several times during the semester, you will have no problem in preparing yourselves for the examinations. This is because, as you take notes and go over them regularly, you will retain 80 percent of the material you have learned. When you study for the examination, these notes will help you recall the 20 percent you might have forgotten.

Under these conditions, before the examination, you would only organize your notes to see the relation among various types of information given in each lecture. With this awareness you will be able to establish a linkage between the topics that seemed diverted while discussed separately in each class session.

TEST-TAKING STRATEGIES

The suggestions given by Babin et al., (1983: 11) can be classified into two: 1) psychological and academic preparation for the test, 2) strategies to adopt while taking the test.

- 1) Psychological and academic preparation for the test:
 - Remember to review during the week before the test.
 - Arrive on time . . . and be ready
 - Choose a good seat. Get comfortable and relax.
 - Approach the test confidently. Take it calmly.
 - Bring the complete kit of "tools" you'll need.

2) Strategies to adopt while taking the test:

- Listen carefully to all directions.
- Budget your time intelligently.
- Read all directions carefully – twice if necessary. Pay particular attention to the scoring plan.
- Start right in, if possible. Stay with it. Use every second effectively.
- Do the easy questions first; postpone the more difficult questions until later.
- Read each question carefully. Make sure you understand each one before you answer. Reread, if necessary.
- Think! Avoid hurried answers. If you must guess, guess intelligently.
- Note the time and your time budget, but do a little balancing of the time you devote to each question.
- Get all the help you can from the "cue" words.
- Rephrase difficult questions for yourself.
- Refresh yourself with a few, well-chosen rest pauses during the test.
- Now you're a "cool" test-taker, stay calm and confident throughout the test. Don't let anything upset you.
- Keep working until the proctor calls time.

You can adopt some of these strategies by training yourself to be prompt and calm. Our main objective is to give you some hints to help you see **what to focus on** as you read the **instructions** on test papers. Moreover, we would like to help you as to what strategy to adopt in **guessing** the correct answer among the given alternatives when you are not sure of the right answer. Aside from **eliminating the incorrect** answers first, you can arrive at the right answer by **utilizing either the context** or **the content** of the test item.

UNDERSTANDING INSTRUCTIONS

As indicated above, reading questions and understanding fully what type of answer to give is the first step for success in an examination. Therefore, you need to read the instructions on the examination paper very carefully in order to give the correct answer. If you do not fully understand the given instructions, you will not be able to give the answer that is expected of you. Most of the students complain after the test that they studied very hard, and they knew the answer but they did not understand the question.

One way of solving this problem is to be exposed to as many different instruction types as possible so that you will immediately know what to do when you see a similar type of instruction on the test. Let us try to look at some of these instruction types.

As it is indicated by Babin et al. (1983), you need to focus yourself on the *cue* words of the given instruction. In other words, you need to find the key word which is supposed to guide you in giving the right answer. For instance, in the following question, **compare** is the key word of the instruction. Thus, you need to find out what you need to compare, and in what context you need to analyze the found items.

Q: **Compare** the meaning of **relation** as given in *the two sentences below*.

- a) What is the relation between climate and plantation?
- b) Mr. Brown is a relation of John's.

You should also need to read the instruction thoroughly in order to be able to answer the question fully because some questions are formulated in several sections. If you do not read carefully, you may answer the first part and ignore the rest. For instance, in the following question, the test taker is asked to give two separate answers instead of only one.

He is asked

- 1) to find **someone in the class** who is **wearing** each of the given items of **clothing** and
- 2) to *add* to the given list *five more items*.

Q: Find **someone in the class** who is **wearing** each of these items of **clothing**, and then *add* to the list *five more items* that you see your friends wearing.

- | Name | Name | Name |
|----------------|-----------------|--------------------|
| a) shirt | d) sweater..... | g) a ring..... |
| b) skirt | e) jacket | h) glasses..... |
| c) dress | f) tie | i) a bracelet..... |

Babin et al. (1983: 5-14) guide the test takers as how to answer multiple-choice tests by giving examples of different test instructions as illustrated below:

Q: In this part of the test, you will hear twenty brief statements that do not appear in your test booklet. When you have heard a statement, select the answer nearest in meaning to what you have heard. Record your answer on the answer sheet.

You will hear: "Mary called on Susan."

You will read on your test paper:

- (A) Mary telephoned Susan.
- (B) Mary ate with Susan.
- (C) Mary visited Susan.
- (D) Mary shouted at Susan.

(Babin et al. 1983: 5)

After you read the instructions, you understand that you are going to listen to a statement which is similar in meaning to one of the alternatives given on the test paper. Therefore, if you glance at the alternatives first, it may help you what to expect to hear on the recording and be able to arrive at the right answer easily. For instance, in the above example, in all the answers, there is the mention of Mary and Susan. The verbs however, vary. Therefore, as you listen to the recording, pay attention to the verb to be able to choose the correct answer.

Babin et al. (1983: 23) suggest that you should choose Answer (C) because "Mary visited Susan" is the closest in meaning to the statement "Mary called on Susan." If you think why statement (C) is considered correct and not the others, you have to make the distinction between the verb "call" and the phrasal verbs comprising the verb "call" such as "call up = telephone", "call on = visit". This test item aims at evaluating the test taker's listening comprehension and his or her knowledge of phrasal verbs.

Some tests may be geared towards the evaluation of the test taker's overall comprehension of a conversation as in the following example:

Q: Fifteen short conversations between two speakers are presented in this part. At the end of each, a third voice asks a question about what was said in the conversation. You will hear the question only once. You will be given about fifteen seconds to answer each item.

You will hear:

Man: "I've never understood how to use the card catalogue, and I need to get this information today."

Woman: "Why don't you pick up one of the guide books at the front desk? It will help you I'm sure."

Third voice: "Where did this conversation most likely occur?"

You will read on the test paper:

- (A) At the bookstore.
- (B) At the museum.
- (C) At the theatre.
- (D) At the library.

(Babin et al. 1983: 23)

Since the man is talking about the card catalogue, and the **card catalogue** is found **in the library**, the correct answer is (D). If you divert your focus of attention as you read the instructions, you can easily be confused or misled. For instance, if your attention is focused on the word *information* or *guide books*, you cannot decide which alternative is correct because you can get **information** by means of **guide books** at the bookstore, museum, theater or the library.

Sometimes you do not find the answer to the question directly stated in the text. The following example given by Babin et al. (1983: 6) illustrates this very well.

Q: Listen to the lecture and then choose the best answer from the four answers given.

You will hear:

Anchorage, the commercial hub and home for nearly half of the state's 400,000 residents, is one of the youngest major cities in the United States.

You will then hear the related question:

Q: According to the lecture, approximately how many residents are there in Anchorage?

You will read on the test paper:

- (A) 200,000.
- (B) 300,000.
- (C) 100,000.
- (D) 400,000.

If you try to answer the question in a hurry, you may automatically choose Answer (D) because 400,000 is the number that outstands in the passage. However, this number indicates the number of residence for the state, not for the city of Anchorage. The number of residence of Anchorage is nearly half the number of the state's residence. So the correct answer here is (A) and not (D).

Here is another test item by Babin et al. (1983: 7) to illustrate a technique of evaluating the test-taker's knowledge of grammar.

Q: In this part you will find that in each sentence four words or phrases have been underlined. You should select the one underlined word or phrase that would not be acceptable in standard, written English. Find the appropriate space on the answer sheet, and record your answer.

If I had known that chemistry was going to be such a difficult
 (A) (B) (C)
 subject, I never would have took it up during my first semester.
 (D)

In the above instruction you are asked to study the use of the underlined words within the sentence and decide which one is used incorrectly. As you notice, you are asked to find the **incorrect** item rather than the **correct** one. Therefore, you have to be careful in choosing the correct answer because the correct alternative is the item that is used incorrectly in the statement. Such a controversy may mislead you, if you are not familiar with this type of instruction.

When you study the words or phrases within context, you see that the word marked (D) is incorrectly used because *took* is not the present perfect form of the main verb. It has to be *I never would have taken*

In the above instruction, the writers have used the word *record* in the meaning of *mark*. You can see the use of these words interchangeably in instructions of this kind.

GUESSING

You can guess the correct answer or confirm the correctness of your guess by adopting different strategies such as 1) eliminating the alternatives that you completely reject, 2) making use of the context, 3) analyzing the item in question.

1) Eliminating incorrect alternatives

Test-takers can adopt the strategy of eliminating the alternatives. Let's take a test item on grammar prepared by Babin et al. (1983: 7).

Q: Each one of the 15 items consists of an incomplete sentence which you are required to complete by selecting one of the four answers given. After you have chosen the one word or phrase that best completes the sentence, mark your answer in the appropriate space on the answer sheet.

I wonder _____.

- (A) how much costs that book
- (B) what of that book the price is
- (C) how much does that book cost
- (D) what that book costs

Among the given alternatives, (A) and (B) can easily be eliminated because the order of words is incorrect. (C) may, at first sight, look correct but when you study the statement as a whole taking the first part of the statement "I wonder..." into consideration, you realize that this is not a direct question but an indirect one. Therefore, you decide that (C) is incorrect because it is in the question form. Thus, this leaves you with (D), which you may have thought incorrect at first glance. When you give a second thought, you decide that (D) is the correct answer.

2) Utilizing the context

In reading comprehension tests, you may be asked to choose the right word that would give the right meaning of the underlined word in the text. Even if you do not know the word, the context usually helps you find out the right answer. The reason for formulating questions of this type is to see how well the test-taker has understood the text. Babin et al. (1983: 8-9) demonstrate this very well by formulating a question and later providing explanations as how to find the right answer.

Wilson Thompson was such an eloquent speaker that at a camp meeting in an Indiana maple grove, he once held the rapt attention of an audience of between seven and eight thousand for only a few minutes less than three hours.

– The word *rapt* (line 3) means most nearly

- (A) restless
- (B) unwilling
- (C) resentful
- (D) interested

First, read the sentence carefully. If you know the meaning of the word *rapt*, you will have no problem. If you do not know the meaning of *rapt*, you must look to the context of the sentence to help you find the meaning. You will note that the word *rapt* is being used to describe the attention of the audience. What do you know about the audience? The sentence tells you that the audience is large (seven or eight thousand) and that it has continued listening for a long time (almost three hours). This suggests that the audience must really want to hear what the speaker is saying. Also, Mr. Thompson must be a good speaker, since he is described as being "eloquent". Now, look at the four choices. Choice (A), "restless", suggests that the audience is not paying much attention, and since you know that the listeners have not moved for almost three hours, you can eliminate (A). Choice (B) "unwilling" and (C) "resentful" suggest that the audience does not want to listen and does not like what it hears. Neither of these pos-

sible meanings for *rapt* fits the context in which the word is used. Choice (D) "interested", on the other hand, fits the description of the audience's behaviour, and would expect an audience to give a speaker who is described as "eloquent". Choice (D) is the answer.

(Babin et al. 1983: 8-9)

3) Analyzing the item itself

Babin et al. (1983: 7-8) give a good example of utilizing the test item itself to arrive at the right answer since the context does not help the test-taker in arriving at the right answer. For that reason, they warn the test-taker in the instruction.

Q: In this part you are required to choose a word or phrase that could be substituted for an underlined word in a given sentence without changing the meaning of the sentence. Note that all four of the possible choices could replace the underlined word and still produce a meaningful sentence. The context, then, does not give you much help in choosing the correct answer. In order to answer the question correctly, you must know the meaning of the underlined word. There are 30 questions in Part A.

– The room is spacious enough to be a good place for the party.

- (A) attractive
- (B) convenient
- (C) colorful
- (D) large

Babin et al. give the following suggestion as how to answer the above question:

First, read the sentence carefully. Notice that if any of the four choices were used to replace the underlined word, the sentence would still make sense. For example, you could describe a place for a party as "attractive", "convenient", "colorful", or "large". The only way that you can decide which of the four words would keep the meaning of the original sentence is by knowing the underlined word, *spacious*. If you know that *spacious* means "large", your task is simple. If you do not know the meaning of *spacious*, you still might be able to find the answer if you look for the root of the word. The root of *spacious* is "space", a word that can refer to size, and since only choice (D) refers to size, you would choose (D) as your answer.

(Babin et al. 1983: 8)

TYPES OF TESTS

Test taking techniques may vary according to different types of tests. For that reason, in this section, we are going to discuss different strategies adopted for taking different test types. Test items may vary in **form** and in **function**.

DIFFERENT FORMS OF TESTS

Test items take names either according to the format or the task required to be applied. The most common ones are the following:

- a) true-false
- b) multiple-choice
- c) matching
- d) sequencing
- e) transformation
- f) insertion
- g) inversion
- h) short questions originating from the same clause
- i) sentence completion
- j) sentence combining
- k) rephrasing
- l) punctuating a sentence or a text
- m) formulating sentences based on charts or diagrams
- n) error correction
- o) essay writing

True-false

Pauk defines a true-false question as "a statement that attributes a property or quality to one or more persons or things" (1984: 228). In general, after the initials for true (T) and false (F) are written the statement is written and the test-taker is asked to make a judgement about the correctness or falseness of that statement. This judgement can be based on the test-takers' general knowledge of the world or of the language, or on written or oral information given during the test. As a result of the arrived decision, either the letter T or F is circled or underlined depending on the given instruction.

T F Dogs are animals.

What is important in answering these true-false questions is to be aware of some tricks. For instance, while the statement "Birds can fly," is considered correct, "All birds can fly," is considered false. A person who

accepts the first sentence correct tends to accept the second one as correct. A person who considers both of these statements correct probably forgets that there are some birds such as *ostrich* and *penguin* which cannot fly.

Another point that needs to be paid attention to is that the true-false question may contain a statement with two parts consisting of clauses, phrases, or words. If one part is true and the second part is not, the statement is considered false because it is only partially true. For this reason, you should read the true-false questions very carefully before you make your choice regarding the right answer.

T F Cotton is grown in Adana and Ankara.

In the above example seeing *cotton* and *Adana*, you might, in a hurry, decide that the statement is true. However this statement is false because *Ankara*, which is also included in the statement, is not a city where cotton is grown.

True-false questions sometimes contain words with negative connotation or affixed with negative prefixes in addition to a negative verb. In such instances, it might be difficult to decide whether the statement is true or false. Let us examine the following statements:

1. Graham Bell is known for the invention of the telephone system.
2. It is impossible to think that Graham Bell is known for the invention of the telephone system.
3. It is impossible to think that Graham Bell is not known for the invention of the telephone system.

When you are confronted with statements of this sort, try to eliminate the negative word and the negative prefix. When you delete both of the negations, the meaning of the sentence will make sense to you because two negatives give a positive meaning to the sentence. Afterwards, you can easily find out whether the statement is true or false. In the above examples, for instance, the first statement is true, the second is false, and the third is true again.

In true-false questions, if you try to guess the answer, you have a 50 percent chance of giving the correct answer. Moreover, if you make clever guesses, your chances would increase.

Multiple-choice

The multiple-choice questions are formulated as one single question and four or five alternatives to choose from (I) or an incomplete statement to be completed with one of the given alternatives (II). Another variety is that part of the statement is left blank to be filled in with one of the alternatives.

(I) Where did Faulkner spend most of his life?

- (A) Jefferson.
- (B) Oxford.
- (C) New York.
- (D) his birthplace.

(II) Faulkner spent most of his life in _____.

- (A) Jefferson.
- (B) Oxford.
- (C) New York.
- (D) his birthplace.

In the multiple-choice questions, you also consider the truth value of each alternative. When the question is formulated in an incomplete statement, or with a blank within the statement, you insert each alternative to the proper slot and ask yourself whether the statement is considered true or false. You can use the elimination technique. If you have eliminated three options and do not like the fourth option (which is the last of all the alternatives), you must start all over again and reconsider the truth value of the constructed statements.

In the following example, for instance, you formulate the first sentence: "Try to eat late at morning." At this point you realize that with *morning*, *afternoon* and *evening*, you use the preposition together with the article (**in the**) in reference to time. Once you become aware of this distinction, it will be easy for you to decide that the correct alternative should be (D).

1. You should not eat late at _____.

- (A) morning
- (B) afternoon
- (C) evening
- (D) night

In some cases the alternatives can be given in pairs.

Q: _____ Nile is _____ longest river in Africa.

- a) ___/the b) ___/____ c) The____ D) The/the

(Öztürk 1994: 27)

Sometimes the alternatives given in the multiple-choice question might not be known to you. Do not panic under those circumstances because these might be inserted as distracters. Pauk explains how you should handle a question of this sort:

Q. Which of the following does not have satellites (moons)?

- a. Venus
- b. Cassiopeia
- c. Mars
- d. Perseus

You might reason as follows: "We've been studying planets and their rotation around the sun. I've heard of Cassiopeia, but we haven't studied it. I never even heard of Perseus. I bet both are decoys – I'll cross them off. We did study Venus and Mars. They are planets, but I don't remember which one has satellites and which one doesn't. Well, at least I've boiled things down to a fifty-fifty chance. I'll mark this question and come back to it later."

Later, when you have returned to the question, you might remember that Mars has a ring of satellites or moons around it. That would eliminate Mars, leaving Venus. You still might not remember whether or not Venus has satellites, but since that's the only option left, you would choose it. (*Venus* is the correct answer.)

(Pauk 1984: 236)

Pauk gives other suggestions to help the test takers to be successful in answering multiple-choice questions. One of them has to do with use of negative words such as *not* and *except* in the formulation of the questions. In such instances, he suggests that you circle the words of this kind at first glance so that you can consider them as you start choosing the correct alternative.

Q. Which materials are not used in making saddles?

- a. Linen, canvas, serge
- b. Wood and leather
- c. Rubber and cork
- d. Iron and steel

(Pauk 1984: 136)

If you do not notice the negative word *not* in the question, you may tend to choose (b) as the correct alternative since wood and leather are the common materials used in making saddles. When you consider the negative word *not*, you realize that the alternative you choose would indicate the materials that you do not use to make saddles from. Then, you find the correct answer which is (d) because all the other materials are used in making saddles.

Pauk also warns the test takers to be suspicious of the options that include words such as *never*, *no*, *none*, *best*, *worst*, *always*, *all*, *every*, which indicate 100 percent absoluteness. He demonstrates his warning by the following example:

- Q. The author suggests that the desert
- climate is unpredictable.
 - heat is always unbearable.
 - is totally devoid of rain.
 - earthquakes pose a constant danger.

The words *always* in (b), *totally* in (c) and *constant* in (d) suggest the incorrectness of these alternatives because, the dessert is not always hot, the desert is not totally devoid of rain, and earthquakes do not pose a constant danger. Thus, (a) is chosen as the correct alternative.

In some of the multiple choice questions, one of the alternatives reads as "all of the above" (I). The best way to find the correct answer is to see whether two of the alternatives are correct. For instance, if you know that you can make curtains out of cotton and linen even if you do not know what lace is, you can easily make a generalization that lace is a material you can make curtains from because there cannot be two correct answers in one test item.

(I). Which materials are used in making curtains?

- Lace
- Cotton
- Linen
- All of the above

Matching

Matching questions are used in language tests for different purposes such as 1) to match questions and answers, 2) to match words with their definitions, 3) to match words same or opposite meanings, or simply 4) to match the beginning of a sentence with the end by making use of the context clues. This technique is also useful in testing the knowledge of dates of events or inventions and names involved in these events or inventions.

Pauk gives the following sequence of steps that will help you work through any matching questions systematically and efficiently:

1. Read the directions. Then run your eyes and mind down both columns, just to get a brief overview of the specific items you will be working with.
2. Read the top item in the left-hand column. Then look carefully and thoughtfully down the right-hand column until you find a

match for it. Don't stop at the first likely match; instead, continue through to the end of the right-hand column, to make sure there is not a more perfect match. (If the right-hand column has the longer entries, you can save reading time by looking for the matches in the left-hand column.)

3. When you are certain that you've found a match, fill in the proper letter or number. (If you match the wrong items you'll not only lose credit on that match, but you will run into more trouble later.) If you're not sure, skip the item and come back to it later.
4. This is the secret. Continue down the left column, filling all the matches *that you're sure of*. This will drastically and immediately reduce the number of items that are left when you have to make the more difficult matches. And the fewer the items, the better your chances of being correct.
5. As you use each item in the right column, circle its letter or number to show that it has been used.

(Pauk 1984: 240)

O'Connell makes use of this type to give learners a chance to use conditionals with imperatives comprised of phrasal verbs:

Match the if-clauses in Column A with the correct imperative from Column B, and revise your phrasal verbs!

- | <i>A</i> | <i>B</i> |
|--|------------------|
| 1. If you make a mistake, | a. tear it up. |
| 2. If your car runs out of petrol, | b. cut it down. |
| 3. If you're not ready for your driving test, | c. give it back. |
| 4. If you see an interesting recipe in the magazine, | d. cut it up. |
| 5. If you receive the application form, | e. rub it out. |
| 6. If you've finished with his pen, | f. put it off. |
| 7. If you can't remember the phone number, | g. tear it up. |
| 8. If the meat's too big to go in the pan, | h. fill it up. |
| 9. If you get another threatening letter, | i. fill it in. |
| 10. If the tree's in danger of falling, | j. look it up. |

(O'Connell 1987: 61)

Sequencing

In this type of question, several sentences related to a topic indicating events or procedures need to be put into the right order according to a sequence of time, manner or process as illustrated in the following example:

How to make tea-English style

Study: These instructions are in the wrong order.
What is the correct order?

1. Then pour the tea into the cup.
2. Then put some tea into the pot.
3. Pour a little milk into a cup.
4. First, put some water in the kettle.
5. Finally, add some sugar to the cup of tea as required.
6. Pour the boiling water over the tea.
7. Warm a tea pot with a little of the boiling water.
8. Boil the water.
9. Let the tea stand for a few minutes.

(Jupp and Milne 1980: 42)

You would also come across a more complex version of this type:

Q. Examine the given statements and eliminate the two irrelevant statements, and then put the rest of the sentences into a logical order:

1. The most important thing is to dig out enough roots, but this process is difficult with a large tree.
2. Last week I went out to the woods.
3. In most cases, you can transplant a tree successfully, at any time, if you follow the instructions for planting a tree.
4. This ball of earth should measure about a foot wide for every inch of the tree trunk's diameter.
5. When you dig out the tree, leave a ball of earth around its roots.
6. Dig deep enough to avoid cutting off too many taproots.
7. I hate digging holes in the ground.
8. It is wise to call in a professional tree expert to transplant a tree more than a few inches in trunk diameter.

While putting sentences into sequence, you need to make use of some clues that indicate the order of reference of certain items within the text. For instance, the first time an object is introduced, an indefinite article is used, and the second time the same object is mentioned, it is referred to with a definite marker such as *the*, *this* or *that*. Sometimes an object may be referred to by a personal pronoun in its second mention.

The important task is to find the topic sentence first. The topic sentence usually gives general information comprising everything that has been

mentioned within the text. The clue in this question is the phrase "follow the instructions for planting a tree" in Statement 3. Thus, this statement should take the first order. Since the text is about instructions, Sentence 2 and Statement 7 need to be eliminated because they are irrelevant.

Instructions is the key word in the topic sentence; therefore, you expect the instructions to be given one by one. *The most important thing* suggests that this is the first step. Thus, Statement 1 takes the second place. In this statement the most important action is digging and this process is expressed to be difficult. Thus you expect the process of digging to be mentioned next. Statement 5 tells us what to do while digging, so this sentence takes the third place. The phrase *this ball of earth* suggests that Statement 4 should follow Statement 5 since there is a reference to the phrase *a ball of earth*. Now there are two more statements left: Statement 8, and Statement 6. Since Statement 8 seems to be the concluding statement, it takes the final place. Statement 6 still gives information of the manner of digging the ground, so it should follow Statement 4.

Transformation questions

Questions of this type require the transformation of the given words in parentheses within statements into their correct forms (I) or transformation of the statements into the required format (II). This type is generally used to test the grammar knowledge of the students. In the transformation of verbs, it is generally required to put the verbs in the parentheses in correct tenses according to the context.

Q. Change the verbs in the following sentences into the correct forms.

- a) I (give) you a ring if I (need) any advice.
- b) He (only/can) come if the meeting (take) place on a Friday.

(O'Connell 1987: 61)

Q. Rewrite each sentence so that it means the same, using the phrasal verbs and prepositional verbs on the right.

- | | |
|---|----------|
| I asked if he wanted to remove his coat. | take off |
| Do please visit me if you're in the area. | call on |
| The fireman managed to extinguish the fire. | put out |

(Jones 1985: 77)

Sometimes, you are given a paragraph and asked to make changes within that paragraph by changing the person, the time, or the mode of the text. For instance, the text might be about Mr. Black and Mrs. Black (third person

plural). You might be asked to rewrite the story as if only Mr. Black is involved (third person singular). Under such circumstances, you have to change the form of the verbs as well as the related nouns and pronouns in the text. In some cases, you may be given a dialogue in direct speech and asked to change the quotations into reported speech (A). It might just be the reverse where you are told a joke and asked to write a dialogue out of that joke (B).

Q. A. Transform the dialogue below into reported speech.

Annie: You really must do something about your hair, Bert.
Bert : But I like having long hair – it suits me.

(Jones 1985: 39)

Q. Change the joke told in the reported speech to a dialogue in direct speech. Write the dialogue on the lines.

Two men (or women) were in an elevator. One man said that the other man looked familiar. The other man said he didn't think he recognized the man who was talking to him. The first man said he thought the second man had lost a lot of weight since he last saw him. The second man said that he hadn't. The first man continued that the second man seemed to have gotten a bit taller since they last met..... The first man exclaimed that it was good to see his friend, Mr. Johnson, again, despite the changes in appearance. The second man said that his name was not Mr. Johnson. The first man exclaimed with surprise that the second man had even changed his name.

(Briggs 1994 a: 86)

Insertion

You are given a set of statements and asked to insert the modifiers given in the parentheses as in the following example:

Q. Put the adverb of frequency into the sentence below.

1. I have eaten Indonesian food. (never)
2. I go to the cinema. (often)
3. He is bad tempered early in the morning. (always)

(Dainty 1990: 97)

Inversion

You are asked to invert the order of the sentence as you transform the form. During the transformation you may be asked to insert other words or phrases. Let us look at the following example:

Compare the following pair of sentences.

- a) If it doesn't rain, I will go out.
- b) Only if it rains, will I stay home.
- a) We did not go out since it was raining.
- b) Due to the rain, we did not go out.

In the first pair, we see the inversion of the auxiliary (will) and the subject (I) in the main clause. In the second pair, there is an inversion of clauses. In fact, during the inversion one of the clauses is reduced into a phrase.

Reduction

You are given a long sentence and asked to reduce the clause into a phrase for the sake of style and pertinence as illustrated below.

Q: Read each sentence. If possible, reduce the adverbial clause and rewrite the sentence with a participial phrase. If this is not possible, write NP.

1. Since I am a morning person, I like to be up by 5:00 or 6:00 A.M.

2. While I always go to bed early, my roommate likes to go to bed late.

3. When I was exercising very early one morning, I heard a strange noise coming from the living room.

(Briggs 1994 a: 120)

Grouping

You are given a list of words and asked to group them according to the given instruction. Dainty (1990) provides us an exercise of this kind. All the words are given in the first table, and you are asked to group them in the second table. The first one is done for you.

BACON	COFFEE	JUDGE	PARAGRAPH	SENTENCE
BALL	COURT	JURY	PHRASE	TOAST
BRIDE	EGGS	LETTER	RACKET	TRIAL
BUTTER	GROOM	LAWYER	RECEPTION	UMPIRE
CLAUSE	JAM	NET	RING	WORD

group one	group two	group three	group four	group five
bacon coffee eggs jam toast				

(Dainty 1990: 165)

Questions originating from the same clause

The head of the question stays the same but the end is different for each item. Thus, every item requires a different answer. Dainty (1990: 109) has a good example of this kind:

You would find *a flower bed* in a garden or park.

Where would you find...

1. A keyhole? _____
2. A windscreen? _____
3. A runway? _____
4. A sandcastle? _____
5. The Queen of Hearts? _____

(Dainty 1990: 109)

Sentence completion

You are generally given a statement with one or more blanks to be filled with words or phrases in order to arrive at a correct sentence. What is important is to be sure of what is required of you to write down to complete the sentence. For this reason, you need to look for clues within the sentence. Either the context or the structure of the statement will help you what to provide.

Let us examine the following question:

Q: Complete the sentence below with an appropriate word.

She _____ three languages besides English.

You can easily write the word *knows* in the blank and it would be considered correct. In some cases, however, you might be given alternatives to choose from as in multiple choice questions. Then you have to be careful in making your choice. For instance, you might be asked to complete the above statement by choosing one of the following alternatives which does not include the word you have in mind.

- a) talks b) tells c) speaks d) says

All of the above indicate an action of utterance serving different functions. You have to know that you use the word *talk* when you refer to the person you direct your utterance to; you use *tell* usually when you give an account of something; you use *say* when you are quoting or reporting what has been uttered. The word *speak* is a general term used to indicate an interaction between people and is used in the sense of *knowing a language*. Thus, the word *language* in the statement is the clue given for you to decide which word to choose among the alternatives.

Let us look at the next example:

Q: The telephone is invented by _____.

Two blanks with a space in between indicates that the answer required is composed of two words. Often these two words could be the first and last name of a person (Graham Bell) as in this example. When blanks are long, you might assume that long answers are required. However, this is not always the case. Therefore, you have to take this into consideration while filling in the blanks.

Sentence combining

You may be given a pair of sentences and asked to combine the two to form a compound or a complex sentence. At advanced stages, the number of the sentences to be embedded in the same sentence could be more than two. Briggs (1994) has the following example:

Q: Combine each pair of sentences into one sentence. Use a restrictive or a nonrestrictive clause in the sentence.

1. Walt Disney made many fine movies. They delight the audiences.

2. Sgt. Pepper's Lonely Hearts Club Band is a best-selling album by the Beatles. It includes many of their most popular songs.

(Briggs 1994 c: 52)

Rephrasing / paraphrasing

In this type of an exam, you are given a sentence and asked to write a similar sentence which will be as close as possible to the meaning of the original sentence. Let us examine the following example:

Q: For each of the sentences below, write a new sentence as similar as possible in meaning to the original sentence, but using the word given. This word must *not* be altered in any way.

1. I never pass that house without thinking of Uncle James.
(*Whenever*)
2. I must object to this method of questioning. (*protest*)
3. His sudden resignation has aroused speculation. (*rise*) (Note that it is not 'raised' or 'risen'.)

(Fowler 1985: 95)

As you try to rephrase sentences make sure that you do not add any unnecessary piece of information or do not leave out or change any part of the original meaning.

Now form groups and decide which sentences do not follow the instructions given above in bold letters. Then rewrite them.

1. The plane was overbooked so we complained to the agency.
As the plane was overbooked we complained to the agency.
2. She spent all day on the beach and got badly sunburnt.
Having gotten badly sunburnt, she regretted spending all day on the beach.
3. We felt too exhausted to do anything.
We didn't feel like doing anything
4. As there was a lot to do we stayed for another week.
There was such a lot to do that we stayed for another week.
5. We did not go out since it was raining.
Due to the rain, we did not go out.

Punctuating a sentence or a text

You may be given single sentences or a paragraph without any punctuation marks. Double space is usually provided between the words for you to insert a punctuation mark if necessary. This type of a test item is illustrated in the following example.

Q: Punctuate each sentence. Use commas, dashes, or parentheses.

1. My French teacher a perfectly delightful fellow was born in Normandy.
2. The national anthem "The Star-Spangled Banner" is always played in the United States.

(Briggs 1994 a: 74)

Formulating sentences based on charts and diagrams

You are given some information in the form of a diagram, table, or chart and asked to report these pieces of information in the form of complete sentences as illustrated below:

Q: Use the information in the chart to write sentences that tell about the best and worst times for performing activities, as determined by research in chronobiology.

<i>Task</i>	<i>Best Time</i>	<i>Worst time</i>
go to the dentist	midafternoon, when sensitivity to pain is lowest	twilight, when sensitivity to pain is highest
schedule a meeting	morning, when the mind is most alert	right after lunch, when the body experiences a slump
jog/do aerobics	early evening, when endurance is highest and performance is best	predawn hours, when body temperature is lowest

(Briggs 1994 a: 158)

Transforming oral or written information into charts or diagrams

You are generally given a chart, diagram, or table with the basic guidelines and asked to fill in spaces provided with the necessary information that you obtain as you read a text or listen to a dialogue. You need to examine the format of the chart very well beforehand in order to be able to insert the relevant information on the space provided on the given paper.

BOOKING FORM

Holiday no.		Departure date		Number of nights	
Passangers' names					
Mr/Mrs/Miss	Initials	Surname	Nationality	Date of birth if under 18	Holiday Insurance
Destination / tour					
Hotels					
Rooms	Standard	Superior	Studio Apt	One bedroom apartment	Two bedroom apartment
Meal Plan	Room only	Room & breakfast	Half Board	Full Board	
Other requirement					
Car hire _____					
Optional tours _____					
Connecting flights _____					

Fowler, Pidcock, and Rycroft (1987: 5) provide a good example for this kind. By looking at the content of the chart, you can easily guess what you would hear on the telephone conversation between the clerk and the customer. After you formulate your expectations, you would be ready to hear and understand the conversation and make use of the information conveyed between the speakers.

Error correction

You try to judge if the given sentences are correctly formulated or not. When you think there is an error, you explain why it is incorrect. After you mark that sentence wrong, you provide the correct version. Below we see an example provided by Briggs (1994 b).

Q: Read each sentence. If there is a mistake, write X on the line. Then explain the mistake and the correction to a partner. If there is no mistake, write NM on the line.

- 1. The cashier at the supermarket was tall, thin.
- 2. I got a present nice for my birthday.
- 3. I don't know why, but someone stole the dirty dishes.

(Briggs 1994 b : 92).

Formulating sentences from cue words or phrases

You are given some key words and asked to formulate a sentence from each group by providing the necessary elements.

Q: Use the cues to write sentences with clauses.

e.g. filmstar / played / famous / his / gave / film / me /
photograph / role / *Goldfinger*.

The famous film star who played the main role in the film *Goldfinger*, gave me his photograph.

Cloze-test

In tests of this kind, you are given a text with lots of blanks to fill in. The first and the last sentences are left without any deletion. Starting with the second sentence, every sixth, seventh or eighth word is deleted. You are asked to fill in these blanks by making sense out of the whole text. In other words, the correct word that you would choose for the blank depends on the context of the whole paragraph or even the whole text. Thus, aside making use of the topic introduced, you need to make use of the structural context. This test is not a test of vocabulary. It is a test to evaluate your overall proficiency in the language.

For instance, let us invert the above paragraph into a cloze-test and see what it looks like. Try to fill in the blanks and then check your answers with the original:

- Q. Study the following paragraph and decide what word is needed to fill in each blank.

In tests of this kind, you are given a text with lots of blanks to fill in. The first and the last sentences _____ left without any deletion. Starting with _____ second sentence, every sixth, seventh or _____ word is deleted. You are asked _____ fill in these blanks by making _____ out of the whole text. In _____ words, the correct word that you _____ choose for the blank depends on _____ context of the whole paragraph or _____ the whole text. Thus, aside making _____ of the topic introduced, you need _____ make use of the structural context. _____ test is not a test of vocabulary. It is a test to evaluate your overall proficiency in the language.

Cloze-tests have some variations. One variation is that the blanks are numbered, and at the end of the text, for each numbered blank, three or four alternatives are given to choose from as indicated below.

- Q: Read the selection, choosing the most suitable of the four alternatives given, both in meaning and grammar, to fill each of the blanks. There is always one best answer. Read the passage carefully to get the principal idea, then go back and fill in the blanks.

Columbus had been at sea for over a month, and his sailors were beginning to feel restless. It seemed that no sea could be so vast, with nothing in sight anywhere. The sailors began to think about ____1____. They were afraid they would never ____2____ home again.

- 1 a it
b return
c returning
d homing

- 2 a reach
b went
c finding
d be

In 1 the correct answer is c, *returning*, and in 2 the correct answer is a, *reach*.

(McCallum 1979: 32)

The other variation is geared towards guiding you as to what type of a word you need to choose to fill in that blank.

Q: Study this paragraph from an essay on the novel *Heart of Darkness* and decide what sort of word is needed to complete the gaps in each case. Then compare your ideas with notes below before choosing the correct words to complete the paragraph.

Joseph Conrad, _____ (1) author of *Heart of Darkness*, used _____ (2) own experience as the captain of a steamer _____ (3) the river Congo in _____ (4) the book. From the beginning of the story, the narrator, Marlow, _____ (5) stands for Conrad himself, _____ (6) us see that the Romans looked at the Britons in the same way _____ (7) modern Europeans regard the natives in Africa. _____ (8) is not so _____ (9) difference between civilisation and savagery _____ (10) people imagine.

Notes:

- 1) definite article
- 2) possessive adjective
- 3) preposition
- 4) gerund, following a preposition .
- 5) relative pronoun
- 6) verb-which tense? Note the infinitive form, *see*, which depends on it and has no *to* before it.
- 7) a structural word, depending on the same
- 8) the beginning of a sentence – is it *IT*, an impersonal subject, or *There*, indicating the existence, or in negative form, lack of existence of something?
- 9) not an adjective like great (not such a great difference), but a form relating to number
- 10) making a comparison

(Fowler 1985: 102)

Essay writing

When you are asked to write an essay on a test, read the given essay topic very carefully. Try to think of different ways of approaching the topic. Take one perspective and work on that only. Make your reader aware of the focus of your essay, or else you will not be able to give any particular message, and you would get lost among various subtitles. If you find the topic too broad, narrow it down by taking only one aspect of the topic you are

familiar with. May suggests that in writing an essay your approach should allow you to :

- 1 follow the instructions and write the number of words specified.
- 2 make the best use of your knowledge of the topic.
- 3 use the widest possible range of structures and vocabulary.
- 4 write imaginatively and entertainingly.
- 5 write in a style (formal, humorous, etc.) that is appropriate.

(May 1991: 41)

Pauk gives some suggestions to help you plan efficiently for your essay question:

1. Make notes on the back of the exam sheet.
2. Read the examination directions carefully.
3. Read all the questions.
4. Jot cues alongside each question.
5. Plan your time.
6. Start with the easiest question.

(Pauk 1984: 256)

As you make your notes on the back of your paper, try to put them in the form of cue words to help you remember what to write during the writing process. Do not spend more than a minute or two for this purpose.

As you read the directions, be sure how much time you are given to write the essay and in which manner you are asked to support your ideas. Usually the verb in the instruction indicates what you need to do.

Be sure to read all the questions and see whether you are asked to answer all of them or to make a choice among the given questions. Sometimes teachers give three essay questions and ask their students to answer only two of these three.

May suggests that before starting to write an essay, you should spend up to ten minutes writing a plan. He claims that sparing ten minutes for planning the essay has the following advantages:

- The essay will be better organized into, and within, paragraphs.
- Timing will be more systematic: allocate eight minutes per paragraph, for instance.
- If for any reason you do not have time to finish an essay, at least the Examiners will know what your intentions were.

(May 1991: 21)

The best thing is to analyze the topic very carefully and see which perspective you would like to take in giving information about the given topic. This is because sometimes an essay allows you a number of different approaches. May for instance takes the title *A Disastrous Day* and gives different perspectives of the topic to focus on. Thus you can write on:

- 1 one terrible disaster,
- 2 a sequence of disasters, or
- 3 one or more disasters and the consequences.

(May 1991: 41)

The person giving the account of the story may vary. For instance, you could relate the story as a person who has been involved in it or who has observed it or who has heard about it. As for the location of the event, you can choose your own country or any other parts of the world.

In essay titles, certain expressions also act as keywords in suggesting what is exactly required of you. May (1991) gives an example of an instruction for writing an essay where the key words are in bold print and further provides some titles for you to decide on the keywords.

Q: Write the *dialogue* between two motorists who **have just** been involved in a **minor** accident.

In pairs, decide which of the following points you would include in the essay:

- The passenger's comments
- Whose fault it was
- What the witnesses said
- Exchanging insurance details
- The garages' estimates for repair
- The conversation in the ambulance

(May 1991: 101)

May (1991: 91) believes that timing is very important in answering the questions; therefore, try to time yourself so that you will have enough time to answer all the questions. Do not spend too much time on what you do not know.

After allowing yourself ten minutes for planning, May suggests that you try to follow these stages:

1. Note down ideas as they occur to you – probably in no particular order.
2. Read the essay title again and group the ideas with headings, discarding any irrelevant points.

3. If you have more ideas while you are writing the essay, add them to the plan after checking their relevance to the title.
4. When you finish the essay, draw a single diagonal line through the plan.

(May 1991: 21)

As you write your essay be sure that you

- 1 follow the instructions and write the number of words specified.
- 2 make the best use of your knowledge of the topic.
- 3 use the widest possible range of structures and vocabulary.
- 4 write imaginatively and entertainingly.
- 5 write in a style (formal, humorous, etc.) that is appropriate.

(May 1991: 21)

Now, trying to follow the above instructions, discuss the different approaches for the following topics:

- a) Describe an event that changed your life.
- b) Write a story entitled *An Awful Journey*.

DIFFERENT FUNCTIONS OF TESTS

The instructions and the form of test items vary according to the aim of the tester, in other words, according to what is aimed to be tested. The function of a test item would be to find out if the learner

- a) knows grammar,
- b) recognizes a particular item,
- c) identifies the main idea in the sentence or in the paragraph,
- d) identifies the supporting idea in the statement or in the paragraph,
- e) draws inferences,
- f) attends to details,
- g) attends to reference signals,
- h) feels the sense of the sentence,
- i) responds to a verbal question or comment,
- j) associates and organizes ideas, facts, and events in a logical manner,
- k) finds a proper title for a given paragraph or text,
- l) translates from the target language to the native one or vice-versa,
- m) predicts.

Knowledge of grammar

Items of this kind are to evaluate learners' grammatical knowledge of the target language as in the following example. They may be in forms such as multiple choice, transformation, or completion.

Q: Find the one choice which best completes the sentence.

Michael Faraday made a great discovery _____ that electricity can be made to flow in a coil of wire.

- A) when he found
- B) to find
- C) was found
- D) he found

(Babin et al. 1983: 97)

The aim of the above test item is to see whether the person knows that a subordinate conjunction of time is followed by a subject and a finite verb (when he found) to make a complete sentence. Answer (B) is incorrect because "to find" is an infinitive of purpose; it does not contain a conjunction or a subject. Answer (C) is incorrect because there is no subject for the given verb. Answer (D) is incorrect because it has no conjunction.

Recognition

This type of a test item tests your ability to recognize the correct form for the expected answer. This may be the recognition of a missing word or a punctuation mark as in test items for error correction and inserting the correct punctuation as illustrated previously. Recognizing the meaning of a word (1), an idea (2), or a detail (3) within the given text are other examples of recognition test items.

1. Word meaning / word recognition

This type of a test item aims at evaluating the learners' knowledge of the vocabulary in the target language. The vocabulary item in the text is underlined and four alternatives are given to replace this underlined word or phrase as in the following example:

Q: Choose the one word or phrase which could be substituted for the underlined word or phrase.

He was too obstinate to admit he had been wrong.

- (A) stubborn
- (B) frightened
- (C) selfish
- (D) cautious

(Babin et al. 1983: 101)

Here in the above example answer (A) is correct because stubborn and obstinate both mean "unwilling to change". Thus the other alternatives are incorrect.

Some vocabulary tests provide you the definition or the description and require you to find the right word to correspond to that definition or description. This is done in conversation when speakers cannot come up with the right word and try to define or describe it. That is why May (1991: 133) names this type of exercise as *getting help*. Following is an example to demonstrate this type of a test:

Q: Try to identify the words the speaker is looking for in the following sentences.

1. *It's the background 'music' you hear in supermarkets.*
2. *How can you say shopping as a countable noun?*
3. *It's when a shop charges you too much.*

Now form small groups in class. Within each group make a list of some words. Choose one word at a time and describe it to the other group so that the members of the other groups and let them guess what word you are describing or defining.

2. Recognition of the main idea

Test items of this kind aim at finding out whether the reader is able to find the main idea of the given sentence or paragraph.

Q: [Read the passage and choose the best alternative to complete the statement.]

Before the founding of Rome, before the golden age of Athens, and about the same time as the pyramids were built, a seed germinated in what is now California, and the tree that grew from that seed is still alive – the world's oldest living thing, a 4,600 year-old bristlecone pine.

You can see the world's oldest living thing if you go to

- (A) Rome.
- (B) Athens.

- (C) Egypt.
- (D) California.

(Babin et al. 1983: 104)

The seed from which the oldest living thing grew "germinated in what is now California". Therefore, the correct answer is (D).

3. Recognition of the supporting idea

Following is a question item regarding the same passage used above to illustrate how one's ability to indicate the supporting idea of the statement is tested.

Q: According to this passage, about 4,600 years ago

- (A) the world's oldest tree was already grown.
- (B) Rome had been founded.
- (C) Athens was experiencing its "golden age".
- (D) the pyramids were being built.

(Babin et al. 1983: 104)

Here answer (A) is incorrect because, it says in the passage that the seed only germinated meaning *it began to grow*. Answers (B) and (C) are not correct either because Rome had not been founded yet, and it was not Athens' Golden Age yet. The correct answer is (D) because 4,600 years ago when the bristlecone pine seed germinated, the pyramids were being built.

Ability to draw inferences

Using the same text above, the following test item aims at finding how good a reader is in drawing inferences.

Q: The founding of Rome, the golden age of Athens and the building of the pyramids are mentioned to show

- (A) that man was alive when the tree began to grow.
- (B) that man has created lasting monuments.
- (C) how very old the tree is.
- (D) that the tree is one of man's monuments.

(Babin et al. 1983: 104)

Here the author is trying to emphasize the fact that the tree is very old. Although Answer (A) and (B) are true or might be true, they are not the emphasis of the passage; therefore, they are incorrect. Answer (C) is correct

because references to Rome, Athens, and the pyramids show how old the tree is in terms of human history. Answer (D) is incorrect because there is no statement in the text making such an assertion.

Attention to details

In this type of test item, the reader is asked to see what items are included or excluded in the text as in the following example:

Q: Read the text and answer the following questions.

According to the census of 1800, the United States of America contained 5,308,483 persons. In the same year the British Islands contained upwards of fifteen million; the French Republic, more than twenty-seven million. Nearly one-fifth of the American people were black slaves; the true political population consisted of four and half million free whites, or less than one million able-bodied males, on whose shoulders fell burden of a continent. Even after two centuries of struggle the land was still untamed; forest covered every portion, except here and there a strip of cultivated soil; the minerals lay undisturbed in their rocky beds, and more than two-thirds of the people clung to the seaboard within fifty miles of tidewater, where alone the wants of civilized life could be supplied.

Free white men in America numbered

- (A) about four-fifths of the population.
- (B) about four and one-half million.
- (C) 5,308,483.
- (D) less than one million.

(Babin et al. 1983: 106)

As it is stated in lines 5-7, free white men in America numbered less than one million. Thus, answer (D) is correct. Answer (B) is incorrect because this is the number for all the white people. Answer (C) is incorrect because this is the number indicating the whole population. Answer (A) is incorrect because there is no reference for this piece of information.

Attending to reference signals

It is difficult to understand a text if the reference signals are not well attended. If you can see what each of the pronominals refer to within the text, you can make a connection with the topic and object and people

related to that topic. Whenever you come across a referential word, try to find out what it refers to before proceeding any further in your reading. Let us look at the following example and try to identify the words, phrases or sentences that have been referred to. You should keep in mind that the signals may refer backward (1) or forward (2).

- (1) I read **his first play** but I did not like it.
- (2) Perhaps I should tell you this. **I went to visit him at the hospital.**

Q: Read the passage below and answer the questions that follow.

When **confronted** with the history of school math, education can **adopt** two approaches. The traditional one accepts school math and attempts —often with a great struggle— to teach it; computers are used by some teachers for this purpose. Consequently, force-feeding unwelcome and unpopular material left over from the precomputer age has become—alas the most common use of the computer in education. On the other hand, the computer has a totally different use in Turtle geometry. There, the fans of Turtle geometry **maintain**, the computer is used as a so-called mathematically expressive medium, one that frees teachers to design meaningful and coherent and easily learnable math topics for children. Now, instead of the educational problem being put as "how to teach the existing school math," it is posed as "reconstructing knowledge in such a way that no large effort is needed to teach it."

1. What does the word "one" in line 2 refer to?
 - a) History of math
 - b) School
 - c) Math education
 - d) Approach
2. What does the word "it" in line 3 refer to?
 - a) The computer
 - b) Math education
 - c) School
 - d) School math
3. What do the words "this purpose" in line 3 refer to?
 - a) Teaching in school
 - b) Teaching educators
 - c) Teaching school math
 - d) Math education

(Öztürk 1994: 553)

Sense of the sentence

This type of question aims at finding out how good the reader is in making sense of what he reads as illustrated in the following example:

Q: Read the text and choose the best answer. Although more than one of the choices may be correct in real life, what is important is to choose the one that best restates the original sentence.

Though considered good by local standards, my salary was not enough to feed and clothe my family.

- (A) My salary was worse than that of my neighbors, and was not enough to feed and clothe my family.
- (B) Because my salary was not enough to feed and clothe my family, it was not considered good by local standards.
- (C) I earned as much money as most people in my locality; however, I did not earn enough to provide for my family.
- (D) My salary was sufficient to provide for my family, although it was considered poor by local standards.

(Babin et al. 1983: 108)

Answer (A) is incorrect because if his salary is worse than his neighbors', it would be considered poor by local standards. Answer (B) is incorrect as well because his salary **was** considered good by local standards. The statement in answer (D) is just the opposite of the original statement. Thus, answer (C) is correct because this gives the same sense expressed in the original sentence.

Competence in responding to a verbal question or comment

Some question items are designed to test how good you are in responding to a question or a comment uttered to you. In such instances, you are given, in a written form, a few alternatives to choose from as a response to a question you are asked to listen to on the tape. For instance, you are given a test paper with the following alternatives for each test item.

1.
 - a. It's a woman.
 - b. It's Mrs. Johnson.
 - c. It's Mr. Johnson.
2.
 - a. In the morning.
 - b. By plane.
 - c. For a meeting.
3.
 - a. Is she planning to study in the States?
 - b. Jane lives in the States.
 - c. Jane studied at an American School.

Then as you listen to the question or statement, you try to choose the best alternative given for Question Item 1 (1. What's the woman's name?). Since the name of the woman is asked, the best alternative is (b). Let's look at the second question (2. How are you going to Chicago?). The best answer to this question is (b) because it tells how the speaker is going to Chicago.

The third item is a statement instead of a question. You are asked to find the best way of responding to the statement (Mary read a book describing life in an American school). When you hear someone reading a book about life in an American school, the first thing you would do is to wonder if that person has any plans to study in the States. Thus, (a) would be the correct statement. The other alternatives are irrelevant.

Organizing

Test items of this type require the test taker to find an association between the given items and organize them accordingly. As illustrated in the *test types* section, an item of this kind may include:

1. a list of words to be put into order to formulate a single sentence,
2. a list of words to be grouped according to the associations found among these words,
3. two lists of words or phrases to match to see the association between each pair,
4. two lists of phrases or clauses to match and formulate sentences accordingly,
5. a list of sentences to be put into order so that they would follow a logical sequence,
6. a paragraph with a deleted sentence and alternative statement to fill in the space.

Examples to demonstrate all the above have already been provided in this unit except for the last one. An example to demonstrate this variation is given below. Try to find the right statement that needs to be inserted in the space. First, pick up the key words in the topic sentence. Then, in the given alternatives look at the transition words that might help you in taking decisions.

Q: One sentence is missing in each of the paragraphs below. For each blank, choose the sentence which best completes the paragraph.

The theory that oil originated in the sea is supported by several facts. First, almost all the oil-fields of the world are near the oceans of today. Further, the rocks in which oil is

found are sedimentary rocks, which were formed originally in the sea. Lastly, shells and other proofs of sea life are usually found near an oil well.

- a) In some places, oil is in fact found in the sea, where it comes up to the surface.
- b) On the other hand, the large oceans contain significant unexplored and unexploited oil reserves.
- c) Undersea oil provides a great potential for us to increase our oil production considerably in the future.
- d) However, oil reserves in the sea are difficult to exploit for practical reasons.

(Öztürk 1994: 581)

Providing a title

A test having a function of this kind will require you to find a proper title to the given text. You might be asked to produce the whole title yourself, or you may be given alternatives in the form of a multiple-choice question and be asked to choose the best alternative. In both cases, you need to find out a title that will encompass all the main points introduced in the text. A title indicating partial information from the text is considered incorrect. Let us look at the following example and try to discuss which alternative would be the best title for this text.

Q: Read the following passage and choose the most appropriate title.

People have often lamented what a waste it is that we spend a third of our lives asleep. Think what we must be missing. What we are actually missing by being able to sleep is the following: visual, auditory, and tactile disorders; **vivid** hallucination; inability to concentrate; **withdrawal**; disorientation of self, time, and place; lapses of attention; increased heart rate and stress hormones in the blood; and **onset** of psychosis. This alarming list, of course, refers to extreme instances-people who have stayed up, on a bet or a television marathon, for upwards to 200 hours. But if you have ever been up all night, you may fall asleep the next day and be slower in taking notes or answering questions on an exam. In short, the human body needs sleep to function, much as he needs food and water.

- a) Body Needs
- b) Signs of Sleeplessness

- c) The Importance of Sleep
- d) Wasting Our Lives in Sleep

(Öztürk 1994: 517)

Alternative (a) is incorrect because the focus is on sleeping only, not on everything essential to the body. From the concluding sentence we can understand that the correct answer is (c) not (b) or (d).

Translating

Testing your ability to translate a text from a target language or from your own native language can be done at two levels: 1) competence level and 2) production level. At production level it is done in the essay form. You are given a text and asked simply to translate it in your own words. Since at competence level you are asked to recognize rather than to produce, the test is given in the form of multiple-choice. Therefore, you are asked to choose the best corresponding statement among the alternatives given. As you choose the best statement, make sure that the chosen statement has been formulated in such a manner that it encompasses the same reasoning and structural pattern used in the statement to be translated. Let us look at the following example and try to choose the best alternative.

Q: Türkçe cümlelerin İngilizce dengini bulunuz.

Bir şirket satışlarını artırmak için yeni bir bölüm açtığı gibi aynı amaçla değişik bölgelerde yeni mağazalar da açabilir.

- A. A firm wanting to increase its sales either opens a new department or new stores in different locations.
- B. Just as a new firm opens a new department to increase its sales, it may be forced with the same objective in mind to open new stores in different locations.
- C. Just as a firm may add a new department in an effort to increase its sales, it may also open new stores in different locations with the same objective in mind
- D. Since a firm wants to increase its sales by opening a new department, it may want to open new stores in different locations.
- E. A firm which wants to increase its sale may open a new department as well as new stores in different locations with the same objective.

(Sezer 1992: 340)

Predicting

This type of a test item requires that you predict or guess what will happen or what will come next. You base your predictions on the clues provided for you at the beginning of the text. Let us look at the following example and try to make our predictions.

Q: Read each of the paragraphs below carefully and answer the questions that follow.

In western society, women are supposed to be passive and men active, powerful, and achieving. In the Tchambuli, it is the women who have the real position of power in society.

The next paragraph will talk about _____.

- a) women's dependence upon men for food
- b) men's dependence upon women for food
- c) men's power in society
- d) the achievements of Tchambuli men

In the Tchambuli, men never fish unless a sudden school of fish appears in the lake, when they may leap into canoes in a frolicsome spirit, and spear a few fish. Or in high water when the shore-road becomes a water-way, they may do a little torch-light fishing for sport. But the real business of fishing is controlled entirely by the women; for traded fish they obtain sago, taro and areca-nut. And the most important manufacture, the mosquito-bags, two of which will purchase an ordinary canoe, are made entirely by women. Moreover, the women control the money. It is true that women permit the men to do the shopping, both for food at the market and in trading the mosquito-bags.

The paragraph will go on telling us about _____.

- a) the delight women have in shopping for food and trading mosquito bags.
- b) how people purchase mosquito bags.
- c) how men shop and trade under the women's supervision and with their approval
- d) the real position of women in society

(Öztürk 1994: 523)

While taking notes in class you can easily predict what will be mentioned next because as May (1991: 32) points out, speakers often signal the im-

portant points by emphasising them, repeating them, including them in summary. As they do so, they use expressions like:

As I said... I'd like to stress... To sum up... In other words... The essential point is that... What you must remember is... To run over the main points again...

May (1991: 62) also suggests that in listening exercises or tests, as you listen to the short instruction before the pause, the background noise might help you in predicting what the speech is going to be about. For instance, as May points out, if, in the instruction, it says that you will hear a railway station announcement, you can predict that the listening passage will be a public monologue and it may:

1. contain words and figures such as: place names, train times, platform numbers
2. express functions such as:
giving information – The next train to arrive will be the
requesting politely – Would passengers please cross the line to platform 8.
apologising – We regret to announce the cancellation of the 0825 to
3. use of structures such as:
The train **arriving at** platform 14 is the
The 1635 Intercity will **depart from** platform 6.
There **has been** a derailment on the main line between
4. be in a certain style: rather formal expressions with very few contractions-
we regret to...
depart
restaurant facilities
5. have special features: repetition, poor sound quality – including echoes.

In groups, look at the following introductions and make lists like the one above.

1. You will hear the weather forecast.
2. You will hear a dialogue between a policeman and a young motorcyclist.
3. You will hear a young couple getting to know each other at a party.
4. You will hear a group of football fans arguing.

(May 1991: 62)

CONCLUSION

Pauk (1984) gives a list of some key words utilized in the instructions given in test items, especially in essay questions. The key words are listed in

KEY WORDS	EXPLANATION
Apply a principle	Show how a principle works, through an example.
Comment	Discuss briefly.
Compare	Emphasize similarities, but also present differences.
Contrast	Give differences only.
Criticize	Give your judgment of good points and limitations, with evidence.
Define	Give meanings, but no details.
Demonstrate	Show or prove an opinion, or judgement.
Describe	State the particulars in detail.
Diagram	Show a drawing with labels.
Differentiate	Show how two things are different.
Discuss	Give reasons pro and con, with details.
Distinguish	Show main differences between two things.
Enumerate	List the points.
Evaluate	Discuss advantages and disadvantages, with your opinion.
Explain	Give reasons for happenings or situation.
Give cause and effect	Describe the steps that lead to an event or situation.
Give an example	Give a concrete example from your book or experience.
Identify	List and describe.
Illustrate	Give an example.
Interpret	State the meaning in simpler terms, using your judgement.
Justify	Prove or give reasons.
List	List without details.
Outline	Make a short summary with headings and subheadings.
Prove	Give evidence and reasons.
Purpose	How something fulfills an overall design.
Relate	Show how things interconnect.
Relationship	Connection between events, the linkage.
Review	Show main points or events in summary form.
Show	List your evidence in order of time, importance, logic.
Solve	Come up with a solution based on given facts or your knowledge.
State	List main points briefly without details.
Summarize	Organize and bring together the main points only.
Support	Back up a statement with facts and proof.
Trace	Give main points from beginning to end of an event.

alphabetical order and a brief explanation is given for each. If you go over these key words and make sure what task is required to be done by each, you will have less difficulty in understanding the instructions. In fact, you will be successful in understanding what is asked of you. Thus your performance in the test will be high.

May (1991: 171) gives the following general suggestions in taking a test.

Read the instructions very carefully – don't assume they will be the same as on previous papers.

Write in the time you've allocated next to each section, title or question. [You cannot do this for listening tests.]

Do the simpler questions first – don't get stuck and fail to reach some you could have done easily.

Leave time for checking and clarify anything which is illegible.

Make sure you have spelt words which appear in texts, questions and instructions correctly.

There is a close relation of being a good learner and being successful in tests and examinations. Therefore, study the following observations and try to compare and contrast your own learning strategies with the ones introduced. As a result of your analysis, you might want to modify your strategies.

Efficient learners

- They know that learning a language is not easy, but do not become discouraged.
- When they are learning new vocabulary, they form mental images of the objects.
- They contrast words in their first and second languages.
- They have their preferred ways of studying, but know that there is always something new to be learnt in any situation.
- They frequently make comparisons between what they say in the foreign language and what other people say.
- They make notes of what they have learned and check their progress.
- They can think in their second language.

(May 1991: 13)

Good learners

- have confidence in their ability to learn. If they fail at one problem, they are not discouraged.

- tend to enjoy solving problems. The process interests them, and they tend to resent people who want to 'help' by giving them answers.
- are apt to resent being told that something is 'good for them to know', unless, of course, they feel that it is good for them to know – in which case, they resent being told anyway.
- prefer to rely on their own judgement.
- are usually not fearful of being wrong. They can change their minds.
- are emphatically not fast answerers. They tend to delay their judgements until they have access to as much information as will be available.
- are flexible. They frequently begin their answers with the words 'it depend'.
- are skillful in making distinctions between statements of fact and other kinds of statements.
- know how to ask meaningful questions; they are persistent in examining their own assumptions and are apt to be cautious in making generalisations.
- do not need to have an absolute, final, irrevocable resolution to every problem. The sentence, 'I don't know', does not depress them.

(May 1991: 15)

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Ways of Attaining Study Skills

is written to help English language learners at pre-intermediate level to develop their academic skills.

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SANAYİ VE TİCARET LİMİTED ŞİRKETİ

Çukuryurt Sokak No: 6/3 80310
Mecidiyeköy - İstanbul
Tel: (0-212) 267 40 56 - 272 92 72
Faks: (0-212) 274 22 63

