

Richard C. Yorkey

STUDY SKILLS

for Students of
English as a Second
Language

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Second Language

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To the Teacher

The information and exercises in this text are intended for foreign students who are, or soon will be, using English as a language of instruction. This audience includes a large number of students in the United States, Canada, and England. It also includes an increasing number of students in their own countries where English rather than the native language is used as a medium of instruction, at both the secondary and college level, in some if not all of the courses.

The material assumes an intermediate level of English proficiency, although it is quite possible that advanced students still need instruction in some of the skills that are presented here. The text can be used in a regular English class for foreign students or, perhaps more profitably, in a special class of an orientation program.

In American education, these study skills are so much a part of the elementary and secondary school program that we tend to assume that foreign students also must have learned them somewhere in their early insbuction. My own experience has shown this to be unfortunately unttrue. Few foreign students have had sufficient instruction in using an English dictionary. Fewer seem to have had the advantage of a large library, or at least any reason to discover its full potential. And hardly any have had enough instruction or practice in making notes of lectures and reading assignments in English. The purpose of this text is to provide instructional and practice material for the kinds of study skills a foreign student will need if he is to be successful in his studies in English.

You are the best judge of the individual abilities and purposes of your students. From my own experience of teaching this text, I offer the following suggestions for your consideration.

1. The material is elementary. Its presentation, however, should be consistent with the age and educational level of the class. Furthennore, although these sklls are elementary to you, they wfil not necessarily seem 10 to your students. Just as much as possible, help them to appreciate the practical value of the skills by relating them to actual 1tudy conditions that they face.
2. Omit whatever sections or exercises you foel are unnecessary or

To the Teacher

inappropriate. While the present order of chapters is based on successful experience, for certain situations another order may be preferable.

3. Add material that you know is relevant to the particular needs and interests of your students. For example, while studying a dictionary, students are always pleased to learn, or to contribute, words in English that have come from their own language. Additional material for outlining, note-making, reading selections, or the library exercises can be drawn from the areas of your students' special interest. If they are all preparing for a similar program—agriculture, engineering, nursing, for example—orient the teaching as much as possible toward this end.
4. Whatever the particular study skill being taught, try also to focus regularly on the development of vocabulary. Relate word learning to the daily, practical experiences of students. Feel free to bring in vocabulary from current events. Students who are still at this stage of learning English find psychological security in accumulating long lists of new words. If the words eventually become recognized and used, there is nothing pedagogically wrong with word lists.
5. From twenty to twenty-five students should be about the maximum class size; the smaller the better. Most foreign students previously studied in much larger classes, with little opportunity to ask questions or to participate in discussions. The study skills class, especially if it is part of an orientation program, can introduce students to the give-and-take of class discussions, as well as provide practice in speaking English.
6. Instead of being printed separately to be torn out and handed in, exercises are integrated with the text to emphasize to students that practice is a necessary and natural part of the instruction. This is not, after all, a text *about* study skills; it is a text of skills to be practiced. Most of the exercises can be done by students as outside assignments, and then checked orally in class discussion. You may occasionally wish to review the students' work at leisure; in this case the books will have to be collected. Some exercises may be written on separate paper to be handed in. The general idea, however, is to put the burden of disciplined learning on the students themselves. As the material is discussed, practiced, and corrected in class, you will be able to determine who has not done the assignment.

Ruford C. Yorkey

To the Student

The purpose of this book is to help you improve your command of English and to give you skill and practice in using English as a language of instruction. Although you may learn about English study skills in a special program or as part of your English class, the skills will be useful only if you use them in all your classes. That is their purpose: to help you improve your study habits in English, and thus improve your work in all of the subjects that you are studying in English.

First read the Table of Contents to get an idea of the information you will learn and the kind of practice you will be doing. Each chapter introduces you to a particular skill that will be valuable in your studies. Some of these skills may already be familiar to you. It is likely, however, that you have not yet mastered them in the way that will be necessary for sure success in using English as the language of your instruction. Exercises will provide an opportunity for practice, but you should realize that your teacher can never give you enough guidance and correction. Once each skill has been introduced and practiced, it will be your responsibility to continue practicing on your own. These are skills, and they cannot be learned by listening to lectures, reading a book, or watching someone else do them. The only way to master skills is by using them, by regular and repeated practice.

Because vocabulary is so important to your success in English, words that may be new to you have been listed at the end of each chapter. For the convenience of review, a complete alphabetical inventory of these words is printed at the end of the book. You should keep an up-to-date record of all new words so that you can build a strong vocabulary.

Do your assignments regularly. Ask questions if you do not understand. Practice these skills as often as possible. From time to time you may need outside help, from your teacher or friends, but try your best to do the assignment yourself. Once the exercises have been completed and corrected in class, apply the skills to your other studies so that, through practice, they will become regular study habits. If you are going to use English as the language of instruction on which your future success may depend, it will be worthwhile now to spend a little time and effort to master these basic study skills.

Richard C. Yorkey

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Studying in English

English is now, or may soon become, the language of your instruction. Because it is not your native language, to study in English may be difficult at the beginning. Your success in your studies will depend upon your ability to understand, speak, read, and write English. This textbook is not intended to teach English—you already know that well enough to be writing this book. Its purpose is to teach you how to use English effectively as a language of instruction.

English as Your Language of Instruction

MOTIVATION. Your success in your studies will also depend upon your motivation. This need or desire to achieve a certain goal can make the difference between success and failure. Motivation can come from two sources: from inside of you or from outside of you. In the first case, motivation comes from your hopes and expectations, from your desire to do something or to be someone. Study purposes that result from personal, inner desires are individual and various. If you have not already done so, you should think carefully about what you hope to gain from your studies, and why. You should set a goal and direct all your study efforts towards reaching it. A goal of this kind is important because it will determine the direction and degree of your motivation for study.

Not everyone is highly motivated from within, and no one is continuously motivated from within. Fortunately there is another source of motivation: from outside. In education, the most obvious kind of outside motivation is grades. For many students, course grades are an immediate, short-range motivation for study. This is one of the reasons for examinations and grades, but they must not become a goal *in* themselves. Grades help to motivate you from day to day, but they are only small, artificial steps to your ultimate goal. It would be wrong to set grades as your only ambition.

A textbook like this cannot provide you with motivation; that

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must come from yourself. But as an encouragement, it is useful to know that good study habits depend upon good motivation. And good study habits are important because they help you get more done in less time. It is not a matter of how much you study; more valuable is how well you study.

CONCENTRATION. To concentrate means to focus your attention clearly and completely on a purpose. This is very easy to do when you are interested in what you are doing; it is difficult to do when you are not especially interested.

During your education you may have to study some subjects that do not interest you or that do not seem to have any value. Nevertheless, they are subjects that must be studied and passed. It is helpful to realize, as a matter of fact, that any subject is of interest and value. Many people have found it interesting and have even made a career of the subject. It is you who has no interest. How can you develop interest?

First, think of how and why the subject is important to your general education. Physics may not seem interesting to you, but if you want to understand space exploration, a little physics will be helpful. Biology may not seem interesting to you, but if you are curious about the anatomy and function of your body, a little biology will be useful. The extent and variety of your interests help you to understand the modern world and to measure your growth as an educated, well-rounded person.

Second, think of how the subject is related to other subjects or to other times, places, problems, and purposes. Although your study schedule is broken into separate and individual courses, you are not learning isolated information or ideas. Ancient history has some relationship to current events; physics and philosophy are closely connected in many ways; mathematics is useful in economics; psychology and sociology are reflected in literature. A subject that does not seem interesting in itself may be very interesting in relation to other subjects.

Third, interest depends upon understanding. If you do not understand the rules of baseball or cricket, you cannot have much interest in watching the game. But if you take time and trouble to learn the rules, you may find it an exciting sport. When you begin to study a new subject, try to keep an open mind. Do not start by thinking that the subject is horrible or difficult. Most of all, do not fall behind in your preparation, reading, classwork, and homework. When you fail to learn one point of information, all of the following information that depends on it will not be dear to you. Because you do not understand, you will lose whatever interest you may have started with. To maintain interest and concentration, study regularly and do not be afraid to ask questions or seek help for anything you do not understand.

DISTRACTIONS. Even though you are interested in a subject, you may find that your concentration is interrupted by various distractions. A distraction is something, such as a sudden noise, or someone, such as an unexpected visitor, that takes your attention away from what you are doing. You have no control over some distractions, but you can control others.

You can eliminate some distractions by choosing your place and time of study carefully. You can eliminate other distractions by keeping in good health. A tired feeling which results from a poor diet or from staying up too late makes it difficult to concentrate. If your eyes tire easily, or if you have headaches after concentrated reading, it may mean that you should have your eyes examined. Your physical health is important to good study habits.

In order to study efficiently, you need to have a place that is always, and only, used for studying. Ideally, this should be your own desk in your own private room. If you share a room with someone else, you will have to try even harder than usual not to be distracted.

Your desk should be neat and cleared of anything that distracts your attention, such as photographs, personal letters, magazines, and especially a radio. All the materials that you need for study should be within easy reach: textbooks, notebooks, a dictionary, a slide rule, pens, and pencils. On the left of your desk (or on your right if you are left-handed) should be a good lamp that lights your work without shadows. Because your desk is your private place of study, it should not be used for any other purpose. Even for reading the daily newspaper or a long awaited letter, go elsewhere. When you come to your desk, it should suggest nothing but academic work.

Unfortunately, your place of study, at home or in a dormitory, may sometimes be noisy. Also there is the occasional need to be hospitable to friends who visit. Many students, therefore, prefer to study in the library. This too has its disturbances and distractions. They are fewer, however, than if you try to study while sitting on a campus bench, walking along the road, or passing the time with friends in the cafeteria.

Your Place of Study

One of the wisest but most difficult rules of studying is to set a definite schedule and then follow it. This is difficult to do because, besides the usual distractions and temptations, there are often unexpected interruptions. Nevertheless, if you are really interested in studying well, try to follow the rule: *Plan your work and work your plan.*

There are enough hours in the day for fun and relaxation as

Your Time of Study

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well as for studying, but you may not get it all done unless **you** plan your time. If you do not have a time-table to keep you on schedule, you may waste your time. This means that **your** homework assignments will accumulate. The longer you wait, the more homework there will be. The more homework there is, the less you feel like starting it. The longer you take to start, the more homework there will be. Clearly it is not sensible to allow your homework to accumulate. Plan a study schedule.

The kind of study schedule you plan will depend upon your class schedule, your school and social activities, and the time that you eat and sleep. The exact distribution of time is not important. What is important is that you make a schedule that is realistic, one that takes into consideration your other activities, and your own needs for each subject. Of even more importance, of course, is that you follow your schedule regularly.

Before you plan a time-table for studying, analyze your weekly class schedule. Count the number of class hours for each subject, and the number of hours that will be necessary to complete the outside assignments. Here are some important points to keep in mind:

1. Be realistic. Schedule for leisure time those times that you usually use for leisure.
2. For courses which depend largely on recitation (such as languages), plan a study period just before class. For example, in the evening before your English class, read the assignment, check your comprehension, and record any vocabulary you do not know. Then plan time just before class to review the reading and vocabulary. If the assignment is a composition, write it as soon as possible, then review and possibly revise it just before class. This kind of thorough preparation will give you confidence in class and increase your interest in the material.
3. For courses that depend largely on lectures, plan a study period immediately after the class. **However**, if there is an outside reading assignment, do the reading before the lecture. This will make the material more meaningful, and, because it will be familiar, you will be able to make better notes. Then immediately after the lecture, plan to revise your notes while the material is still fresh in your mind. This kind of review will also help when examination time comes.
4. Many courses use both a lecture and recitation method of instruction. You will have to plan or revise your schedule accordingly.
- ◆. Distribute your study hours rather than miss them all together. Experiments have shown that learning is more

effect_{vt}, if you space your practice. For example, three separate one-hour study periods are better than three solid hours of uninterrupted study. It is also better not to study a single subject for more than several hours at a time. You begin to tire and it becomes difficult to concentrate. Plan a short break during each hour, and change the subject you are studying.

8. Do not expect to learn material during the last few days before an examination by cramming. Somewhere in your schedule allow time for a weekly review. During short, regularly spaced periods of review, you can refresh your memory and bring yourself up to date. More important, you will see the subject as a larger unit of related information instead of a single hour of isolated material.
7. Plan to spend at least two hours on outside preparation for each hour in class. This is a minimum requirement, and it assumes that you read English as well as a native speaker. You probably read much more slowly; therefore, your assignments are likely to require more time than this minimum.
8. Most important of all: "Trade time, don't steal it." Naturally there will be unexpected events which will interrupt the time you planned for study. When this happens, rearrange your schedule so that the time is substituted elsewhere and not completely lost.

Study Exercises

Exercise 1-1. Analyze your place of study by rating the following statements. On the line opposite each statement,

write 3 for "yes, always"

write 2 for "sometimes"

write 1 for "no, never"

_____ I have a desk of my own.

_____ I have a desk of my own in a private room.

_____ My desk is neat and orderly.

_____ I have a good, bright lamp.

_____ The lamp is properly placed on my desk.

_____ I keep all my study materials in or on my desk.



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- _____ The desk is clear of all distracting objects.
- _____ I have uninterrupted quiet during my study hours.
- _____ I use my desk only for study.
- _____ The atmosphere is pleasant and makes me want to study.
- _____ Total

An honest 25 means that you have a proper place to study. If you score around 20, you are average but should want to improve. If you score below 20, something should be done to improve your place of study.

Exercise 1-2. Use the blank schedule. Follow these directions.

1. Fill in your schedule of assigned classes at the hour each class meets.
2. Fill in your other activities that usually have scheduled times. For example, lunch and supper, athletics, club activities, or work.
3. Now study your schedule carefully. Consider the following questions:
 - a. In what subjects are you weak and in need of more time for study?
 - b. In what subjects are you strong and in need of less time for study?
 - c. Which subjects should you prepare before class?
 - d. Which subjects should you prepare after class?
 - e. Which subjects require a lot of reading? (Allow yourself more study time for these than for other courses.)
 - f. Where does each class meet? Is there a convenient place to study between classes?
 - g. What times are best for rest and relaxation?
4. Fill in your study times for each course. Remember that this schedule is tentative. After a few days you may need to change parts of it.

Weekly study schedule.

Time	Sunday	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday	Saturday
8:00							
9:00							
10:00							
11:00							
12:00							
1:00							
2:00							
3:00							
4:00							
5:00							
6:00							
7:00							
8:00							
9:00							
10:00							
11:00							

Vocabulary Exercise

Exercise 1-3. The following words have appeared in this chapter. They may or may not be familiar to you. Because they are fairly common words which you will see often, if you are not sure of their meanings, write them in your vocabulary record. See page 72 for directions.

to accumulate
artificial
the break
the career
to concentrate
to cram

the distraction
the disturbance
to eliminate
to focus
hospitable

the interruption
isolated
the leisure
the motivation
neat

the recitation
to revise
the temptation
tentative
ultimate

2

Using an English Dictionary

For foreign students of English, a good dictionary is a necessary reference book. Like all tools, however, it is valuable only if it is used correctly and efficiently. A short time spent on learning what a dictionary contains and how it should be used will save you much time later.

At some time you have probably been told to "use the dictionary." The word *the* suggests that there is only one dictionary. The fact is there are many English dictionaries; a few are excellent, many are poor. None of them is "the supreme authority" that advertisers may claim. Unlike some other languages, English has never been regulated, approved, or authorized by an academy or government ministry. An English dictionary is merely a record of how English speakers define, pronounce, spell, and use the words of their language. The only authority an English dictionary has is its completeness, its accuracy in reporting the facts, and its recency of publication.

The "Authority" of a Dictionary

Foreign students are frequently worried about the differences between British English and American English. Although these differences may seem to be confusing at first, they are not sufficiently numerous or important to worry about. Where a difference exists, a good dictionary will indicate alternate British or American pronunciations, spellings, or meanings. Either is equally correct.

British and American English

Several large dictionaries, called unabridged, contain all the words of the language. Usually you will not need such a complete dictionary. If you should, you will find it in the reference room of your library. Your study needs will be met satisfactorily by one of the more convenient abridged dictionaries. These are small desk dictionaries that contain more than 100,000 different words,

Desk Dictionaries

as well as other useful references and information. Any of the following current desk dictionaries is good:

The American College Dictionary (New York: Random House)

Funk and Wagnalls Standard College Dictionary (New York: Funk and Wagnalls)

The Random House Dictionary of the English Language, College Edition (New York: Random House)

Webster's New World Dictionary of the American Language (Cleveland, Ohio: World Publishing Company)

Webster's Seventh New Collegiate Dictionary (Springfield, Mass.: G. and C. Merriam Company)

Because new words come into the language and old meanings frequently change, it is important to use only a dictionary that has been recently published or revised. Avoid a dictionary that is more than ten or at most fifteen years old.

Small paper-covered dictionaries have only a limited value for your study needs. They are abridgements of abridgements. Also, though they may have been published recently, many of these pocket-sized dictionaries are copied without changes from older dictionaries.

Avoid a native-language-to-English dictionary (for example, Japanese-English, French-English, Persian-English). Dictionaries of this kind are frequently poorly edited and out of date. Although they may serve an occasional and immediate convenience, their great danger is the assumption that there is a one-for-one correspondence between the words of the two languages. Sometimes there is, most often there is not. Word translations of the kind that such dictionaries encourage can lead you into many mistakes. Furthermore, you will not increase your English vocabulary but only temporarily find what may be a false equivalent.

Dictionaries to Avoid

Here is a list of some of the things that you can learn from your dictionary. Each of these will be discussed in detail, followed by exercises to give you practice.

1. **Spelling.** A dictionary shows the accepted spelling of every word that is listed, as well as the spelling of irregular verb forms and plurals.
2. **Pronunciation.** Each dictionary has a special way of showing how words are pronounced, including stress.
3. **Syllable division.** This helps in spelling and pronouncing words and indicates where the word should be divided at the end of a line.

What a Dictionary Will Tell You

4. **Derivation.** A dictionary includes the history of each word, indicating its origin and development -through different languages before it became an English word.
5. **Meaning.** Almost every word has more than a single meaning. Different meanings are given, often with illustrative sentences. Special, technical definitions are also listed.
6. **Part of speech.** These are determined, of course, by actual use in a sentence. A dictionary indicates, however, whether the word is commonly used as a noun, pronoun, verb (transitive and intransitive), adjective, adverb, conjunction, or preposition.
7. **Usage.** Your dictionary will tell you whether a word is chiefly British or American, or whether the word is formal, colloquial, dialectal, archaic, poetic, or slang. This information is often important in writing.
8. **Synonyms and antonyms.** Frequently words of similar or opposite meanings are listed, with explanation of the distinctions.
9. **General information.** Information about persons and places is listed, either within the alphabetical arrangement of the words or in special sections at the back. For example, a dictionary will tell you the location of Roanoke, the population of Katmandu, or the dates that Cleopatra ruled.

Any good dictionary will give you this much information. Some dictionaries also include rules for spelling, punctuation, and capitalization, a vocabulary of rhymes, a list of common first names in English, and even a list of colleges and universities in the United States. If you are confused by the system of weights and measures used in English, you can find a table of equivalents in your dictionary.

Whichever dictionary you use, get to know it like a friend. It is a friend.

Alphabetical Exercises

ALPHABETICAL ARRANGEMENT. Because all entries in a dictionary are arranged in alphabetical order, you must know the correct order of the letters in English:

ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ

Words are arranged according to the first letter. When words begin with the same letter, they are arranged according to the second letter. If both the first and second letters are the same, they are arranged according to the third letter, and so on.

EnrciH J.J. Copy the following words on the lines in alphabetical order.

- | | | | | |
|---------|-------|----------|-------|--------|
| address | claim | empire | stamp | wrong |
| puzzle | night | mountain | ruin | duease |
-
- | | |
|----------|-----------|
| 1. _____ | 6. _____ |
| 2. _____ | 7. _____ |
| 3. _____ | 8. _____ |
| 4. _____ | 9. _____ |
| 5. _____ | 10. _____ |

E%ef'Ciae !-2. These words begin with the same letter. Copy them in alphabetical order, according to the second letter of each word.

- | | | | |
|------|--------|-------|--------|
| fry | four | fence | find |
| fate | future | flesh | freeze |
-
- | | |
|----------|----------|
| 1. _____ | 5. _____ |
| 2. _____ | 6. _____ |
| 3. _____ | 7. _____ |
| 4. _____ | 8. _____ |

Eu,ci,e J-3. The lint few leters of each word are the same. Copy them in alphabetical order.

- | | | | | |
|----------|---------|--------|---------|--------|
| practice | prepare | praise | present | prize |
| private | pray | press | prison | pretty |
-
- | | |
|----------|-----------|
| 1. _____ | 6. _____ |
| 2. _____ | 7. _____ |
| 3. _____ | 8. _____ |
| 4. _____ | 9. _____ |
| 5. _____ | 10. _____ |

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Exercise 2-4. Copy these words in correct alphabetical order,

extra
example
experiment

exact
express
exclaim

excite
experience
expense

explain
exercise
explore

1. _____

7. _____

2. _____

8. _____

3. _____

9. _____

4. _____

10. _____

5. _____

11. _____

6. _____

12. _____

Alphabetical Exercise: Directory Style

Personal names are arranged according to "directory style." This means that the alphabetical arrangement is by the **last** name, followed by a comma and the first name (and possibly the middle initial). For example:

Brown, Robert
Jones, Arthur T.
Smith, Walter N.
Smith, Walter S.
Smith, William

Exercise 2-5. Below are the names of some of the presidents of the United States. Copy them in directory style.

Andrew Johnson
Abraham Lincoln
John Adams
Theodore Roosevelt
Woodrow Wilson

John Quincy Adams
George Washington
Franklin D. Roosevelt
Lyndon B. Johnson
John F. Kennedy

1. _____

6. _____

2. _____

7. _____

3. _____

8. _____

4. _____

9. _____

5. _____

10. _____

FINDING WORDS QUICKLY. Look at the top of any page in your dictionary. Two words are in heavy black type. The word on the left is the same as the first word on this page. The word on the right is the same as the last word on the page. These two words are called *guide words*. They guide you to the word you are looking for. For example, if the guide words on the page are *halt* and *haste*, and the word you are looking for is *harp*, you know you will find it on that page.

When you are looking for a word, first thumb through the pages quickly, looking only at the guide words. When you come to the guide word nearest to the word you want, then look down that page for the word.

Guide Word Exercise

Exercise 2-6. Look up each of the following words in your dictionary. Try to find each as quickly as possible by using the guide words. On the lines after each word, write the guide words that appear in your dictionary. (Of course different dictionaries will have different guide words.)

	Left guide word	Right guide word
1. combine	_____	_____
2. patient	_____	_____
3. journey	_____	_____
4. witness	_____	_____
5. military	_____	_____

SPELLING. There is no need to tell you that English spelling is difficult. But it may help to know that native English speakers find it just as confusing. George Bernard Shaw, a famous playwright, once spelled *fish* in this way: ghoti. Here is his reasoning: *f* is spelled *gh* as in *enough*; *i* is spelled *o* as in *women*; *sh* is spelled *ti* as in *nation*.

As a matter of fact, English spelling is not nearly so bad as this example might lead you to believe. About 85 percent of the words in English have what can be considered a regular spelling. (*Flah* is one of them.) Following are a few spelling rules that are worth learning because they apply to so many words. Study the rules and the examples. Then the next time you use your dictionary for help

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in spelling, ask yourself if there is a rule that could be followed so that you would not have to use a dictionary.

Rule 1: To add a suffix to a one-syllable word with a single vowel followed by a single consonant, double the final consonant.

run + -ing = running	fat + -er = fatter
sad + -est = saddest	cut + -able = cuttable

Rule 2: To add a suffix to a word of more than one syllable, double the final consonant of the last syllable if it ends in a single vowel followed by a single consonant and if the stress remains on the last syllable.

begin + -ing = beginning	refer + -ence = reference
occur + -ence = occurrence	(stress shifts)
prefer + -ed = preferred	refer + -ed = referred
	(stress remains)

Rule 3: Drop the final e before a suffix beginning with a vowel.

take + -ing = taking	desire + -able = desirable
write + -ing = writing	believe + -able = believable

But keep *thee* in order to keep the "soft" sound of c or g before suffixes beginning with a, e, or o.

charge + -able = chargeable
notice + -able = noticeable
courage + -ous = courageous

Rule 4: In syllables with a long e sound (as in *field*), e comes before e except after c.

believe	grief	receive
chief	piece	ceiling

Exception: seize, weird, allure (American pronunciation)

Rule 5: For words that end with y preceded by a consonant, change the y to i before adding a suffix (except those beginning with l).

happy + -est = happiest	cry + -ing = crying
beauty + -ful = beautiful	study + -ing = studying

However, for the plural or third person singular present tense, change the y to i and add -e,.

sky \rightarrow -s = skies
cry + -s = cries

carry + -s = carries
theory + -s = theories

Rule. 6: For words that end with y preceded by a vowel, keep the y before adding a suffix.

gay \rightarrow -est = gayest
boy + -ish = boyish

enjoy + -ing = enjoying
play + -s = plays

Exception: day + -ly = daily
pay + -ed = paid

say + -ed = said
lay + -ed = laid

Spelling Exercise

Exercise 2-7. Study the six rules with their examples and few exceptions. Then, for each of the following words, add the suffix in parentheses. Write the word clearly on the line.

1. forget (+ -ing) _____
2. chilly (+ -er) _____
3. occur (+ -ing) _____
4. pay (+ -ed) _____
5. surprise (+ -ing) _____
6. support (+ -ed) _____
7. regret (+ -able) _____
8. lady (+ -s) _____
9. question (+ -ed) _____
10. advantage (+ -ous) _____
11. pleasure (+ -able) _____
12. supply (+ -s) _____
13. system (+ -atic) _____



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14. murder	(+ -ed)	_____
15. sit	(+ -ing)	_____
16. hope	(+ -ing)	_____
17. hop	(+ -ing)	_____
18. mystery	(+ -ous)	_____
19. marriage	(+ -able)	_____
20. like	(+ -able)	_____

COMMON SPELLING PROBLEMS. Many foreign students of English, as well as native English speakers, have found the following words difficult to spell correctly. (They are spelled correctly here.)

all right	disease	occurring
athletics	doesn't	occurred
author	embarrass	paid
beginning	engineer	pronunciation
believe	finally	receive
benefit	forty	relieve
business	grammar	rhythm
clothes	in order to	rhyme
deceive	mathematics	separate
definite	medicine	similar
describe	necessary	surprise
description	occasion	until
disappoint	occurrence	writing

Notice the differences in spelling, pronunciation, and meaning between the words in the following pairs. If you are in doubt, check your dictionary.

advice	hear	profit
advise	here	proph t
accept	lose	quiet
except	loose	quite
conscious	it's	their
conscience	iti.	there
		they're

Dictionary Spelling Exercise

Exercise 2-8. Use your dictionary to answer the following questions about spelling.

1. What other possible spellings does your dictionary give for these words?

skillful _____ adviser _____

judgment _____ catalog _____

cigarette _____ enquire _____

theater _____ catchup _____

2. Does your dictionary say anything about the spelling, alright?

3. How is the past tense of the following verbs spelled? If there are two possibilities, write both.

program _____

travel _____

SYLLABLE DIVISION. Your dictionary indicates separate syllables, usually by a heavy black dot in the first entry. For example:

En·glish
dic·tion·ar·y

Notice this division carefully so that you will know where it is possible to divide words in your writing. Words in English can be divided only at pronounceable syllable divisions.

Syllable Division Exercise 1

Exercise 2-9. Look up these words in your dictionary. Notice the syllable division. Copy each word, indicating where the word is divided into syllables by using a heavy black dot.

1. dictator _____ 3. overcome _____

2. manufacture _____ 4. lazy _____



- | | | | |
|---------------|-------|----------------|-------|
| 5. obscure | _____ | 9. mpfne | _____ |
| 6. umbrella | _____ | 10. area | _____ |
| 7. neglect | _____ | 11. popular | _____ |
| 8. vocabulary | _____ | 12. dependable | _____ |

Atthe end of a line of writing, English words can be divided only at the syllable division. A hyphen is placed at the center ofthe line { not on the line) to show that the word has been broken. For example:

The English teach-
er told the stu-
dents how to di-
vide words in-
to syllables.

Never divide words of one syllable. Never divide a word so that a single-letter syllable is left alone (a-lone). Where a word has double consonant letters, the syllable division comes between the two letters (let-ters). Though each syllable must be pronounceable, never divide the underlying stem of the \h, d. For example, teach-ing, not tea-ching; mak-ing, not ma-king.

Syllable Division Exercise 2

Ezercile 2-10. Divide each of the following words into syllables by putting a diagonal line between the proper syllable division. For example: co 1/1 e g e. If you an, not sure, check your dictionary.

- | | | |
|----------------------|----------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. b e g i n n i n g | 5. c o m i n g | 9. p h i l o s o p h y |
| 2. p r o f e s s o r | 6. e n g i n e e r | 10. s y l l a b l e |
| 3. l a n g u a g e | 7. m e d i c i n e | 11. c o m m u n i c a t i o n |
| 4. a u t h o r i t y | 8. a d v a n t a g e | 12. a g r i c u l t u r e |

PRONUNCIATION

Pronunciation Difln-enc111 Foreign students are often worried about the difference of EngU1h pronunciation. Should they pro-

Does the first syllable of either rhyme with me or my? Is the first syllable of fore, pronounced far- or for? Differences of these kinds are not nearly so important as students fear. All English speakers are aware of such differences, and most speakers accept them willingly. Though a different pronunciation may sound strange and may identify the speaker as being from a different geographical area or from a different social or economic class, there is seldom any real difficulty of understanding. Speakers from all areas of the United States understand each other, and certainly Americans and Britons can communicate without any serious misunderstanding.

There are relatively few words that may have different pronunciations. Like alternative spellings, these differences are recorded and labeled in your dictionary.

Pronunciation Key: A dictionary can help you learn the pronunciation of any word, but only if you are familiar with the symbols used to indicate each of the sounds. Many of the symbols are the same in all dictionaries, but a few are different. Therefore, be sure to read the introduction to your dictionary and study especially the table of pronunciation symbols. This is usually on the inside front or back cover. An abbreviated form of the table is also often at the bottom of each page.

Pronunciation Exercises

Exercise 2-11. Look up the following words in your dictionary. In the box under Symbol, copy the symbol used to indicate the

Vowel sound	Symbol	Key word	Vowel sound	Symbol	Key word
æ			ra_in		
ɪ			ʌ		
mat			ʔ in		
ə			lɪ		
ə			tit		
rn			ɪ N		
ʌ			ʌ Z		

underlined vowel sound in the word. Then look at the table of pronunciation symbols in your dictionary. In the box under Key word, write one word that is used to illustrate this vowel sound.

Exercise 2-12. Look up each of the following words in your dictionary. In the box under Symbol, copy the symbol that is used to indicate the underlined consonant sound in the word. Then look at the table of pronunciation symbols in your dictionary. In the box under Key word, write one word that is used to illustrate this consonant sound.

Consonant sound	Symbol	Key word	Consonant sound	Symbol	Key word
via			li!!I		
ju o p			thin		
t-urch			then		
shell			her		

The symbols that are found in these two exercises are probably the only ones that are different from what you would expect. If you are not sure of a symbol, always look at the pronunciation table,

Exercise 2-13. Look up the pronunciation of the following words in your dictionary. Copy them carefully on the line. Be able to pronounce each word correctly aloud.

- | | | | |
|-------------|-------|------------------|-------|
| 1. woman | _____ | 6. pronunciation | _____ |
| 2. women | _____ | 7. says | _____ |
| 3. said | _____ | 8. idea | _____ |
| 4. nation | _____ | 9. English | _____ |
| 5. national | _____ | 10. author | _____ |

Exercise 2-14. Most dictionaries give alternative pronunciations for each of the following words. For each word, copy the possible pronunciations. Include any explanation your dictionary gives about the difference.

1. duty		
2. bath		
3. greasy		
4. a (indef. art.)		
5. because		
6. schedule		
7. medicine		
8. the (def. art.)		
9. vase		
10. either		
11. February		
12. comfortable		

SYLLABLE STRESS. In a word of two syllables, one syllable is pronounced with more force, or loudness, than the other (for example, *teach-er*, *a-bove*). This difference of emphasis is called stress. A dictionary will indicate a stressed syllable, usually by a mark like this: '. The table of pronunciation symbols will tell you whether the stress mark is before or after the syllable that is stressed. Be sure to learn where your dictionary puts the stress mark.

Words of three or more syllables may have two stresses, one heavier than the others. Your dictionary will indicate primary, secondary, and weak stresses. For example, look up the word *dictionary*. Which syllable has primary stress? Which syllable has secondary stress? Which syllables have weak stress?

Syllable Stress Exercise

Exercise 2-16. Look up the following words in your dictionary. Copy the pronunciation, indicating the stress marks. Practice pronouncing the words with the correct stress.

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- | | |
|----------------------|------------------------|
| 1. necessary _____ | 8. comfortable _____ |
| 2. necessity _____ | 9. disbIBUTE _____ |
| 5. necessarily _____ | 10. committee _____ |
| 4. dormitory _____ | 11. conbIBUTE _____ |
| 5. decade _____ | 12. contribution _____ |
| 6. decayed _____ | 13. definite _____ |
| 7. comparable _____ | 14. communism _____ |

DEFINITIONS OF WORDS

important! Be sure to read the introduction to your dictionary to find out the order in which the different meanings are listed. Some dictionaries list the earliest meaning first and the most recent meaning last. This order is useful if you are interested in the historical development of meanings. Some dictionaries list the most common current meaning first, which is then traced back to earlier meanings.

1. What is the name of your dictionary?

2. Is the meaning that is listed first (a) the earliest meaning or (b) the most recent and common?

3. On what page of your dictionary did you find this information?

Probably the most important information regarding a word is its meaning. You must understand, however, that most words in English have many meanings or shades of meaning. It is this fact which makes a dictionary dangerous if it is not used correctly. Words, with several different meanings are sometimes illustrated in sentences or phrases. Notice the different meanings for the word drop:

drop -n. 1. a small amount of liquid in a roundish shape: a drop of rain. 2. a sudden fall. 3. a distance down: a drop of 30 feet. -v. 1. to fall in drops. 2. to fall suddenly. 3. to kill. 4. to go lower; sink.

The **proper** meaning of the word drop depends upon how it is used in a sentence. For example: "I felt a drop of water on my face" (noun, meaning 1); "He was frightened by the deep drop" (noun, meaning 3); "The book dropped to the floor" (verb, meaning 2); "He dropped the lion with a single shot" (verb, meaning 3).

Look up the word whale in your dictionary. What one word does your own language use to identify this creature? The word whale has a fairly specific meaning: it can be translated into another language without much difficulty or danger. However, this is true only of words that are technical or very specialized. Most words have such a range of meanings that it is impossible to translate their meaning in isolation.

Word Definition Exercises

Exercise 2-16. The following words are familiar to you. However, look up each word in your dictionary. Notice how the different meanings are divided according to parts of speech. Sometimes a numbered meaning will have several lettered meanings. On the lines below, write the total number of different meanings for each word. Include in your count all the numbered and lettered meanings for each part of speech.

run _____ fast _____ set _____ work _____

For some of the different meanings of the word run, think of the different words that your own language uses to express the same meaning.

Exercise 2-17. Notice the different meanings of the word play in the following sentences. Using your dictionary, find the specific meaning of play in each sentence. Write the meaning on the line after each sentence.

1. The children like to play in the afternoon.

_____ →

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2. Mary will play the piano in the concert.

3. The play produced by the Drama Club was a success.

4. It was a clever play that won the football game for us.

Remember/ When you are looking for a definition, do not read just the first meaning listed. Look for the meaning that best fits the context in which the word is used. Do two other things: (1) Look at the spelling and pronunciation of the word, especially the stress. Looking at the history of the word is also an interesting and useful way to learn about the word and to fix *its* meaning in your mind. (2) Look at the words above and below the word. They are often closely related; if so, they will help to extend your recognition of the word in other forms and contexts.

IDIOMS. Look up the word *look*. After the main definition you will see a series of idioms; for example, *look after*, *look for*, *look out*, *look up*. Idioms of this kind are difficult and confusing to foreign students-and English uses many of them. Your dictionary can be helpful, however, because many common idioms are listed under the main word, or sometimes as separate entries. Examples are also often included.

Idiom Exercise

Exercise 2-1B. Each of the following sentences is a comment you might hear in class or on campus. Look up the italicized idiom in your dictionary. Write its meaning on the line. If your dictionary does not include the idiom, write "not in (name of dictionary) ."

1. Your ideas are good, but they don't *hang together* very well.

2. My roommate is pretty hard up these days.

3. Professor Balcer's lecture was way *over my head*.

4. Stop putting it *off*, Do it now!

5. At 8nt I had dJfBculty in English but now I'm 1•ttin1 *on* okay.

8. In order to get your ideas acron, you need to organize them better and state them more clearly.

7. He tries to get by with the least amount of work possible.

8. I don't get how you got the answer.

9. Prof. Allen ♦ld *forth* for over an hour about the dangers of overcon&dence.

10. At flrst he couldn't get all his homework done but now he's holding hLt own.

11. Your answer would have been better if you hadn't wasted so much time beating around the bu8h.

- 1!. He forgot to keep tmck of the time and wasn't able to finish the exam.

13. As a rule of thumb, you can get a better grade if you type your report instead of write it longhand.

14. He •et to doing his homework with unusual enthusiasm.

- US. My roommate has now experienced unhappy love at 'first hand.

16. The boobtore doesn't have the book on hand but they promised to order it immediately.

17. I don't go in for classical music very much.

18. Now be sure to take down this Jdea carefully.



19. Be sure to keep up with the reading assignment so you understand the lectures.

20. She just *came* into a lot of money.

21. Of course the course is difficult, but that's no reason to give up.

22. He finally gave in to the teacher's logic.

23. Just about here in your composition you seem to have run out of ideas.

24. The teacher always seems to see through my excuses.

25. She looked daggers at me when I told her the truth.

HISTORY OF WORDS. The history of a word, technically called etymology, can be a fascinating part of using your dictionary. When you look up the spelling or meaning of any word, take time to study the etymology of the word. It will not only be interesting but it will also help you to remember the word and its meaning better.

Word, from *Oxford English Dictionary*: Webster's Third New International Dictionary of the English Language (1961) contains almost half a million words. Most of these have originally come from English itself or from Latin, Greek, and French. English speakers, however, have always been willing to borrow words whenever they need them and from wherever they find them.

In your dictionary, locate and study the table of abbreviations for etymology and languages. This is usually inside the front or back cover. A shorter key is also printed at the bottom of each page.

Etymology Exercise 1

Exercise 1-19. Look up each of the following words. Copy the etymology in full, without using abbreviations.

1. magazine _____

2. mosquito _____

3. orange _____

4. outlaw _____

5. turban _____

6. umbrella-----

E-,ci,e !-20. Look up each of the following words. On the line write the name of the language from which the word was originally borrowed.

1. shampoo _____

4. goulash _____

2. kayak _____

5. kindergarten _____

3. amen _____

6. moccasin _____



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- | | | | |
|------------|-------|-------------|-------|
| 7. sputnik | _____ | 10. kimono | _____ |
| 8. pajama | _____ | 11. ketchup | _____ |
| 9. mufti | _____ | 12. pizza | _____ |

Word, from p.,om and Placa: Some words in English have come from the geographical name of a particular place or from the penonal name of a particular penon.

Ean. • NJ. Look up each of the following words and write its origin.

1. boycott _____
2. volcano -----
3. cashmere _____
4. lynch _____
5. macintosh _____
6. shrapnel _____
7. tantalize -----
8. millin _____

Exercise 2-22

1. According to your dictionary, what is the origin of *O.K.P*

2. In what hJ,torical way wu the word ihlbbolsth usedP

RESTRICTIVE OR USAGE LABELS. The entry for many words in your dictionary will include some kind of label that describes the limitations or special uses of the word. Some labels refer to specific dialects, such as United States, British, or Scottish. Some refer to earlier uses or meanings in the history of English, such as *archaic* or *obsolete*. Some refer to the level of usage: whether the word has a literary flavor (for example, poetic), whether it is formal or informal, or whether it is primarily slang or colloquial. Some labels refer to special fields of study, such as medicine, law, chemistry, physics, electronics, history or architecture.

Word Label Exercises

Exercise 2-13. Look up these two words in your dictionary. Write each of the labels that is listed for the word. (Dictionaries may differ slightly.)

1. Boat

_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____

2. nucleus

_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____

Exercise 2-24. You might read the following phrases in English literature written more than a hundred years ago. Look up each of the italicized words. Copy the usage label that your dictionary gives it and the word's meaning.

- I. "perchance to dream"

Label: _____

Meaning: _____



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2. "too much *afeard* to die"

Label: _____

Meaning: _____

3. "*whither* thou goest"

Label: _____

Meaning: _____

4. "the *gloom* of evening"

Label: _____

Meaning: _____

5. "ere the dawn"

Label: _____

Meaning: _____

Eurci# 2-25. Following are some English expressions that you may hear students say. Look up each of the italicized words or phrases in your dictionary. Write whether its use is primarily slang, informal, or colloquial. For example:

"Will it be *okay* if I meet you at the library about eightish?"

Label: _____   ,a)!,

Meaning:  _____

1. "What time's the *exam* tomorrow?"

Label: _____

Meaning: _____

2. "Who's your *prof* in econ?"

Label: _____

Meaning: _____

3. "Which of you ~~guys~~ took my slide rule?"

Label: _____

Meaning: _____

4. "Sure he's a nice guy, hut don't you think he's too much of a *ghnd:>*"

Label: _____

Meaning: _____

5. "All they do is sit around and *shoot the bull* till way after midnight."

Label: _____

Meaning: _____

6. "Hey, listen! Isn't it *cool* the way she sings that songr·

Label: _____

Meaning: _____

7. "Boy, did I give the prof a *snow ;obi*"

Label: _____

Meaning: _____

8. "111 drive us over to the drive-in if you'll agree to go *Dutch*."

Label: _____

Meaning: _____

9. "I don't know why Jack can never give me a straight answer. He always has to pass *the* buck."

Label: _____

Meaning: _____



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10. "I think boys *gab* more than girls."

Label: _____

Meaning: _____

11. "By midnight •I'm usually too *beat* to do anything but fall right into bed."

Label: _____

Meaning: _____

12. "Come off it, Jack! He's just full of *hot air*!"

Label: _____

Meaning: _____

13. "My roommate gripes about everything: grades, cafeteria food, the weather, even me."

Label: _____

Meaning: _____

14. "That's a neat jacket, Fred. How many bucks did it cost you?"

Label: _____

Meaning: _____

15. "It's too late to finish the report. I'll just have to turn it in the way it is. It's late and I want to turn in for the night."

Label: _____

Meaning: _____

FOREIGN WORDS AND PHRASES, Frequently you will hear in a lecture or read in a textbook a word or phrase that is not English but often used in English. For example, you may read that "the income per capita of Southeast Asian countries is very low." Your dictionary will tell you that *per capita* literally means "by heads"; that is, counting each individual as a unit of population. Your dictionary will define many common foreign words

and phrases, either in the main alphabetical listing or in a special section at the back.

Foreign Words Exercise

Exercise 2-26. Look up each of the following foreign words or phrases. Write its English meaning on the line.

1. a priori _____
2. coup d'etat _____
3. ergo _____
4. et cetera _____
5. et al. _____
6. ex cathedra _____
7. e.g. _____
8. fait accompli _____
9. hoi polloi _____
10. per se _____
11. per annum _____
12. Q.E.D. _____
13. quid pro quo _____
14. sine qua non _____
15. vice versa _____
16. vis-a-vis _____

PERSONS AND PLACES. Your dictionary includes information about important persons and places. These entries are usually listed in the main alphabetical arrangement of words, but some dictionaries may put them in the back in separate sections

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of bing,-aphiral namrs ancl R pronoundn J(R7.dtc.r.r. l .earn how
your dictionar)' includt•s this kind of l11fom1athm.

Persons and Places Exercise&

E:tf'rdae 2-27. Look up the names of the followt1g prrsons. For each
name, write the dates the person llvc<l, hill country, and
what he is hest known for. For example:

William Shakespeare	1564-1616	England	known for his plays and poetry
	Dates	Country	Known for
1. A,icenna	_____	_____	_____
2. Simon Bolivar	_____	_____	_____
3. Benjamin Disraeli	_____	_____	_____
4. Hafiz	_____	_____	_____
5. Immanucl Kant	_____	_____	_____
6. Jacques Maritain	_____	_____	_____
7. Wolfgang A. Mozart	_____	_____	_____
8. Alfred B. Nohel	_____	_____	_____
9. Diego Rivera	_____	_____	_____
10. Sun Yat-sen	_____	_____	_____
11. Rabindranath Tagore	_____	_____	_____
12. Hideki Tojo	_____	_____	_____
13. Jan Vermeer	_____	_____	_____
14. Frank Lloyd Wright	_____	_____	_____
15. Xanthippe!	_____	_____	_____

Exe,cue 2-2. 1..uo up ulld1 of llw followi11.c 1J1t-t. On tht> bnt', writ
wh,m, it i11. t'or c.,111m1plr,;

Manhattan (N.Y.) 4 d k  a,.tJ/4,   d... 
 £wtl< 224fr:mw:91Vtfc4':    

1. Aachen _____

2. Baguio _____

3. Kalamazoo _____

4. Osaka _____

5. Petra _____

6. Titicaca _____

7. Zuider Zee _____

Eurcw !-19. What is each of the following places in the United States best known for?

1. Alcatraz _____

2. Bunker Hill _____

3. Ellis Island _____



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4. Sutter's Mill _____

5. Madison Avenue _____

MISCELLANEOUS KINDS OF INFORMATION. In addition to what you have already learned, your dictionary includes a variety of other information. The following exercise should acquaint you with some of the maps, pictures, and tables in your dictionary, as well as literary, mythological, and other references.

Miscellaneous Information Exercise

Exercise 2-10

1. Look up the word *knot*.

Does your dictionary picture various kinds of knots? _____

If so, is there a picture of

a figure-eight knot? _____

a square knot? _____

an overhand knot? _____

a Blackwall hitch? _____

2. Does your dictionary include

a diagram of how a siphon works? _____

a picture of a sextant? _____

an illustration of hieroglyphics? _____

pictures of different kinds of vaults? _____

3. Look up the word *tillacure*.

Does your dictionary show a picture? _____

Does it explain specifically how it works? _____

4. Look up the word *skeleton*.

Does your dictionary include an illustration? _____

Is the *tibia* attached to the *patella* or to the sternum? _____

Where is the *clavicle* located? _____

5. Does your dictionary include

a periodic table of elements? _____

a table of weights and measures? _____

6. If your dictionary includes the following kinds of information, write the pages on which each appears.

A list of United States colleges _____

A list of English given names _____

Punctuation rules _____

Forms of address _____

Spelling rules _____

Forms for footnotes and bibliographies _____

Summary Dictionary Exercises

Exercise 2-31

●●pap (Jln1"1wlj), "· 1. com·
munication by voice in the di1tlnce·
lively human manner, u1in1 arbi·
trary, auditory 1ymbol1 In con·
ventional way1 with conventional
mcanin11.zany Ht or 171tem of
such 1ymbol1 a1 u11d In a more or
lets uniform fa1hlon by a number
of people, who are thu1 enabled to
communicate Intell·lbly with one
another. I. the non1n1ul1tlc mean·
o(communication of animal· : ,,, 1-
,,w,g, of bi,d1. 4. communka·

tion of mcan1ns In any way : ,u
/a,tgt111g1 of ftow,,,, 5. 1lnplatica.
I, 1n1truction In one or more lan·
sua·H: IINOMOI1 111#ly, 7, the
speech or phr11eolor, peculiar to
a cla11, profe11lon, etc, I. form or
manner of expre11lon : in 1lu ,,,
,,"0""0". I. 1peech or expre11lon
of a particular character : jowry
IONgNag1. 1D. diction or 1tyl1 of
wrt1n1, [ME, t. OF: m. ,,,,·
1101,, der. 1ONt1N1 tonpe, 1, L
11,,...1

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1. Trace the history of the word *language* from its beginning. Do not use abbreviations.

2. Should the word be divided *language* or *lan,guage*?

3. Which numbered meaning is referred to in the following examples?

- a. "The language of a Hemingway story is simple and

direct.

- b. "Her dark eyes spoke the language of love."

- c. "Her language may be quiet and refined, but her listeners always sit up and take notice."

- d. "Some foreign students tend to use an elaborate, poetic language when writing English."

- e. "The language of bees is a fascinating study."

Exercise 2-32

let (ld), 11.1. [UT or ob., a.rrrm (-id), LETTING], [ME., , , , , AS. l•io]; to leave behind; akin to G. lu,m; IE. base •liit- (<•tli-, to neglect: leave behind, etc.), seen also in L. lo,111,1 (•lhi-lo), tired, worn out, etc. (cf. LALIIITUH), En1. lo1t, losl, de.), 1. to leave: forsake; abandon: now only in phrases *let* oloJtt, /rt ht. 2.o) to give temporary use of (a house, room, etc.) to a tenant in return for rent; rent; hire out. b) to give out (work); allow (a contract). J. to allow or cause to escape: cause to flow or come out, al by 1heddin1, emittin1, de.: 11, /tt blood. 4. 111 allow to pass, come, or go. 5. to allow; f)(rmit: a) followed by an infinitive, often with out to: ••• will you let me 1mokd

b) with the following verb understood: 11, don't let me down. 6. to allow: usually with how, or lfto., aa, /ti me hear from you. 7. to suppose; 111ume; regard al. When used in command or 1u1• 1e1tion1 with a noun or pronoun a• object, /ti serve 11 an au:xiliary: H, /ti u1 1lve 1enerou1l:,, ,,,1. to be rented or leased: al, thi1 place 1rt, for \$150 a month. let alone, 1. to refrain from 110her1111, di1turbln1, touchin1, etc. i not interfere with; have 11oth1111 to do with. 2. not to mention; much less: aa, we couldn't even hold our 1round. 1,1 alnNt advance. let bt, to refrain from botherin,, dl1turhl111, touchln1, (11C,; have 11oth1111 to do with.

From Webster's Ninth, World Dictionary of the American Language, College Edition, Copyright 1968, by the World Publishing Company, Cleveland, Ohio.

let down, 1. to lower. 2. to slow up; **lax**; **slacken**. 3. to **disappoint** or **disillusion**.
 let **drin** at, to strike 1 powerful blow **at**.
 let in, to allow to eotM, **pan**, or flow in; admit.
let off, 1. to **live** forth, aa **1team**.
 2. to excuse f"" work for a short time. 3. to deal leniently with: **le** with llsht punishment or none.
 Jet on (Colloq.), 1. to prdfld.
 2. to **indicate one's** awareness of a fact (111111111 UHd In the Mptift).
 let oat, 1. to allow to **flow**, nan, etc. ...; **rdeue**. 2. to **tiff** forth; emit. 3. to lease or rent out 4. to l'ffGl (a **M.Cttt**, etc.).
S. to make • prment larsu "1 Nlducina (the seams, hem, etc.).
 6. (Colloq.). to **dismiss** or **be dismissed**. .. lChool.

let up, 1. to **lirktn: rtax**. 2. to t'tlM'.
 let up on fColloq.], to **uae** up; atop **dealln1** har,hly or **weverely** with.
IYN.-let may imply **positive** con-Rnt but **more often** 1lre11n the offerln1 of no **oppoailon** or re11i11l• anc., **sometlmu** connotin1 **negli-**,aice, **lack o(** power, etc. (**don't** l,1 this happen qain); allow and permit imply power or authority to **rive** or deny **conlent**, allow connut-in1 a **refrainin1** from the **cntorcc-**ment of **u1ual rcquiremmb** (honor **1tudent1** were t1lltnJNd to **min** the **examination**), and permit **more** positively **1u,r1e1tin1** formal consent or authoriaation (he was ,,,.,,4 to talk to the pri10ne,) ; **suffer**, now lOfflCWhal **nre in** thi1 **smae**. i1 closely synonymous with **allow** and **may connote** pauive **consent** or re• **"luctant tolerance**. See **also** bin.

Identify the idiom and number of the meaning for each of the following idiomatic uses of *let*.

1. At the sight of the mouse, she let out a loud scream.

2. Don't let on that you know her secret.

3. The noise didn't let up until long after midnight.

4. With the football championship almost certain, the players unfortunately Jet up during the last minutes of the game.

5. Because it was the first time the student had ever cheated, the teacher let him off with only a warning.

6. After such an exciting beginning, the end of the movie was a great letdown.

7. He was so drunk that he could hardly stand on his feet, let alone drive home.



8. As **examination** time **approaches**, you **should study** harder; **it is** **certainly** no **time to** let **down**.

9. Every time the boy pushed **open** the door, he let in **more files**.

10. **Because of** the prime minister's visit, the **employees** were **Jet** off an **hour** early.

Eure?

aidName (nik'nim') 1. A familiar form of a proper name, as *Tom* for *Thomas*. 2. A descriptive name given instead of or in addition to the actual name of a person, place, or thing, in acclaim, derision, etc., as *HoN111 Ab*, or *E-/i.., Stal.. ---u.l.* •named. •um• ins I. To give a nickname or to call by a nickname. Z. To misname. [ME'-----' surname, a• rh110., becomin1 a Rici-nain,)

-SYN. (noun) **Nic1tNoMt**, **O1f"O•** "-----", **•t1t1**, and **S"-----"** denote a shortened or descriptive name of a

person or thing. A nickname is usually a shortened or traditional hypocoristic form, as *Beth* for *Elizabeth* or *Dirk* for *Richard*, but it may also be a general term including the meanings of other synonyms. *Agno111tw* is merely the Latin form of *ricobMI*, and is generally to be found in more formal or learned usage. An *t/ithrt* is a descriptive adjective or phrase that serves as a nickname: "the Red" is an epithet in *Eric the Red*. A humorous or elaborate nickname is called a *1obri-qMt'I*: *Hthe Manassa Mauler* was the sobriquet of Jack Dempsey. Compare *PSI:U11IONYN*, *AOONYN*.

By penniaioa horn
Fun1: b Wagnalu S, -..
dan19 Colkp Dictlon-
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Division of Reader"•
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1. Is nickname pronounced with stress on **the Bnt** or the second syllable? _____
2. What period of **English** does **this word come from**? _____

S. What was the earliest form of the word?

4. Where **does** then come from at the beginning of the word?
5. **Does your** dictionary include (**usually** at the back) a list of common English **given names**? If so, **for each** of the **following** masculine names, what is the **proper name**?

Bill _____

Jim _____

Sandy _____

Ned _____

Mickey _____

6. What is the nickname (or diminutive form) for each of the following women's names? (There may be more than one.)

Dorothy _____

Margaret _____

Catherine _____

Virginia _____

Elizabeth _____

7. Think of some common names in your native language. Give the nickname, or diminutive form.

8. On the basis of the examples given in the above definition, decide if each of the following names is a nickname, an agnomen, an epithet, or a sobriquet.

Richard *the Lion-Heart* _____

Honest Abe Lincoln _____

Jacqueline Kennedy Onassis (*Jc,ckie*) _____

Alexander the *Great* _____

Duke of Wellington (*the Iron Duke*) _____

Effl'CUe 2-34

'uill \ˈskit\ [ME dril. fr. ON, distinction, knowled1e: akin to OE .rcylia1t to separate, .rcitll 1hell -more at SHELL] I ob.r: cAusr., HASON 2: the ability to use one's knowledge effectively and rudily in execution or performance : technical xpertnus: PROFICIENCY, DEXT.FJUTY 3: a learned power of doing a thing competently: a dev,loped aptitud, or ability ■:,n see ART
 'skill 1·i. ar.-1,air: to make a difference: MATTER, AVAIL
 skilled\ˈskild\adj 1. havinr skill: EXPERT, SKILLFUL 2: of, relatinr

to, or requirin1 worken or labor with 1kill and tralnir in a particular occupation, craft, or trade <ru labor> ■:,n see PaOFJCI&NT
 aldl •let\ˈ1kil-at\ " lME 1i1111J 1 „,i,ffy Bril: a ,mall kettle or pot usu. havinr three or four often lonr feet and uaed for cookin1 on the hearth 2: a fryinr pan
 ■kill• fal or ull • fal \ ˈ1kil-fat\ adj 1: posseaKd of or displayinr skill: IXPOT <ru debater> 2: accomplished with skill ■:,n see PIIOPICIIINT-aldll • fu) • ly\fa-l-adv-mll•fu)•nn■ 11

By penpi11ion. From w,bn,r', Snenlh Nev, Colkgote DlcelonotJl
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1. Does the word skill come &om Old English or Old Norse?

How was the word spelled in Middle English?


2. What is the obsolete meaning of skillP

3. Under what words in this dictionary could you find synonyms for ,kill?

For skilled?

4. Is the verb to ,kill used in English today?

5. What are two possible spellings of the adjective fonn of skillP

6. What would you guess is the meaning of the symbol —, as in labor>?

7. Is the word ,killtJt, meaning a frying pan, commonly used in the United States?

8. In the definition of skillet, what would you guess the abbreviation uau. means?

Exercise 2-35

heat (hfi), "I, the Blatt of a body pc*⊕*i, *⊕* u havin1 or gentrat-ina a rdalivly hi1h dt'frtt of warmth. 2, the rondition or quality of bein1 : hot : thr lt,"GI flf 011 o,,,,, 3. tht dt1rtt of hotneu; ttmpratu*⊕* : "odrolt latat. 4, the sensation of warmth or hot-nen : Hflleasa*⊕*t ltrat. 5. a bodily tcm1*⊕*ratu*⊕*re hi*⊕*r than normal: tltc ltrat of a ltt,rr: tit, fuli11g of IINJI ca*⊕*S't'd l*⊕*y pliynt'al e,urtio11, 6. added or external entr1y that causes a rise in temperature, expansion, evaporation, or other physical chance. 7. Pltysia. a nonm*⊕*chanical energy transfer with reference to a temperature di ffermce betwcm a system and it11 surroundings or between two pam of the same system. Sylfl*⊕* l>ol: Q L a hot condition of the atmosphere or physical environ-ment; hot season or weather. 9. a period of hot weather. 10. a sh.arp. punKmt ftavor, as that produced by spice11. 11. warmth or ip-tmsity of feeling ; vehemence ; passion : Hr JJ'olu u*⊕*it/s nncr/s /stat tutd al grtat lr11glh. 12. maximum intensity in an activity, condi-tion, etc. ; the hright of any action, tituation, or the like : t1rr htal of battlt': tl,r luat of tassio,r. 13. ex-treme pressure, as of events, rc-sultin1 in tension or strain : /11 thr hral of Iris d,parturr I,*⊕* forgol

his fuys, 14, a 1ln1le Intense ef-fort ; a sustained, concentrated, and ronlinuom operation : Tltt ('ainti" g was ftnishtd al a h,at. 15. Sports. *⊕⊕* 1 sln1le coune in or division of a race or other con-tt1t. b. a racr or othrr contest In which competitors attempt to qualify for entry in the final race or conttsl. 16, a sin1le operation of heat1111, as of metal In a fur-nace, in the treatinr and melting of metals. 17. an indication of high temperature, as by the con-dition or color of aomtthin1. II. Zoal. *⊕⊕* sexual excitement in ani-mals, esp: females. b. the period or duration of such excitement : to bt iK Arat--v.l. 19. to make hot or warm (often fol. by *⊕⊕*), *⊕⊕*. to excite emotionally ; inAame or rouse with passion.--t*⊕*.i. 21. to become hot or warm (often fol. by ufl). *⊕⊕*. to become excited emotionally. ME hctc. OE l,t,IN; akin to G Hitsr: see HOT -heat' a*⊕* ble, adj. -heat'ful, adj. -heat1lea, adj. -heat'like', *adj.* -S:,n. 2. hotness, warmth. ca-loric. 3. caloricity. 11. ardor, fer-vor, zeal, Rush, fever, excite-ment, impetuosity. 12. vehemence, violence, rage, 20. stimulate, warm, stir, animate, excite, rouse. -Ant. 1. coolness. 11. indiffer-ence. 19. cool.

By perm1.11lon. From the Random HOU. Du;-fionaNJ of the Engluh Lanpap, College Edi-tion, copyright 1988 by Random House, Inc., New York.

1. Which numbered definitions refer to the following meanings of heat?
 - a. The heat of Indian curry is too much for my taste. -----
 - b. He won in all three heats. _____
 - c. Keep your dog away while my bitch is in heat. _____
2. What field of study uses Q as a symbol of heat? _____
3. Is it possible to say, "Please heat up the tea?" _____
4. What three synonyms are given for the meaning of *heat* in the sentence, "He spoke with much heat"?



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5. Middle English *hete* and Old English *hmetu* are akin to German *Hitze*. What does *akn* mean?
-

Vocabulary Exercise

Exercise 2-36. The following words have appeared in this chapter. They may or may not be familiar to you. Because they are fairly common words which you will see often, if you are not sure of their meanings, write them in your vocabulary record. See page 72 for directions.

abridged
alternate
archaic
the assumption

colloquial
the context
the derivation
the equivalent

the etymology
fascinating
obsolete

3

Learning the Vocabulary of English

How many English words do you know? This is a fair question, because it is impossible to answer accurately. It is difficult to count the number of words a person knows. One difficulty is in the definition of *word*. Should we consider *be*, *am*, *is*, *are*, *was*, *were* six different words, or *persuade*, *persuasive*, *persuasion* three different words? If a student knows that *spring* is the name of a season, but he doesn't know that it also means "the place where water comes out of the earth," or "to leap," or "a part of a watch," does he know the meaning of *spring*. or only one of several different meanings of the word?

Another difficulty is in the definition of the word *know*. 'What does it mean "to know" a word? A person may recognize the meaning of a particular word when he reads it, but he may never use it in his daily speech or writing. Can he be said to "know" the word?

Many books for foreign students use a vocabulary count. This is a method of controlling the number of words that is used at any level and systematically introducing new words at a certain rate. Thus, at the end of a reading book it may claim, "You now know 1,248 words." This may be encouraging, but the truth of the statement depends upon the definition of *know* and *word*.

The size of one's native language vocabulary reflects his education, reading, and range of interests. There is a very clear relationship between vocabulary size and professional success. To a certain extent, the same is probably true for foreign students of

English. A student's vocabulary will reflect his experience of 'the language'. If he has no contact with English except through his school books, he will know only the words in his books. If he has the chance to meet English-speaking people, or to read English magazines, or to see English motion pictures without

subtitles, he will be able to extend his vocabulary into areas that are not included in his books. Obviously, the more a student hears, speaks, reads, and writes English, the more opportunity he has to increase his vocabulary. As a measure of his interest and experience in English, the relative size of a student's vocabulary is meaningful—even if it cannot be measured accurately.

Learning the use and meaning of words in English can be made easier, and even enjoyable, if you understand something about one way in which many English words are formed.

The stem of a word is its basic form, the fundamental element which is common to all the other forms of the word. A prefix is a form which is fixed to the beginning of a stem; a suffix is a form which is fixed to the end of a stem. For example:

stem = measure
suffix = measurable
prefix = immeasurable

A prefix usually changes the meaning of a word, while a suffix usually changes its part of speech. For example, the suffix -able changes verbs into adjectives (breakable, enjoyable). The prefix im- changes the meaning to the opposite: measurable means "capable of being measured"; *immeasurable* means "not capable of being measured."

The English language makes frequent use of this method of word formation. Notice the numerous words formed on the stem, act.

prefix + act	act + suffix	prefix + act + suffix,
react	action	reaction
enact	active	enactment
reenact	actively	reenactment
interact	actionless	reactor
transact	actable	reactive
	activity	reactivate
	activate	reactivation
	activation	interaction
	actor	transaction
	actress	inactive
		inaction

By learning only a few prefixes and suffixes, you will be able to recognize or guess the meaning of hundreds of English words.

Word Formation

Word Formation Exercises

Exercise 3-1. In the chart below, some of the most common prefixes are listed alphabetically. The meaning of each prefix is given as an *area of meaning* because most often there is no one single specific meaning. In the right-hand column, space has been left for you to record examples of words which use the prefix. Your dictionary will provide examples. Choose those which are familiar or potentially useful to you.

Prefix	Area of meaning	Examples
ante-	before	
anti-	against, opposite	
auto-	self	
bi-	two, twice	
circum-	around	
con-, co- col-, com-	with, together	
de-	down, reversing	
ex-, e-	out, from	
in-	in	
inter-	between, among	
macro-	large	
<i>micro-</i>	small	
mis-	wrong, unfavorable	
mono-	one, alone	
post-	behind, after	
prae-, prim-	first	



Prefix	Area of meaning	Examples
pro-	for, before	
re-	again	
sub-, sup-	under	
trans-	across	
tri-	three	
uni-	one	
un-, Ir-, In-	not	
ultra-	beyond, excessive	

Exercise 3-2. In the chart below, some of the most common suffixes are listed alphabetically. The meaning of each suffix is given as an area of meaning because most often there is no one single specific meaning. In the right-hand column, space has been left for you to record examples of words which use the suffix. Your dictionary will provide examples. Choose those which are familiar or potentially useful to you.

Suffix	Area of meaning	Examples
حاجه- -ible	capable of being	
حاجه- -ence	state, condition, or quality	
-tion -tton	condition, or the act of	
-dom	state, condition, dignity, office	
-ee	the object or receiver of action	

Prefix	Area of meaning	Examples
-en	pertaining to, of the nature of	
-er	the one who . . .	
-ful	full of, or characterized by	
-ic -ical	pertaining to	
-ious	full of, of the nature of	
-ize	to make like or affect with	
-ish	to form adjectives from nouns; belonging to, like	
-ism -ist	action or practice, state or condition	
-less	without, loose from	
-ly	like	
-ness	state, condition, quality	
-ship	condition, skill, character, office	

In the preceding exercise you have learned a number of the most common suffixes in English. Notice that a suffix usually frequently tell the part of speech by its form, in contrast to changes a word from one part of speech to another. You can

eq
another form of the same word. For example, imagine (verb), ,magnation (noun), imaginative (adjective), and imaginatively (adverb). We do not have to know the meaning of this word in order to recognize these parts of speech. In the nonsense

Changing Parts
Of Speech

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sentence, *Tashism vipped prodoption bortly*, we can be fairly sure what part of speech each word is. We do not know this because the nouns are names of persons, places, or things, or because the verb describes an action or state of being. We have no idea of the meaning of these words. But we do recognize characteristic forms: -ism and -tion as noun endings, -ed as a verb ending, -ly as an adverb ending,

You can improve your vocabulary by learning some of these common suffixes and how they change words from one part of speech to another.

Parts of Speech Exercises

Exercise 1 . Making OffW into noun,. Here are some common suffixes that change verbs into nouns. Fill in the blanks. Check your dictionary if you are not sure of the spelling.

-al	to arrive	the arrival	to refuse	_____
	to deny	the denial	to dismiss	_____
	to propose	_____	to approve	_____
-ure	to depart	the departure	to erase	_____
	to fail	the failure	to enclose	_____
	to press	_____	to legislate	_____
-y	to deliver	the delivery	to inquire	_____
	to arm	the army	to interfere	_____
	to flatter	_____	to recover	_____
-ment	to agree	the agreement	to punish	_____
	to pay	the payment	to employ	_____
	to govern	_____	to argue	_____

-ance -ence	to annoy	the annoyance	to exist	_____
	to refer	the reference	to perform	_____
	to attend	_____	to prefer	_____
	to accept	_____	to disturb	_____
-ation	to consider	the consideration	to admire	_____
	to inform	the information	to declare	_____
	to combine	the combination	to examine	_____
	to resign	_____	to prepare	_____
-sion	to confuse	the confusion	to impress	_____
	to decide	the decision	to revise	_____
	to divide	_____	to profess	_____
-er -or	to teach	the teacher	to paint	_____
	to direct	the director	to govern	_____
	to manage	_____	to employ	_____

Exercise 3-4. Making adjectives into nouns. Here are some common suffixes that change adjectives into nouns. Fill in the blanks. Check your dictionary if you are not sure of the spelling.

-ness	kind	the kindness	pleasant	_____
	quiet	the quietness	useful	_____
	happy	_____	sleepy	_____



-ity	active	the activity	real	_____
	curious	the curiosity	mobile	_____
	stupid	_____	tranquii	_____
-ism	ideal	the idealism	1mpeh	_____
	colonial	the colonialism	rnnJFPvAtivP.	_____
	human	_____	favorite	_____

Exercise 3-5. Making noun into adjectives. Here are some common suffixes that change nouns into adjectives. Fill in the blanks. Check your dictionary if you are not sure of the spelling.

-ish	the fool	foolish	the self	_____
	the child	_____	the sheep	_____
-y	the cloud	cloudy	the dirt	_____
	the wealth	wealthy	the guilt	_____
	the fun	_____	the mess	_____
-ly	the friend	friendly	the order	_____
	the cost	costly	the man	_____
	the month	_____	the time	_____
-al	the person	personal	the accident	_____
	the universe	universal	the region	_____
	the cause	_____	the brute	_____

-ous	the danger	dangerous	the nerve	_____
	the mystery	mysterious	the poison	_____
	the fame	_____	the victory	_____
-y	the moment	momentary	the compliment	_____
	the custom	customary	the revolution	_____
	the fragment	_____	the honor	_____
-like	the life	lifelike	the lady	_____
	the child	_____	the war	_____
-ic	the history	historic	the photograph	_____
	the artist	artistic	the rhythm	_____
	the athlete	_____	the base	_____
-less	the power	powerless	the use	_____
	the home	homeless	the fault	_____
	the age	_____	the worth	_____
-ful	the power	powerful	the delight	_____
	the skill	skillful	the success	_____
	the faith	_____	the beauty	_____

Exercise 3-6. Making **verb, Into adjectives**. Here are some common suffixes that change verbs into adjectives, Fill in the blanks, Check your dictionary if you are not sure of the spelling.

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-ive	to create	creative	to possess	_____
	to attract	attractive	to instruct	_____
	to select	_____	to prevent	_____
-ent -ant	to excel	excellent	to please	_____
	to confide	confident	to depend	_____
	to urge	_____		
-able -ible	to pay	payable	to perh,h	_____
	to agree	agreeable	to force	_____
	to remark	_____	to sense	_____

Exercise 3-7. Making adjectives into adverbs. Here is the most common suffix that changes adjectives into adverbs. Fill in the blanks. Check your dictionary if you are not sure of the spelling.

...	noisy	noisily	social	_____
	private	privately	confident	_____
	recent	_____	final	_____
	euy	_____	doubtful	_____

Exercise U. Making nouns and adjectives into verbs. Here is a common way of changing nouns and adjectives into verbs. Fill in the blanks. Check your dictionary if you are not sure of the spelling.

-ize	real	to realize	civil	_____
	author	to authorize	immortal	_____
	familiar	to familiarize	organ	_____
	legal	_____	critic	_____
	social	_____	computer	_____

Word Forms Exercise

Exercise 3-9. Summary of word forms. In the table below, fill in the blanks with the correct form of the word. The first is done as an example. If you are not sure of the correct form, check your dictionary.

Noun	Verb	Adjective	Adverb
imagination	imagine	imaginative	imaginatively
	complete		
		convincing	
excellence			
			satisfactorily
	exceed		
		repeated	
consideration			
	succeed		
			comparatively
		separate	



Noun	Verb	Adjective	Adverb
	persuade		
			decisively

One familiar way to change a verb into an adjective is to use the present participle (the *-ing* ending) or the past participle (the *-ed* ending). For example:

"Your idea surprises me. It is a *surprising* idea," she said with a *surprised* tone of voice.



Present and Past Participles as Adjectives

Students sometimes confuse these two forms. One student, for example, once said that he was *boring* in the English class. He meant, of course, that he was *bored*.

"He was a boring student" means that he caused others to be bored.

"He was a bored student" means that others caused him to be bored.

Exercise 3-10. Fill in the blank with the correct adjective form of the italicized verb. For example:

The professor did not mean *to bore* the class. However, his lecture was very . The whole class was *surprised* .

1. The teacher hoped *to interest* his students in English grammar.

His explanations were so _____ that all the students were _____.

2. Bob Hope is paid a high salary *to amuse* people. His audience is always _____ by his _____ jokes.

3. The Boy Scout leader had not intended *to tire* the boys. The mountain was so high, however, that the climb was *very* _____.

_____ When they reached the top, all the boys were very _____.

4. The lawyer tried *to* convince the jury. He gave many
 ----- reasons. The jury was finally -----
5. John decided *to* frighten his younger brother, Jimmy. He put
 on a horrid looking mask that was so -----
 that Jimmy was ----- and cried all night.

Prefixes and suffixes are added to word stems. Sometimes a word stem can be used by itself, such as the word *act* or *form*. Most often a word stem can be used only in combination with a prefix or a suffix. For example, the word stem *diet* has a root meaning of "to say or to speak," but it is never used alone. Prefixes can be used before the stem (predict, contradict), or suffixes added after the stem (diction, dictator). Most word stems in English come from Latin and Greek. If you learn the most common of these, you will be able to analyze the meaning of many words without having to look them up in a dictionary.

Word Stems

Word Stem Exercises

Exercise 3-11. In the chart below, some of the most common word stems are listed alphabetically. The meaning of the stem is given as an *area* of meaning because most often there is no one single specific meaning. In the right-hand column, space has been left for you to record examples of words which are built upon the stem.

Word stem	Area of meaning	Examples
anthro	man, mankind	
auto	self	
bibli	book	
chrome	color	

chron time

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Word stem	Area of meaning	Examples
COlffl	order, world	
c:yd	wheel, circle	
die. diet	say, speak	
duc,duct	lead	
tac, tact. feet	do, make	
form	fonn, shape	
fort	strong	
geo	earth	
gram, graph	write, writing	
hetero	other, different	
homo	same	
lol,loc,	speech, word, study	
man, manu	hand	
mat•, matri	mother	
medi	middle	
mit, mia	send	
multi	many	
nomen, nym	نم	
omni	all	

Worā ,t.m	Art.t of mē1n1rw	EKamples
pan	al◊ entire	
pater, patri	father	
pathy	feeling, suffering	
phil	like love	
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	
vene. vent	come, go	
vert, ver1	tum	
VOE, vole	call	
volve, volu	roll, turn	

تج Udng an EngUm Dfc&narr,

ESffeiae 3-JJ. Analyze each of the italicized words. U1e your dJctkmary.
Write answen on the lines provided.

1. -dɛ- dæl

a. What does the conductor of an orchestra literally do?

b. What is inductive reasoning?

c. What is an aqueduct used for?

d. Is the word dulcs related to this stem?

2. -die-, -dict-

a. What is a prediction?

b. How is dictator related to this stem?

c. What is an edict?

d. What is a contradiction?

3. -form-

a. What is a transformation?

b. Is formula related to this stem?

c. What does formulate mean?

d. What does *conform* mean?

4. -fort-

a. What does fortitude mean?

b. Is *comfort* related to this stem?

c. What is the meaning of *fortify*?

d. Is *fortune* related to this stem?

5. -medf.

a. What is a *nutrient*?

b. What are the elements of the word *Mediterranean*?

c. Is medicine related to this stem?

d. What is the meaning of *mediocre*?

6. -man-, -manu-

a. What is *manual* labor?

b. What are the elements of *manufacture*?

How has the meaning changed?

c. What is a *maneuver*?

d. Is *maneuver* related to this stem?

7. *tract*

a. What is a *tractor*?

b. Give an example of an *extract*.

c. What is the opposite of *contract*?

d. What does a *contractor* literally do?

8. *Yoke*

a. What is a *yoke*?



b. What is the meaning of evoke?

c. What is a provocative idea?

d. Is vocabulary related to this term?

Exercise 3-13. Using all you know about prefixes, suffixes, and word stems, first guess the meaning of each of the italicized words. Circle the letter of the best answer. Next use your dictionary to check your answer. Then on the lines at the right, write an original sentence that uses the italicized word correctly.

1. Anthropology is the study of

- A animals
- B man
- C apes
- D disease

2. The meeting *convened* early.

- A commenced
- B broke up
- C came together
- D voted

3. to retract a statement

- A produce
- B disbelieve
- C admit
- D withdraw

4. He was *deported*.

- A sent out of the country
- B carried to bed
- C dropped out of school
- D invited to come

5. a bibliographfl for a course

- A library requirements
- B outline
- C list of books
- D written assignments

6. events told in chronological order

- A colorful
- B time
- C confusing
- D realistic

7. He U a bibliophile.

- A lover of books
- B author
- C book publsher
- D librarian

8. Sbabspeare and Queen Elizabeth I were contnnporarlea.

- A they lived In the 1ame country
- B they were friend,



- C they disliked each other
- D they lived at the same time
9. The *consequences* of an act are those which
- A cause it
- B complete it
- C are unimportant
- D come after it
10. A philologist is one who
- A studies mankind
- B enjoys words
- C loves wisdom
- D speaks correctly
11. Cosmology is the study of
- A the geography of the earth
- B skin and beauty treatments
- C the universe
- D rock formations
12. A sophisticated person is
- A worldly-wise
- B educated
- C silly, foolish
- D philosophical

13. The UN was asked to *interoene*.

- A to solve the problem
- B to come between the two sides
- C to supply food and clothing
- D to choose between the two sides

14. He collects *autographs*.

- A automobile pictures
- B personal signatures
- C charts and maps
- D handwritten books

15. a *matriarch* in the family

- A a marriage ceremony
- B the father's death
- C a strong mother
- D a financial problem

There are three possible ways to learn the meaning of an unfamiliar word. One way is to interrupt your reading immediately and look up the word in a dictionary. This is the safest way. It should probably be used, however, only if the following two ways are impossible.

Using what you know of word stems and word formation, you can make an intelligent guess nt the meaning of a new word. Frequently this will he sufficient if *you* are reading fiction and do not have to understand a precise or technical meaning. For example, suppose that you read the following passage in a short story:

Guessing Meanings from Context

It wu incomprehensible to Mr. Butterfield why his wife could never foresee the consequences of her extravagant talk.

There are several words you might not know: *incomprehensible*, *foresee*, *consequences*, *extravagant*. You might stop at the first new word, *incomprehensible*, look it up in a dictionary, write its meaning in the book or your vocabulary record, then start reading the sentence again, stop at *foresee*, look it up, write it down, then read again, stop at *consequence*, and so on. But this would be tiring and time-consuming. It would also seriously interrupt your understanding and pleasure of the story. Instead you might analyze the new words and guess at their meaning. For example, you probably know that *comprehension* means "understanding"; the *-ible* suffix forms an adjective; the *in-* prefix makes the word negative. *Incomprehensible* probably means "not understandable." You have seen the *fore* of *foresee* in such words as *foreword* or *before*. *Foresee* must mean something like "to see before." If you know that the stem *-sequ-* has a general meaning of "follow" (as in *sequence*) and *con-* means "together" or "close," you can make a fairly good guess at the meaning of *consequences*. Even without knowing the meaning of the stem of *extravagant*, you know that *extra* means "more than necessary"; apparently Mrs. Butterfield talks too much.

Of course this analytical approach to the meaning of words is limited and cannot be used with all words. Also, it may occasionally lead you into mistakes. An *invaluable* thing, for example, is not something of no value; it means the thing has so much value that it cannot be figured; it is priceless. Very often, however, you can analyze the meaning of words with a good degree of confidence. Word stems, prefixes, and suffixes are like master keys. A few of them will open the doors to many meanings. Practice using what words you already know to help you learn the words that you do not know.

Another way of guessing the meaning of a word is by looking carefully at its context. Words have meaning in relation to other words and the situation in which they are used. In the sentence, "He was haughty," there is no way to guess the meaning of *haughty*. It could mean proud, sick, happy, unintelligent—any number of meanings. "He had a haughty manner" gives you a bit more information; you now know that the word refers to his personal behavior. "His haughty manner irritated people" informs you that haughty behavior is apparently not admirable. Suppose the sentence were "His haughty manner of continually talking about himself and his accomplishments irritated even his friends." You now have enough information to guess that *haughty* must mean something like "proud" or "boastful." This definition is sufficiently precise for the purpose of general reading comprehension.

Context Exercise

3.14. This exercise will help to direct your attention to the kind of Information that a context may give you. In each exercise there are three sentences, each one adding a little more information. Each sentence has three possible definitions of the italicized word. On the basis of the information in the sentence, decide if the definition is improbable, possible, or probable. Write one of these words on the line for each definition. The first exercise is done for you as an example. The explanation appears in the right-hand column.

We had a whoods.

a tropical fish

an egg beater

a leather suitcase

fish _____

beater _____

suitcase _____

There is not enough information in the context. All three are possible definitions.

We had a whotm,, but the handle broke.

a tropical fish

an egg beater

a leather suitcase

fish _____

beater _____

suitcase _____

The additional Information about the handle makes a tropical fish improbable. Since egg **beaters** and suitcases have handles, they are

still possible.

We had a wlaoo,u, but the handle broke, so we had to beat the eggs with a fork.

a tropical fish

an egg beater

a **leather** suitcase

fish _____

beater _____

suitcase _____

A tropical fish is still improbable. Because a suitcase is not normally used to beat eggs, this now is also improbable. "An egg beater" is the most probable definition.



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1. She had a *lesion*.

an injury or wound

a bracelet, usually of gold

a headache

She had a *lesion* on her arm.

an injury or wound

a bracelet, usually of gold

a headache

She had a *lesion* on her arm that would not stop bleeding.

an injury or wound

a bracelet, usually of gold

a headache

2. He was a prestidigitator.

a singer

a lawyer

a magician

He was a prestidigitator who entertained the children.

a singer

a lawyer

a magician

He was a prestidigitator who entertained the children by pulling rabbits out of his hat, swallowing fire, and other similar tricks.

a singer

a lawyer

a magician

S. Mr. Brown ran into a *pedenrlan*.

a white, Ruffy cloud

a person who is walking

a large truck

Mr. Brown ran into a pedestrian with his car.

a white, fluffy cloud

a person who is walking

a large truck

Mr. Brown ran into a pededrlan with his car when it got out of control and drove onto the sidewalk.

a white, fluffy cloud

a person who is walking

a large truck

4. The boy always *prevarir,a,tet*.

ate a lot

lied

cried

The boy always 'P'evoricated when he was caught in the act of cheating.

ate a lot

lied

cried

The boy always prevaricated when he wu caught in the act of cheating and didn't want the truth to be known.

ate a lot

lied

cried



5. We offered our *condolenc*

congratulations

sympathy

advice

We offered our *condolenc* to the unhappy woman.

congratulations

sympathy

advice

We offered our condolence, to the unhappy woman when her husband died.

congratulations

sympathy

advice

Exercise 3-15. Context will often provide clues to meaning. In each of the following exercises, one word has been replaced by •••••. Read the context, then guess which of the four choices probably defines the word that has been omitted. Circle the letter.

1. The night was so ••••• that not a sound could be heard.

A quiet

C dark

B beautiful

D dangerous

2. Although Alice had expected her parent, to be worried by her long, unexplained absence, both her mother and father seemed quite •••••.

A unavailable

C unworried

B undecided

D unexpected

3. His ••••• handwriting resulted from haste and carelessness rather than from the inability to form the letters correctly.

- A careful
- B unreadable
- C beautiful
- D silent
4. When the letter from his wife arrived, he ••••• the contents carefully. Because she hadn't answered his question, he was angry and tossed the letter into the fire.
- A destroyed
- B wrote
- C tore up
- D read
5. After so many nights of •••••, Mrs. Constable decided that she really must see a doctor. She could not continue to lie awake, night after night, worrying about her health.
- A parties
- B frightening dreams
- C sleeplessness
- D loneliness

Word Meaning Exercise

Ezercue 3-16. In the following passages, try to guess the meaning of the italicuud word. Use all the clues that the context provides. After you have circled the letter of the best definition, check your dictionary to see if you have guessed correctly.

1. The ruler had been so cruel and dishonest that after the revolution he was bantshed. A few members of the Senate opposed this decision, but the majority voted that the ruler should leave the country forever.
- A killed by stoning C imprisoned, jailed
B sent away, exiled D punished by whipping
2. The prisoner seemed to relax, but actually he was thinking about the possibility of escape. His eyes stared straight ahead, while his hand moved so slowly that the movement was imperceptible. It was only when the keys accidentally fell from the table that the guard suddenly realized that the prisoner's hand had almost reached them.
- A hardly noticeable C not capable of fast or immediate action
B heavy-handed D a matter of habit



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3. Mr. Morgan's wife was beautiful and faithful but her continual *extravagance* made him wonder if he could really afford such a luxury. Each month he was going deeper into debt, attempting to pay for her expensive purchases.

A superior manner

C showing too great concern

for current fashions

B wastefulness or carelessness in spending money

D insult to family or close friends

4. Everyone else was too afraid to move. Jason, however, the only *intrepid* one of the men, showed his bravery by quickly leaping forward to struggle barehanded with the beast.

A frightened

C thoughtful

B masculine

D fearless

5. Although the pleasures of the trip were many—for example, the unbearable heat, the lack of water, the possibility of getting lost, the presence of wild animals and poisonous snakes—Colin nevertheless decided that he must go.

A pleasures

C danger,

B conveniences

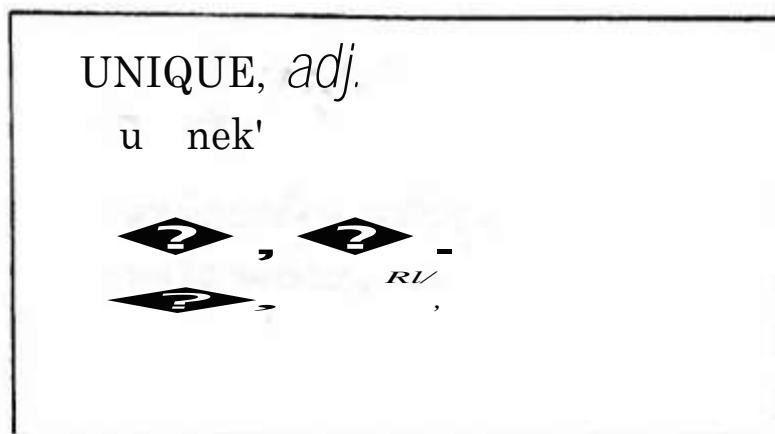
D equipment

If you really want to increase your vocabulary, you will need some system of recording new words and their meanings. You will also have to review the new words regularly. There are three ways:

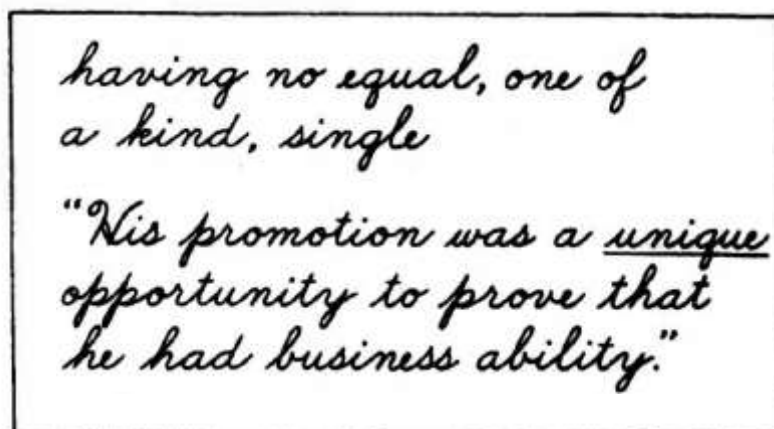
Recording the Meaning of Words

- 1 Write the new word on any convenient scrap of paper. This is not recommended. You will either lose the paper or have untidy piles of paper scattered in various places.
- 2 The best method is to use file cards. This is also the most difficult method because it requires continuous neatness and order. Follow these directions
 - a. Use a pack 3- by 5-inch file cards (either lined or unlined). These can be purchased at any stationery store or college book store
 - b. Write each new word you want to learn on a separate card. For filing purposes, the word should be printed neatly in large letters in upper left-hand corner of the card.

- c. On the same side of the card, copy from your dictionary the word's pronunciation, including stress marks. Also copy and label other parts of speech of the word. For example:



- d. On the opposite side of the card, write the definition (in English). Then write the sentence in which you read or heard the word. For example:



- e. Arrange your cards in alphabetical order.
 f. Review regularly. Look at the word side of each card. Pronounce the word. Write its meaning to yourself, in English. Turn the card over to check if you are right. If so, recall the sentence. Try to think of another sentence or situation in which the same meaning might be used.
 g. If you do not remember the correct meaning of the word, put a small check mark on the word side of the card. Do this each time you do not know the meaning. This check reminds you that you must make an extra effort to learn this word.
 h. As you add new words to your vocabulary record, regularly review the old ones. After 11 weeks, review all.

the cards with the words that you remember correctly each time. Keep reviewing and practicing those words that you have had to check.

- S. Another method is to use a notebook. It helps to rule the page into three columns, the widest being at the right.
- In the left column, print the word neatly. Copy from your dictionary the pronunciation, including stress marks. Also copy and label other parts of speech.
 - In the middle column, write the definition (in English).
 - In the right column, write the sentence in which you read or heard the word. For example:

<p>UNIQUE,</p> <p>■</p> <p>u- nek'</p> <p>adA,,,</p> <p>AZ,,,</p>	<p>nAY</p> <p>Ia,</p>	<p>wtU,a,</p> <p>Ak</p>
---	-----------------------	-------------------------

- You may wish to arrange words in a roughly alphabetical way, so that each page includes only words that begin with the same letter. Or you may wish to group words according to the subject in which they are commonly used. Thus, your notebook might include special sections for the vocabulary of history, physics, philosophy, biology, economics--whatever courses you are studying in English.
- Review regularly. Cover the definitions and sentences with a piece of paper. Look only at the word at the left. Pronounce it. Define it in English. Slide the paper over so that the definition can be seen. If you are right, uncover and read the sentence. Think of other sentences or situations in which the same meaning might be used.
- If you do not remember the correct meaning of the word, put a small check mark next to the word in the left column. Do this each time you do not know the meaning. This check reminds you that you must make an extra effort to learn this word.

Notice that either one of these recommended methods requires

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you to be serious and orderly. Learning vocabulary is a responsibility that no one but yourself can handle. The little time that it takes to keep your vocabulary record neat and up to date will be very worthwhile. If you do this, you will be grateful to yourself in the future.

Here are some suggestions for fixing a word and its meaning firmly in your mind.

1. When you look up a word in your dictionary, then copy it onto a card or into your notebook, notice the spelling carefully. Check to make sure that you have copied the spelling correctly. Spell it aloud. If the word has an unusual spelling, write it several times. Underline the unexpected spelling (for example: audacious, description, business).
2. As you copy the pronunciation of the word, pronounce it aloud. Be sure you use the correct stress. Compare the pronunciation of the word with its spelling.
3. Look at other forms of the word that your dictionary lists. If it is a verb, is the past tense regular? Does the spelling double any letters when -ed is added? If it is a noun, is the plural form regular? What is the adjective form? Are the comparative and superlative forms unusual? Notice their spelling. Is there an adverb form?
4. Notice the context in which you have read or heard the word. What part of speech is the word? Which definition in your dictionary seems to fit the context? Does the sentence make sense with the meaning you have selected?
5. Copy the original definition that best fits the meaning of the context. Do not worry about all the other possible meanings.
6. Make up or copy a defining sentence, either from the book in which you found the word, or from your dictionary. Repeat the sentence to yourself as you write it. Underline the new word. Again note its pronunciation and spelling.
7. It may help fix the word in your memory if you look at the etymology of the word. Take a moment to see if there is a root that is familiar to you in other words.
8. Review your vocabulary record regularly. Set aside five minutes of your study time to go through 25 words. More important, try to use the new word when you speak and write. This helps you move it from your passive to your active vocabulary. You will also learn if you are using it correctly. Do not be afraid to make mistakes. Correction will help fix the meaning in your memory.

Fixing the Meaning of Words

Vocabulary Exercise

Exercise 3-11. The following words have appeared in this chapter. (Except for some words from Exercises 3-12 to 3-14 and 3-16, words from the exercises are not included.) They may or may not be familiar to you. Because they are fairly common words which you will see often, if you are not sure of their meanings, write them in your vocabulary record. Follow the directions on page 72.

the anthropology
chronological
the clue
the condolences
the consequence
the contradiction
to convene
to deport
the edict
to extract
extravagant
the fiction

to foresee
to formulate
the fortitude
fundamental
haughty
the hazard
imperceptible
intrepid
to maneuver
the matriarch
the mediator

mediocre
the pedestrian
potentially
precise
the prediction
provocative
to retract
sufficient
to transform
unique
the location

Writing an Outline

Outlining is a useful skill to learn because it can be used in both your reading and your writing. In this chapter we will consider what an outline is and what it can be used for. We will then look at the form of two types of outlines. There will then be the chance to practice writing each type. In the following chapter on note-making, you will have additional practice in writing outlines of what you hear or read.

Basically, an outline is an organized list of related items or ideas. It is a method of grouping together things that are similar in some selected way, then presenting them in a simplified manner that clearly illustrates the relationship within each group and among all of the groups. For example, we can organize the following English first names into two groups: men's names and women's names.

What an Outline Is

Men's names

John
William
Richard

Women's names

Mary
Betty
Jane

Preparing an outline is essentially a problem of classifying and organizing. It is necessary to understand in what ways objects, facts, or ideas are related to each other.

An outline is useful in both reading and writing. Because writing in language that is intended to be read, reading and writing are different ends of the same communication process. If a writer has used an outline to help him organize his writing clearly, his reader should be able to analyze its organization clearly by outlining it. In other words, an outline is useful in planning the organization of writing. An outline is also useful in uncovering the organization of writing. The writer puts flesh on the skeleton of his outline. The reader removes the flesh to see the skeleton underneath.

What an Outline Is for

For example, suppose your English teacher assigns a composition about traffic in the capital of your country. As you think about the topic, you decide that there are three main causes. You jot them down like this:

Traffic is a problem because
too many cars
narrow streets
drivers don't obey regulations

Now you develop these ideas and write the following paragraph:

Traffic has recently become a serious problem in the capital of my country. There are three reasons. First, the number of automobiles has doubled in the past five years, with the result that there are more cars than the streets can accommodate. Second, the streets are old and narrow. Because there are few garages or parking lots, these narrow streets are made more narrow by the cars that are parked along the side. Third, many drivers do not obey the regulations, so that many traffic jams result from cars going the wrong way on a one-way street.

When the reader reads your paragraph, if he wishes he can make an outline of its organization. His outline might look something like this:

Traffic problem: three causes
1. many cars
2. narrow streets, made more narrow by parking
3. many drivers do not obey regulations

From this example, you can see that an outline has two purposes: (1) in writing, to organize and present your ideas effectively, and (2) in reading, to analyze the organization and relationship of ideas.

An outline is usually written in one of two forms, depending on its purpose and its subject: (1) a topic outline, or (2) a sentence outline. Both have certain similarities which should be understood and used.

How an Outline Is Written

THE TOPIC OUTLINE. Here is an example of a topic outline. Compare the outline at the right with the simple list at the left.

The Plays of Shakespeare

Macbeth
 Titus, Comedy of Errors,
 Othello
 Henry V
 The Merchant of Venice
 Romeo and Juliet
 Love's Labor's Lost
 Richard II
 Henry IV. Part I
 Hamlet

The Plays of Shakespeare

- I. Tragedies
 - A. Macbeth
 - B. Othello
 - C. Romeo and Juliet
 - D. Hamlet
- II. Comedies
 - A. The Comedy of Errors
 - B. Love's Labor's Lost
 - C. The Merchant of Venice
- III. Histories
 - A. Richard III
 - B. Henry IV, Part I
 - C. Henry V

The list at the left includes the same titles of plays as the list at the right. But there is no organization in the list at the left. The plays are not listed in any meaningful way. At the right the titles have been outlined. They have been grouped according to similar characteristics under three main headings: tragedies, comedies, and histories. This kind of organization is helpful in making the distinctions clear and in focusing on one particular distinction at a time.

Here is another example of a topic outline:

The Purpose of Study Skills

- I. To introduce students to proper attitudes toward their studies
 - A. Attitude toward English
 - 1. Reasons for studying English
 - 2. Study habits in English
 - B. Attitude toward other subjects
 - 1. The importance of motivation
 - 2. The need for concentration
 - 3. The problem of distractions
- II. To instruct and to provide practice in study skills
 - A. Using a dictionary
 - B. Learning vocabulary
 - C. Outlining
 - D. Note-making
 - E. Using a library
 - F. Preparing for examinations

This outline is also a listing, divided into two main topics: I. to introduce students to proper attitudes, and II. to instruct and

8D Writing an *Outline*

provide practice. Notice that the grammatical form of each topic is parallel. This means that it is expressed by a similar grammatical structure. Roman numerals I and II use infinitives: to introduce, to instruct, to provide. Under II, each of the subtopics uses a participle form: using, learning, outlining, and so on.

Compare the following topic outlines. The example at the right is a good topic outline. The example at the left is a poor topic outline. The latter is poor because it is confused; the main topics are not of equal importance, or rank.

The Kind of English Books I Enjoy Reading

- I. Fiction
 - A. Historical novels
 - B. Spy stories
- II. Love stories
- III. Nonfiction
 - A. Books about great inventors
 - B. Biographies
- IV. Books about military heroes
- V. Science and space exploration

The Kind of English Books I Enjoy Reading

- I. Fiction
 - A. Historical novels
 - B. Spy stories
 - C. Love stories
- II. Nonfiction
 - A. Biographies
 - 1. Great inventors
 - 2. Military heroes
 - B. Science and space exploration

These three examples are topic outlines. They are a listing of topics, arranged according to some useful and logical organization. It is usual to begin each topic with a capital letter. Because they are topics rather than sentences, it is not necessary to use a period at the end of each topic. Each topic of the same rank should be expressed in the same grammatical form. Each topic of the same rank should be indented the same distance from the margin, and it also should follow the same system of numbers or letters.

THE SENTENCE OUTLINE. The form of a sentence outline is the same as that of a topic outline. The same system of indenting, numbering, and lettering is used. The only difference is that each idea is expressed and punctuated as a complete sentence. A sentence outline is usually more detailed, and it indicates more clearly the structure and organization. For this purpose, the sentences should be short and to the point. Here is an example of a sentence outline:

Forpttng

- I. Why doe1 forptUng occurP
 - A. Forgettng OC.'t'un becaue of df111e.
 1. Materfni thot 11 not 111NI I'll J100n forgottffl.
 2. Thi1 11 nn old and no Jongc.r <'Olllpletcly accepted tbc.aory.
 - B. Forgetting occun because of Interference.
 1. If you IParn A, thcu leum B, wbeu yon try ton-call A, B interferes.
 2. Thl" learning of A Intl'rfl"l'l' wftth tlw Inamfng ttf 8.
 3. Sleep provides a minimum amount of forgetting.
- II. HO\ can forgetting be ovl"1TOMc?
 - A. latmol should be mc-aningfni and W'll cnwanl.ed.
 1. It is more difficult to ml'lDo nc>rn1clUC.' words than meanfngfni wonls.
 2. Material should be stnacturcd 1111d organized in some meaningful way.
 - B. Material should he o,creamcd.
 1. If you have Irank"d A ,',-ly well, and B only half u well, A will be recalled more easily than B.
 2. Do not be satisfic.-d wftth only 011c l'Olllpletr. cm1ect learnng. Repeat the material over and over again.
 - C. Material should be sym"llatically revle\fd.


SUMMABY. Now that you have seen examples of topic and sentence outlines, we can look more closely at their form. Fint, notice that an outline umally 1tart1 with the largest or most Important idea and then progrear down to smaller or Jeu important idcu. To indicate the comparative bnportance of Idea, numben and lettmi are **med**. For eumple:

- I. 11111111111111111111111111111111,rmxmsmnx
 - A. YDUU'J'DrmDXIIIXXXX.UXXXXXXX:UX
 - J, IIXIUXXDIIXXXXDJIXDXXXXXXXXU
 - UllliiDIIIIIXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXDXD
- II. JmJcrz:KDJrXJCSJCCIXDXDJCIIXUUXXUSXI
 - A. SDIDIIXII#IX#...UAmmmuuu
 - }, XUll&i:liDbaDXXXXXXXXXXUXDU
 - a, UIXIXDIIXXXXXXX.UXXXDXXD
 - b, JEDIIUIUXIXXIXXXIXDXUU
 - (I) xxm.uxxxuxxxxxxxuu
 - (I) **umuuuxmxxxxxux**
 - I, ullliIXIDDIDXXXXIUIXDDDX

Second, notice how each heading is indented. Headings of equal rank are indented an equal distance from the margin. Third, notice I.I. above. If a heading runs from one line to the next, it is indented so that it starts directly below the 8th word of the preceding line. The purpose of indentation is to make each heading stand out clearly, so that you can see it quickly and see how it is related to what is before and after it. Fourth, notice that no punctuation is needed at the end of the topics in a topic outline. Punctuation in a sentence outline follows regular sentence practice. Finally, notice that periods are used after numbers and letters. For fifth and lower rank, parentheses are used instead of a period.

Outline Exercises

Exercise 4-J. In each row below, three words are related to each other; one word is not. Circle the one word that is not related to the others. On the line at the right, briefly explain how the three words are related. Use your dictionary if necessary. The first has been done for you as an example.

1. red	blue	yellow	e >	—  4 —
2. adverb	noun	comma	adjective	_____
3. morning	year	noon	night	_____
4. piano	violin	orchestra	oboe	_____
5. second	five	three	six	_____
6. minutes	clock	hour	seconds	_____
7. English	Arabic	Italy	French	_____
8. Saturn	Venus	Radium	Mars	_____
9. Washington	Kennedy	Lincoln	Churchill	_____
10. Shakespeare	Hemingway	Dickens	Wordsworth	_____

Exercise 4-J. Organize the following foods into three main groups. Each group should include only those foods which are similar to each other. Write on the lines.

beef	potatoes	mutton	apples	oranges	lamb
peaches	spinach	bananas	beets	pork	carrots

Meat	Vegetables
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

En,ciN 4-3. At the left below are the names of languages, in alphabetical order, that belong to the large Indo-European family of languages. This family is subdivided into smaller families on the basis of relationships of sounds, grammar, and vocabulary. Use your dictionary and outline these languages by writing their names in the outline form at the right. Write the proper roman numerals and capital letters. The outline has been started as an example for you.

	<u>I.</u>	<u>Altmuz/TUC</u>
Bengali	<u>A.</u>	<u>Dutch</u>
Czech	_____	_____
Dutch	_____	_____
English	_____	_____
French	_____	<u>Romance</u>
German	_____	_____
Gujarati	_____	_____
Hindi	_____	_____
Pashto	_____	_____
Persian	_____	<u>Slavic</u>
Polish	_____	_____



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Portuguese

Rumanian

Russian

Spanish

Swedish

_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____ <i>Indic</i> _____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____ <i>Iranian</i> _____
_____	_____
_____	_____

Eurciw 4-4. Below is a list of sentences in random order about the wonders of Hawaii. First, read all of the sentences. Look for the best way in which they might be organized in outline form. Then, on the opposite page, copy each sentence onto the appropriate line. Your finished work should be a well-organized sentence outline about four of the wonders of Hawaii.

The mountains are among the loveliest in the world.
 The pleasant climate is caused by the northeast trade wind.
 Flowers, such as orchids, are surprisingly easy to grow.
 The mountains are high and forested, with many waterfalls.
 Third, there are the flowers,
 The average temperature is 77°
 The population is made up of Caucasians, Japanese, Filipinos, Chinese,
 Puerto Ricans, Koreans, and Hawaiians.
 First, there is the climate.
 The mountains are close to the ocean.
 The highest temperature ever recorded is 88°
 Finally, there are the people.
 The hibiscus flowers bloom in at least twenty colors.
 Second, there are the mountains.
 There is a living-together in reasonable harmony.

HAWAII IS FILLED WITH MANY WONDERS

- I. _____
 - A. _____
 - B. _____
 - C. _____
- II. _____
 - A. _____
 - B. _____
 - C. _____
- III. _____
 - A. _____
 - B. _____
- IV. _____
 - A. _____
 - B. _____

Exerc# 4-5. On a separate sheet of paper, organize the following geographical places into outline form. Use the following form:

- I. Continents
 - A. Countries
 - 1. Cities
 - a. Sections of cities

Use a dictionary for any place name you do not know.

Manhattan	Canada	North America	Venezuela
Libya	New York	Boston	Chicago
Montreal	Turkey	Thailand	Quebec
Afghanistan	Calcutta	Kenya	South America
Spain	Kyoto	South Korea	Italy
Riyadh	Mecca	Argentina	Rio de Janeiro



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Milan	Benghazi	Sio Paulo	Rome
Europe	Ethiopia	Greece	Nigeria
Tokyo	Asia	Africa	Ankara
China	Brazil	Tanzania	India
Tripoli	Iran	Ibadan	Indonesia
Lagos	Bombay	Istanbul	Saudi Arabia
United States	Brooklyn	Los Angeles	Japan

Exercise 4-8. Below is an alphabetical list of names. Look up each name in your dictionary. On a separate sheet of paper, organize the names in an outline form that clearly indicates what each man is best known for and what his nationality is. Use roman numerals, capital letters, and arabic numerals.

Beethoven	Milton	Shelley
Berlioz	Prokofiev	Tchaikovsky
Brahms	Raphael	Tennyson
Chau,er	Ravel	Titian
Debussy	Rembrandt	Van Gogh
Firdausi	Saadi	

Exercise 4-7. The outline below is poor because the topics are not written in parallel grammatical form. On the lines at the right, rewrite the outline correctly.

- I. Skills to be learned in English _____
- A. The comprehension of spoken English _____
- B. To be able to speak English _____
- C. The ability to read English _____
- D. Writing English _____
- _____
- _____
- _____
- _____

Exercise 4-8. The next topic outline is confusing because the headings are not organized by equal rank. In the space at the right, rewrite the outline so that headings of equal rank are indicated by similar indention and numbering.

- I. Team sports _____
 - A. Water polo _____
- II. Water sports _____
 - A. Swimming _____
 - B. Diving _____
- III. Basketball _____
- IV. Individual sports _____
 - A. Golf _____
 - B. Football _____
 - C. Siding _____
 - 1. Snow _____
 - 2. Water _____
- V. Hunting _____

An outline can be used either to organize ideas electively when you write or to analyze ideas carefully when you read. The former is a preparation for writing, the latter is a procedure for reading. Here you will have a chance to practice outlining ideas before writing them. Later you will have a chance to practice note-making while reading.

Outline before
Read

EXPOSITORY WRITING. The kind of writing you will be mainly concerned with in your studies is called expository writing. You will seldom need to write narrative or descriptive papers. Whatever your field of study may be, you will need to write factual reports, explanation of processes, ... of purpose, cause and result, evaluation of arguments, and conclusions. Writing of these kinds—whether in short composition, long essays, term papers, and expositions, or in the form of equations. It is the kind of writing in which you explain a fact or idea by presenting, analyzing, or interpreting them in

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some clearly, effectively organized way. For this general purpose, an outline is indispensable,

MAIN IDEAS AND SUPPORTING DETAILS. Good expository writing in English, unlike in some other languages, is usually organized in a series of main ideas and supporting details. Notice the organization of the following paragraph:

The United States is such a large country that it must be divided into different standard time zones. In the continental United States there are four: Eastern, Central, Mountain, and Pacific. When it is 5:00 Eastern Standard Time in New York, for example, it is 4:00 Central Standard Time in Chicago, 3:00 Mountain Standard Time in Denver, and 2:00 Pacific Standard Time in Los Angeles.

Now notice the organization of this paragraph:

- | | |
|-------------------------------------|---------------------|
| I. Four standard time zones in U.S. | Main Idea |
| A. EST (e.g., 5:00) | supporting detail 1 |
| B. CST (4:00) | supporting detail 2 |
| C. MST (3:00) | Supporting detail 3 |
| D. PST (2:00) | supporting detail 4 |

Here is another sample paragraph. The main idea is printed in capital letters. The supporting details are printed in italics.

GALILEO WAS IMPORTANT IN THE HISTORY OF LITERATURE as well as in the development of modern science. From the viewpoint of literature, he was important in two ways. His *writings are models of expository prose*. His clarity and precision of language set a standard for the newly developing sciences. In addition, *his scientific discoveries* became important to every field of knowledge so that they *soon became an indispensable background in many literary works*.

Composition Outline Exercises

Exercise 4-9. Assume that your English teacher has asked you to write a composition on the topic, "English Is a Difficult Language for People to Learn." Before you start to write, you think about this topic and quickly jot down ideas as they come to you. These ideas are written below, in random order just as you might have written them down. Now look at them over. Organize them into either a topic or 11 sentence outline. Omit

those that you now think are not related to the topic. Expand those that you think are important and need supporting details or more examples. *Do not write the composition.* Simply write an outline by revising and reorganizing these ideas. Use separate paper to be handed in.

People speak too fast.

English spelling does not consistently represent sounds.

(Why does *hear* rhyme with *fear* but *bear* with *fair*?

Hear + -d becomes *heard* but *bear* + -d becomes *beard*.)

English speakers mumble so that I cannot understand.

Idioms are difficult. (Does something burn up or burn down? And why does *burned up* mean irritated or angry?)

Words are not pronounced the way I expect them to be.

Grammar is not difficult; much easier than my language.

Many words have different meanings (e.g., *spring*).

Vocabulary is difficult because so many English words seem to come from Latin or French (I don't know either).

Reasons for wanting to learn English (1. study in the United States; 2. international language; 3. a good language to learn).

Some words can be spelled in more than one way (e.g., *color-colour*, *through-thru*).

Eurciae 4-10. Assume that your English teacher has asked you to write a composition about a special feast or holiday in your country. You first decide which particular holiday to write about, and then jot down some ideas. Next you study these ideas and organize them into an outline. For example, the following outline is about Christmas in the United States.

I. Christmas

A. December 25th

B. Celebrates the birth of Christ

C. Celebrations in church

1. Christmas Eve service

2. Christmas Day service

3. Special music: carols

4. Pageant to reenact the Christmas story

D. Celebrations at home

1. Christmas tree and decorations

2. Gifts exchanged

B. Christmas dinner

This outline could be made more detailed (to include Santa Claus, for example) or more individual (favorite food for Christmas dinner). Each composition about Christmas would reflect each person's own ideas and experience in

Writing an Outline

addition to that which is common to all. Organize your ideas about a special feast or holiday in your country according to the following general outline:

- I. Name of holiday (with English translation)**
 - A. Date**
 - B. Meaning or significance**
 - C. Celebrations**
 - 1. Religious, social or family**
 - 2. Special customs or events**
 - a. Music**
 - b. Dances**
 - c. Food**
 - d. Games**
 - e. Clothes**
 - f. Et cetera**

Do not write the composition. Simply write an outline to indicate main ideas and supporting details. Use separate paper to be handed in.

Exercise 4-11. Assume that your teacher has assigned *one* of the following topics for a composition. Prepare an outline of the topic. Use either a sentence or a topic outline. Do not write the composition. Simply plan a carefully developed outline of what you would write for the assigned topic.

- 1. The Importance of a Daily Newspaper**
- 2. Three Places in My Country that Tourists Should Visit**
- 3. The Meaning of Different Gestures in My Native Language**

Vocabulary Exercise

Exercise 4-12. The following words have appeared in this chapter. They may or may not be familiar to you. Because they are fairly common words which you will see often, if you are not sure of their meanings, write them in your vocabulary record.

to accommodate
the distinction
expository

indispensable
to jot down

random
the skelt'.to11

5

Improving Your Reading

Reading is probably the most important skill you will need for success in your studies. You will have to read lengthy assignments in different subjects with varying degrees of detail and difficulty. If you read inaccurately, you will fail to understand some of the information and ideas that you read. If you read slowly, you will have to spend too much time reading your assignments so that your other work may suffer.

Poor reading may be a problem for you, but it is not a hopeless one. Like other skills, your ability to read English rapidly and accurately depends upon careful instruction and purposeful practice. This chapter will introduce you to the ways in which you can improve your reading skill. But it will be only that, an introduction. You must continue to practice on your own.

Reading speed is determined in part by how many words your eyes can see at a single glance. Here is a comparison of three different readers and how many stops their eyes make.

Reading Speed and Comprehension

Slow Reader:

Being able to read by phrases Instead of by
single words results from Practice

Average Reader:

Being able to read by instead of
by single word, results from practice.

Fast Reader:

Being able to read by phrases Instead of by single word.
With some practice.

Notice that the slow reader's eyes must stop fourteen times, focusing on each word alone before moving on to the next. The eyes of the average reader stop six or seven times because they are able to see about two words at a single glance. The eyes of the fast reader stop only three times. They focus at the center of a phrase and see three or four words, then move rapidly to the next phrase.

This ability to see words on either side of the point at which your eyes focus is called *peripheral vision*. As a foreign student of English, you may feel that it is impossible to recognize so many words at a single glance. It is difficult for many native speakers, but it can be done--and must be done if you are to read as rapidly as you should. You can increase your peripheral vision by eye exercises.

Being able to read by phrases requires an understanding of what words go together grammatically. For example, if you can recognize modification patterns, prepositional or participial phrases, or dependent clauses, you can recognize which words are grouped together meaningfully. With practice, you will begin to see them together. Here are some examples:

Modification Patterns

the economic policy	(he spoke) quickly and dearly
an unnecessary expense	(the fluid) in the test tube
three important reasons	(the man) who signed the treaty

Prepositional, Participial, and Infinitive Phrases

under these conditions	to tell the truth
against their will	to explore <i>all</i> possibilities
on the other hand	considering the last point
while examining the residue	preparing carefully

Dependent Clauses

when the war ended	just as they agreed to go
because it was raining	if potassium is added

Just as important as increasing your peripheral vision is the importance of moving your eyes from point to point in a uniform rhythm. Slow reading also results from *regression*, the number of times your eyes have to go back to a word or phrase that they did not see accurately the first time. As you practice widening your peripheral vision and moving your eyes faster, you may occasionally have to go back to reread certain words or phrases. Do not get discouraged. A smooth, forward rhythm comes with practice. Eventually you *will* adjust your speed so that the point where your eyes move comfortably forward without the need to regress.

A final cause of slow rending is vocalizing, that ls, forming the sounds of t"ach word, even though they may not he spoken aloud. The nonnal rate of speaking English is 180 to 200 words a minute. If you vocalize each word, you cannot read faster than thfs. Reading 200 words a minute is a dangerously slow speed,

You may wonder about the relationship between reading speed and reading comprehension. In the Bnt place, ft is of course useles,ss to read rapidly but without adequate comprehension. It is equally inefficient to read with complete comprehension but at a very slow speed. You should aim at a comfortable balance between the two. In the second place, although you may think so at first, reading comprehension does not necessarily suffer from a rapid reading speed. As you push yourself to read faster, you may find that you comprehend less. Continued practice, however, will improve your comprehension as well as your speed. Instead of responding to individual words, you will be responding to meaningful units of ideas. In the third place, there is no single best reading speed. The good reader adjusts his speed to the material he is reading and the kind of comprehension he desires. Generally, you can read a novel or a social column in the campus newspaper faster than you can read a textbook. Even in a textbook, there is some material that can be read faster than other material. Adjust your speed to the difficulty of the reading material and the degree of comprehension required.

Reading Exercises

The following exercises are intended to help you increase your peripheral vision, practice rapid recognition of letters and words, and read by phrases without regression. Keep in mind that these exercises are only a means and not an end in themselves. Though your teacher may provide some class time for additional practice, you should plan to practice on your own. A few minutes' practice each day----even repeating **the** same exercfses--will be more effective than a single long practice session.

L.ncue &./. Use a plain white 3- by 5-inch card. In the center of the top edge, **make** a 1hort vertical line with the tip of an arrow touchJng the top edge. For each column in this exercise, cover the list of numbers with the card. Center the arrow at 0 over the column, Fix your eyes on thJs point and move the card downward to reveal each number, Read the number1 u fut as po11ible.



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0	0	0	0	0
105	93054	23081	2840'716	9270182
308	74082	35088	90204i8	8380M2
904	9033	93062	37rso284	3820937
600	52049	56061	7390715	7380921
7f'l1	17028	7lf083	4720917	3720741
809	88021	38062	4280553	9400473
908	36017	13042	3890287	3720795
403	61065	28093	8160349	2910405
504	2.5076	73018	2710982	0080718
107	8705.'3	29055	1230456	3820753
201	390'2'7	30058	69'JJ.1146	7380982
600	80003	17040	3060158	2970172

Reading numben in this way ls dilBcult because there is no context for them. It is neverthelea a useful exercise to help you devel_{op} the habit of 8mg your eye at a central point and permitting your peripheral vision to see what goes before and after.

EZffCiN 5-1. In this eu:rtse, center the urow on your card at the e over the column. Fu your eyea on this point and move the card downward to reveal each word. Practice reading the words in each column. Try not to look at the l>Aginning of the word. Cooocentrate on the center of the column and read straight down, moving the card downward as rapidly as possible.

e	e	ح	e	e	e
pet	press	science	repeats	marketing	intlucial
her	opera	حسز حزحز	forever	projected	rudimentary
men	piece	appean	streets	mannerism	indirection
sex	clerk	mineral	friends	suspended	residential
get	great	selects	silence	depressed	perspective
sea	ocean	lineman	spreads	different	lieutenants
bed	shell	genenl	essence	sickening	ineffectual
set	guest	streaks	funeral	retreated	overbearing
red	agent	detects	immense	uncleanly	excitements
tea	steam	liberty	expects	mastering	unseperated
let	tTend	priestl	powered		
ten	check	quieter	queenly		

Notice the dtffereooe between reading the numben in Exercise 5-1 and the worda in this elffl'Cise. It ii possible to guess the word quickly bec1i1use of the othor letters beforft and after the •. With short words, this CUI lead to mistakes (for ex.ample, J>eR, pin, pan; although word and sentence contexts will hel1, you skip over

them quickly without having to absorb each letter consciously). The longer the word, the easier it is to grasp as a complete unit of letters. Notice the last word in the last column above. Did you realize that unseparated is misspelled? Yet there are enough letters to supply the context for the word. It is frequently this fact that contributes to the difficulty of spelling. Unless you are proofreading, you are not expected to see each letter individually. (If you noticed the misspelling of the last word in the preceding sentence, you are perhaps reading letters, not words!)

Efficient 5-3. In this series of exercises, focus your eyes on the center line and read down the column. Go as fast as you can but be sure to read each phrase correctly. Practice keeping your eyes centered on the line.

hot	day	thin	skin
his	pen	some	silk
the	cat	very	good
one	bed	blue	book
new	top	hard	clay
old	eye	soft	hair
big	owl	cold	milk
not	yet	near	here
dig	out	open	this
her	hat	long	trip
one	day	nine	cats
bad	boy	gold	coin
our	pet	come	home
for	him	with	love
why	not	pure	sand
old	toy	your	head
her	son	four	toes
fat	dog	dark	blue
how	far	Aunt	Jane
eight	birds	sixteen	gallons
funny	trick	Persian	gardens
brown	paper	another	message
stand	still	naughty	student
young	child	jealous	husband
short	story	1111mown	mystery
green	plant	seventy	numbers
hurry	حز حفس	healthy	posture
white	smoke	English	teacher
cruel	thief	college	tuition
extra	force	unanned	soldier
fatal	fight	private	opinion
local	hotel	wealthy	economy



black	horse	hastily	written
happy	story	leather	handbag
eight	boxes	private	gardens
tight	dress	written	letters
green	grass	unknown	soldier
quick	flash	noonday	lunches
faded	roses	nervous	janitor
dirty	linen	warlike	weapons
happy	woman	distant	horizon

Each of the following exercises should be done in only thirty seconds. Read the direction to each exercise carefully. Do not begin to do the exercise before your teacher tells you to start.

Exercise 5-4. At the left of the vertical line, there is a letter. When your teacher says to start, read across the line as fast as you can. Circle all the letters that are the same as the letter at the left. Stop when you are told to stop.

A	A	M	V	y	A	K	L	W	F	S	A	u	O	p	A
L	K	T	L	J	p	T	L	F	y	L	J	T	L	N	I
S	N	Z	S	M	S	C	C	V	S	R	u	L	X	Q	G
R	V	R	p	p	D	B	R	K	H	G	B	W	R	S	p
Q	C	O	u	G	Q	G	C	C	O	D	Q	C	G	O	C
M	N	W	M	N	N	W	H	u	G	M	N	W	X	H	N
V	y	u	W	O	H	D	u	W	y	z	u	V	W	y	u
B	p	R	H	p	B	R	B	S	F	R	p	p	G	B	H
T	I	L	T	y	F	F	I	L	T	y	L	J	F	y	T
H	H	B	F	D	T	K	M	H	T	F	p	V	R	H	H

Exercise 5-8. At the left of the vertical line, there is a letter. When your teacher says to start, read across the line as fast as you can. Circle all the letters that are the same as the letter at the left. Stop when you are told to stop.

b	d	p	h	d	b	p	p	d	h	d	p	c	d	p	b
h	h	d	h	h	p	d	b	h	k	r	l	k	b	h	p
t	f	l	t	h	t	k	h	d	f	f	f	t	h	f	t
v	r	n	w	u	v	n	m	tl	""	w	r	u	n	v	n
q	p	g	p	q	j	y	g	j	p	g	j	p	g	q	q
r	v	n	n	r	u	i	n	v	v	v	u	i	r	v	n
s	z	n	c	m	c	z	z	n	x	e	s	z	n	u	o
l	i	t	f	l	t	f	i	f	t	t	i	l	l	t	i
a	e	a	c	u	o	e	s	x	c	a	e	u	n	c	e
m	n	n	u	m	m	e	u	o	v	c	z	n	a	m	n

E 5-6. At the left of the vertical line, there is a word. When your teacher says to start, read across the line as fast as you can. Circle all the words that are the same as the word at the left.

ARREST	ADDRESS	ARRANGE	AROUND	ARREST	ACCUSE	ARREST
BRAVE	BREAK	BRAVE	BRAIN	BRAVE	BRASS	BLADE
CLEAN	CLEAR	CHEAT	CLASS	CLEAN	CHIEF	CLEAR
BUTTER	BOTTLE	BETTER	BUTTON	BITTER	BUTTER	BUTTER
DEFEAT	DEFEAT	DEFEND	DEGREE	DEFEAT	DECIDE	DEPEND
EARN	EASY	EARN	EAR	EARLY	LEARN	EARN
FLAME	FLOAT	FAME	FLESH	FLAME	FLAT	FAME
GOLD	GOAT	COLD	BOLD	GOLD	GOOD	GOLD
CLASS	BRASS	FLASH	CLASS	CLAIM	GLASS	CLASS
REPEAT	REPORT	DEFEAT	REPEAT	RELATE	RETAIN	DEFEAT

Eucue 5-1. At the left of vertical line, there is a word. When your teacher says to start, read across the line as fast as you can. Circle the one word which has about the same meaning as the word at the left.



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happy	sad	false	fresh	glad	modem
a mistake	poison	blame	puzzle	rescue	error
rich	wrong	sacred	wealthy	scared	healthy
silent	quiet	noisy	loud	funny	quick
to begin	fall	start	try	speak	stop
to attempt	cry	stay	fly	fly	try
student	singer	pupil	lesson	teacher	pencil
to cry	laugh	sing	weep	shout	run
to present	get	give	gift	return	forget
a test	eraser	lab	glass	snow	exam
pretty	lazy	rapid	ugly	beautiful	lonely

Exercis 5-8. When your teacher says to start, read across the line as fast as you can. Circle the one word which does not belong to the group. For example:

apple pear banana (8 plum grape
 bear is the name of an animal. All the other words are names of fruit. Do not start until your teacher tells you to.

red	blue	paper	green	yellow	black
hat	gloves	coat	book	shirt	shoes
train	radio	automobile	ship	airplane	bicycle
violin	piano	football	guitar	drum	trumpet
male	eyes	ears	arms	legs	feet
snow	rain	sunshine	wind	potato	ice
house	church	museum	garden	store	library
private	general	sergeant	corporal	secretary	lieutenant
France	Italy	China	Spain	-Germany	Belgium
mother	sister	father	baby	uncle	brother
chair	lamp	table	bed	wheel	rug
hydrogen	helium	coflet	oxygen	nitrogen	sodium

Exercis U. In this series of exercises, the words are arranged vertically in phrases. Fix your eyes on the arrow at the top of the column, Read down as rapidly as possible.

1. Being able
to read
by phrases
instead of
by single word,
results
from practice.

2. 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.

3. Until about
four hundred year1 ago
nothing like
a modern microscope
existed.
Then
spectacle maker,
in Holland
noticed that
when certain lenses
are used in pairs
at the right distance
apart
they magnify things.
The first man
to make
a powerful microscope
was a Dutchman
named Leeuwenhoek,
who was born
in 1632.
His instruments
could magnify things
to three hundred times
their actual size.

Emrc, 5-10. This series of exercises is similar to the preceding ones, but here the phrases are arranged across the page instead of in columns. In the first two exercises, the phrases are enclosed in parentheses. In the last two exercises, the phrases are separated by spaces. Practice reading each phrase at a single glance. Be sure that your eyes move across the page with a smooth, even rhythm.

1. (This series) (of exercises) (is similar) (to the others)
(of this lesson) (but the phrases) (are arranged)
(across the page) (instead of) (in columns.)
2. (Be sure) (that your eyes) (move across the page)
(with a smooth,) (even rhythm.) (You should be able)
(to develop speed) (if you continue) (to practice.)
(It is not) (so difficult) (as it seems.)



3. Leeuwenhoek saw many living things that no man had seen before. When he looked at a drop of water under his microscope, he saw many little animals which were later called protozoa. Leeuwenhoek said that though he gargled with salt water every day, the number of little animals in his mouth was greater than the whole population of Holland.
4. About 1660 Robert Hooke put a thin slice of cork under his microscope. He was amazed to see tiny divisions rather like a honeycomb. With this in mind, he gave these divisions the name of cells. He had no idea how important that word would become when microscopes improved and when scientists were better able to see and study living things.

Exercise S-11. For the following exercise, first read the paragraph aloud, or listen to your teacher read it. Indicate phrase groupings by putting parentheses around the words which naturally go together. You may indicate short phrase groupings, or you may wish to indicate longer groupings. Then practice reading the paragraph aloud, pausing slightly at the phrase ends. Then practice reading the paragraph silently. Try to focus your eyes at the center of each phrase and read all of the words between parentheses in a single glance.

1. Many foreign students find that their studies in English take so much time they have little time for the other pleasures of college life. This is unfortunate because many of the most useful and permanent lessons you will learn at college do not come from books at all. They come from your association with teachers and students outside of class.
2. Your reading rate is determined by the speed with which your eyes can focus on a group of words, then move swiftly and smoothly to the next group of words. The more stops that your eyes make, or the more times your eyes regress, the slower you will read. Vocalizing the words also slows down your reading. Fortunately, increasing your peripheral vision and developing a uniform movement of your eyes can be accomplished by special exercises and regular practice.
3. Thanks to the recent work of oceanographers, we now know that the bottom of the ocean is divided into three distinct areas: the continental shelf, the continental slope, and the ocean floor. The continental shelf is a band of gradually sloping sea bottom surrounding all the continents. Sunlight penetrates most of it. Vegetation similar to land vegetation grows there, and the bottom is covered with sand and soil washed from the land. Common species of saltwater fish are found there. Beyond the continental shelf, no matter how deep nor how far from land, the bottom drops off

abruptly. Here there is no light and no plant life. The pressure, cold, and silence increase. The scenery is mud, rocks, and clay. It is inhabited by huge and small carnivorous animals, such as those encountered only in nightmares. The ocean floor lies at the foot of the continental slope and is the true bottom of the ocean. This area holds the mysteries of a strange, unknown world. The ocean floor is the last large area to be explored on the planet earth.

You will be able to increase both your speed and comprehension of reading if you recognize a few of the most common ways in which paragraphs are organized.

A paragraph is usually about a single topic, part of a larger subject perhaps, but still a self-contained topic by itself. Although a paragraph may include several ideas about this topic, one idea will be more important than the others. This is the *main idea*. It is sometimes called the central or controlling idea. This main idea is usually stated in the *topic sentence*. This is often, but not necessarily, the first sentence of the paragraph. Where the topic sentence is placed depends upon the kind of pattern the writer chooses to develop his paragraph.

Five common paragraph patterns will be demonstrated here. Recognizing each kind should help you follow the writer's presentation more quickly and accurately. You should realize, however, that there is often overlapping, and several patterns may be mixed within a single paragraph.

1. PARAGRAPHS OF ANALYSIS. In this kind of paragraph pattern, a topic is analyzed. The topic is broken down into causes, effects, reasons, methods, purposes, or other categories that support the main idea. This main idea may be presented as a general statement at the beginning of the paragraph. This kind of *deductive* organization moves from the general to the particular. Or the main idea may be presented as a general conclusion at the end of the paragraph. This kind of *inductive* organization moves from the particular to the general.

Here is an example of a paragraph of analysis with deductive organization:

Modern man, in spite of his superior scientific knowledge, often seems as superstitious as his ancestors. Astrology is a half-billion-dollar business. Intelligent persons still believe that lines on their palm or the arrangement of tea leaves in a cup predict the future. Airplanes do not have a row of seats numbered 13, and buildings omit a thirteenth floor. Black cats, broken mirrors, and spilled salt create fear and anxiety in many people. And ouija boards continue to be a popular pastime.

Recognizing Paragraph Patterns While Reading

10J Improving Your Reading

The main idea of this paragraph is stated in the first, or topic, sentence. This is followed by examples to prove the author's point. If it is important, the examples can be taken out of the paragraph and listed in outline form:

- I. Modern man seems as superstitious as his ancestors.
 - A. Astrology is a half-billion-dollar business.
 - B. Intelligent persons still believe that lines on their palm or the arrangement of tea leaves in a cup predict the future.
 - C. Airplanes do not have a row of seats, numbered 13 and buildings omit a thirteenth floor.
 - D. Black cats, broken mirrors, and spilled salt create fear and anxiety in many people.
 - E. Ouija boards continue to be a popular pastime.

Here is an example of a paragraph of analysis with inductive organization:

From Italian we get such words as *balcony*, *cavalry*, *miniature*, *opera*, and *umbrella*. Spanish has given us *mosquito*, *french*, *cigar*, and *vanilla*. Dutch has provided *brandy*, *golf*, *measles*, and *wagon*. From Arabic we have borrowed *alcohol*, *chemistry*, *magazine*, *zenith*, and *zero*. And Persian has loaned us *cheese*, *chicken*, *lemon*, *paradise*, and *spinach*. It is clear that English is a language that borrows freely from many sources.

In this example, particular examples are given first, followed by the general conclusion that English has borrowed words from many different languages.

1. PARAGRAPHS OF DESCRIPTION. A second type of paragraph pattern is one in which something is described. This may be a physical description, as of a person or place, or it may be a description of a process, a step-by-step explanation of how something is done.

The following paragraph describes an octopus:

An octopus appears to be just a huge head with eight long, fearful arms. Its head is soft and rubbery. Its eyes stick out on stalks so that it can see in all directions. Its mouth is on the underside of its body and has powerful jaws shaped like a beak. The long arms, or tentacles, have double rows of suckers. These can fasten onto objects with such suction that they cannot be pulled off.

The following example describes the method of mouth-to-mouth artificial respiration:

In certain accidents, if breathing stops, it is possible to save life by artificial respiration. This means that someone else causes air to enter and leave a person's lungs. The method of artificial respiration now recommended by the U.S. Army, the Red Cross, and the Boy Scouts of America is a method of mouth-to-mouth breathing. First, place the victim face up. Tilt his head back so that his chin is pointing upward. Next, if there is any foreign matter in his mouth, wipe it out quickly with your fingers. Then, with your right-hand thumb, pull his jaw down to clear his tongue from the air passage in the back of his mouth. With your left hand, pinch his nostrils to prevent the air you blow into his mouth from escaping through his nose. Now, place your mouth tightly over the victim's and blow into his mouth until you see his chest rise. Remove your mouth, turn your head to the side and listen to the outrush of air that indicates air exchange. Repeat blowing. For an adult, blow vigorously at a rate of about twelve breaths a minute. For a young child, take relatively shallow breaths, at a rate of about twenty a minute.

3. PARAGRAPHS OF COMPARISON AND CONTRAST. A third type of paragraph pattern is one in which several things are compared or contrasted. Paragraphs of this kind usually state the main idea—the things being demonstrated as similar or different—in the first sentence. Then the idea is developed in subsequent sentences, often with examples. The following extract is an illustration:

Discovery and invention are sometimes confused. Essentially, however, they are quite distinct. Discovery is the finding of something that has always been there, though its existence or its meaning has remained hidden. Invention is the design of something new to be made from known materials. America, for example, was discovered; the United States was invented. America has always been there, though its existence was unknown, at least to Europeans, until navigating explorers found it. But the United States was a combination of known materials: land, law, and people.¹

The purpose of this paragraph is to draw a distinction between discovery and invention. It therefore includes definitions. The following paragraph compares and contrasts two kinds of elephants. It also includes description,

There are two kinds of elephants—the African and the Indian. The African elephant is larger and darker; it also has larger ears and a more sloping forehead. Both can be tamed, but the Indian

¹By permission from Roger Burlingame, *Scientists Behind the Invention*, Harcourt, Brace & World, New York, 1960.

elephant is more easily trained to do work. When an African elephant sleeps, it usually stands up, but its Indian cousin usually sleeps lying down:

4. PARAGRAPHS OF ANALOGY. A fourth type of paragraph pattern is one which is organized around an analogy for the purpose of clarifying a particular point. There may be no topic sentence, but the main idea is clearly implied by the use of analogy. In the following example, the main purpose is to explain the distinction between Newton's and Einstein's ideas about gravitation. This distinction is made clear by reducing it to a common, easily comprehended situation.

The distinction between Newton's and Einstein's ideas about gravitation has sometimes been illustrated by picturing a little boy playing marbles in a city lot. The ground is very uneven, ridged with bumps and hollows. An observer in an office ten stories above the street would not be able to see these irregularities in the ground. Noticing that the marbles appear to avoid some sections of the ground and move toward other sections, he might assume that a "force" was operating which repelled the marbles from certain spots and attracted them to others. But another observer on the ground would instantly perceive that the path of the marbles was simply governed by the curvature of the field. In this analogy Newton is the upstairs observer who imagines a "force" is at work, and Einstein is the observer on the ground, who has no reason to make such an assumption.

5. PARAGRAPHS OF DEFINITION. In this fifth type of paragraph pattern, the purpose is to define, explain, or clarify the meaning of something. Because of the nature of definition, it may involve analysis, comparison or contrast, description, or perhaps even an analogy. In the following example, the author is defining what a pupil is.

A pupil is one who is under the close supervision of a teacher, either because of his youth or because of specialization in some branch of study. In England pupil is used to describe one in school, which means up through public schools such as Eton or Harrow, or through the secondary schools, equivalent to American high schools. In America pupil is now usually restricted to one who is in an elementary school. Those called pupils regardless

³ Reprinted from Lincoln Barnett, *The Universe and Dr. Einstein*, New American Library, New York, 1950, p. 91, by permission of William Morrow and Co., Inc.

of age because of their specialization in some branch of study are designated by the subject they are studying, as art pupils, music pupils, etc.

In the following example, the author explains why a common definition of *science* is unsatisfactory. His own definition is stated in the final sentence, which can be considered the main idea of the paragraph.

Science has been defined as a body of knowledge. But that means about as much as saying that you find all the works of Shakespeare in the dictionary because all the words are there. One of the things which blocked scientific progress for nearly two thousand years was the idea that the Greeks had had the last word for it, that the knowledge existed. And such knowledge, untested by experiment, could be adapted or interpreted to suit the beliefs of the times, or to conform to doctrine. A "body of knowledge" unchallenged and unreplenished goes sick and may become itself superstition-like astrology, which started off as that exercise of observation and reason which we call astronomy, the charting of the stars in their courses. No; science is not just knowledge; it is knowledge working for its living, correcting itself, and adding to itself.'

Paragraph Analysis Exercise

Exercise 5-12. Read each of the following paragraphs. On the line after each one, write whether the main pattern of organization is (1) analysis, (2) description, (3) comparison and contrast, (4) analogy, or (5) definition.

1. English is clearly an international language. It is spoken by pilots and airport control operators on all the airways of the world. Over 70 percent of the world's mail is written in English, and more than 60 percent of the world's radio programs are in English.
2. There are four different tides, depending upon the position of the sun and moon in relation to the earth. When the sun and moon are in direct line with the earth, they exert their greatest gravitational force, causing abnormally high or,pring tides. When the sun,

¹ By permission from Bergen and Comella Evans, A Dictionary of Contemporary American Usage, Random House, New York, 1957,
² By permission from Ritchie Calder, Dance In Our Lives, New American Library, New York, 1958,

moon, and earth are at right angles to each other, the gravitational force is weak, causing abnormally low or *neap* tides. Between these two extremes are high, or *perigee*, tides when the moon is closest to the earth and low, or *apogee*, tides when the moon is farthest from the earth.

3. During the early days of the American colonies, all mail was delivered on horseback. The first rider, in 1673, took three weeks to carry mail from New York to Boston and back. In the middle of the following century, mail was delivered between Philadelphia and New York three times a week in good weather, and twice a week in the winter. Delivery in 36 hours was usual. Official mail was sent free; private letters cost 2 cents for each 100 miles. This cost was paid not by the person who sent the letter but by the one who received it.
4. The human vocal apparatus is often compared to a wind instrument. The lungs are the bellows, and the larynx is the reed. The pharynx, mouth, and nose form resonating chambers. This wind instrument is not fully formed at birth. The vocal cords, for example, are shorter than in later life. The "change of voice" that an adolescent boy undergoes is evidence of how long this instrument continues to develop after birth.
5. The liver is the largest organ in the body. It weighs a little more than three pounds in an adult. It is wedge-shaped and is situated under the diaphragm, mostly on the left side of the body, where it is protected by the lower ribs. Somewhat like an intricate chemical factory, the liver takes the particles of glucose (which come from digested starches and sugars) and changes them into another kind of carbohydrate called glycogen, which it then stores. When the body needs sugar, the liver turns the glycogen into glucose again and sends it to the body tissues through the blood stream.
6. English is spoken by pilots and airport control operators on all the airways of the world. Over 70 percent of the world's mail is written in English. More than 60 percent of the world's radio programs are in English. Clearly English is an international language.
7. What is likely to happen when the rules of it-t' begin to hurt faster and faster? A piece from the very life will help us here. What does a boy do when he wants to spend his time with his

far out on a thin branch of the tree? He climbs part way up the trunk and shakes the branch. The apples of the tree all shake violently backward and forward, swinging sharply on their stems. The extra motion makes them break their stalks and down they fall, not only the one special apple, but many others as well. The stems were strong enough to hold the apples to the tree when they were relatively quiet, but the increased energy of motion caused them to break off. In much the same way, single molecules escape from heated ice and flow away as liquid water.⁵

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8. The differences between American and British English are not as great as some people imagine. Differences of pronunciation are perhaps the most immediately noticeable: *schedule* for *shedule*, for example, or *car* for *cah*. Pronunciation differences of this kind, however, are minor and quite consistent. In grammar there are perhaps even fewer differences. One of the most obvious is in the British question form *Have you-?* as opposed to the more common American pattern *Do you have -?* It is probably in the area of vocabulary that the greatest number of differences occur. An American *flat* is a British *puncture*, for example, but a British *flat* is an American *apartment*. Different meanings for the same word or the same meaning for different words seldom cause many serious difficulties of communication. All things considered, there seem to be greater differences among the many dialects of British English than there are between the standard dialects of British English and American English.
-

Sentences and paragraphs are not just strung together, one after the other. The ideas they express are connected by means of certain words or phrases that relate the ideas to each other. In addition to your ability to recognize paragraph patterns, it will help you improve your reading to recognize different references and connectives.

References and Connectives

REFERENCES. References are words which substitute for other words. They refer back to ideas that have already been expressed. They also refer forward to ideas yet to be stated. Pronouns are the most familiar reference words. In the following paragraph, the references are italicized, then explained below.

• Reprinted from *The Book of Knowledge* by permission of the publisher, Grolier Incorporated, New York.

Some students read slowly and know it; others read slowly and don't know it. The *former* can be helped easily because they are already aware of the problem. Before the latter can be helped, however, *they* must be made aware of the problem.

In this paragraph, the following references and their meanings can be identified:

it: the fact that they read slowly
the former: students who read slowly and know it
they: the former students
their problem: reading slowly
the latter: students who read slowly but do not know it
they: the latter students
the problem: reading slowly

Reference Exercises

Exercise 5-13. Each of the following passages contains reference words that are italicized. After each passage, write what the italicized reference word refers to.

1. A mosquito, filled up on blood, manages to fly off carrying twice its own weight. *To do this*, it beats its wings more than 300 times a second.

To do this: _____

2. Octopuses are easily tamed and can be trained to take food from the hand of attendants or visitors. *Some* will even pull your hand open to get at a tightly held bit of food.

Some: _____

3. To the men who build them, modern skyscrapers are tools for the use of office workers. Hence they try to make each new one an improvement on the others.

them: _____

they: _____

no: _____

4. A surprising fact about sailboats is that they can move against the wind. No matter which way the wind blows, you can move your boat in any direction you like. *This* is possible because of the shape and action of the hull,

This: _____

- ◆- A light rays that bounce off the subjects hit the photograph and fall on a sheet of film for an instant. The light that the film changes in the coating on the film.

them: -----

This light: _____

6. Although we have only one mouth for tasting and one nose for smelling, we have two eyes for seeing and two ears for hearing. Stereo is the reason the perception of depth. Almost every other living being shares these characteristics with us because it is necessary for survival.

these characteristics: _____

it: -----

Exercise 5-14. After each of the following paragraphs, several reference words from the paragraph are italicized. On the line after each reference, write the idea or words that are being referred to.

Venice in the Middle Ages was a sailor's town that heard many strange tales. But *those* of Marco Polo, back from his travels to the ends of the earth, were stranger than all of *them*. He talked of a black rock that was dug up and set afire. He said that it gave off heat and burned longer than wood. The people of Venice shouted with laughter. To *them* coal was a fairy tale.

those: -----

them: -----

it: -----

them: _____

Marco Polo told of *another* rock from which a wool that would not burn could be spun. They laughed harder *than before*. Asbestos was impossible to imagine!

another rock: -----

than before: _____

• Adapted by permission from "Marco Polo, First of All Travelers," Reader's Digest Skit Book, Grade 5, Part 3, Copyright 1960 by Reader's Digest Services, Inc., Pleasantville, N.Y.

In Marco Polo's time, Venice was the world's greatest trading port. Her ships brought in pearls, diamonds, and sapphires from India; furs from Siberia; spices and silks from China. But these treasures had reached the Venetian ships at other ports, brought there by camels across deserts or on Chinese or Arab boats. No Venetian had ever seen the faraway lands from which the riches came.

Her:-----

these treasure,-----

there:

the faraway lands:-----

CONNECTIVES. Your reading will be more efficient and meaningful if you are aware of the conjunctions that link ideas into some kind of relationship. These words or phrases connect ideas together to indicate result, contrast, or addition. Connectives are useful clues that will help you read more rapidly; therefore, a little practice in recognizing them will be useful. If the meaning of any of the following connectives is unfamiliar, check your dictionary for a complete definition and examples.

Connective, That Signal a Result:

He hadn't eaten breakfast;

therefore,
thus,
hence,
consequently,
as a consequence,
accordingly.

he was hungry
by noon.

Because he hadn't eaten breakfast, he was hungry by noon.


All these italicized words connect a cause (he hadn't eaten breakfast) with a result or effect (he was hungry by noon). When you read one of these words or phrases, you can expect a result of some kind to be stated.

Connectives Exercise

Exercise 6 & 1. Read each of the following sentences. Circle the connective that introduces a result.

1. The present birth rate is increasing and the death rate is decreasing. Because of this fact, the world's population is growing at a frightening pace.
2. There was no reason for him to stay any longer, so he returned to his home.
3. A foreign student who reads only 200 words a minute is reading at about half the speed of a native speaker of English; consequently, he takes about twice as long to read the same assignment.
4. The American colonists objected to taxation without representation; therefore, they were angry when England passed the Stamp Act.
5. Having put out the fire, the firemen urged the crowd to leave; accordingly, they returned to their homes.

Consider the following sentences:

Defeat was obvious;	however,	the players continued to try their best to win the game.
	still,	
Defeat was obvious, {		

In spite of the fact that defeat was obvious, the players continued to try their best to win the game.
 Although (or Though) they were defeated, the players continued to try their best to win the game.
 Even though they were defeated, the players continued to try their best to win the game.

You may see these connectives in different positions in a sentence, or with different punctuation. They all imply a contrast, an opposition to the idea of the sentence.

Connectives of Contrast Exercise

Exercise S-11. Read each of the following sentences. Circle the connective that expresses a contrast.

1. He gets ten hours of sleep each night, yet he always seems tired in class.
2. In spite of the fact that their army was four times as large as the Greeks', the Persians were defeated at Marathon.
3. Astrology is a very old but discredited belief that the stars influence the course of our lives.
4. Despite the fierce sandstorm, the caravan moved on.
5. Although today we are firmly convinced the earth is round, it is not difficult to understand why the ancients believed that it was flat.

Connectives That Signal an Addition:

Betty is pretty	<i>and</i> wealthy.
	<i>and</i> ^{also} wealthy.
	<i>and</i> wealthy <i>too</i> .
	^{as well as} <i>well</i> ^{also} wealthy.
Betty is pretty;	and <i>being</i> wealthy.
	<i>moreover</i> , she is wealthy.
	<i>furthermore</i> , she is wealthy.

In each of these sentences, another fact (Betty is wealthy) is added to the first fact (Betty is pretty). The degree of emphasis generally increases with each example.

Connectives of Addition Exercise

Exercise 5-11. Read each of the following sentences. Circle the connective that indicates an addition.

1. Mr. Jones can read and write Swahili as well as speak and understand it.
2. Students should study before exams in addition to hoping to pass.
3. Besides having to worry about his own children, Mr. Clark has to worry about his neighbor's child.
4. Mr. Karam smokes too much; furthermore, he drops ashes all over the rug.
5. Students who work in the cafeteria earn extra money; moreover, they learn a lot about human nature.

Connectives That Signal a Series or Time Sequence:

One, first	then	finally
Two, second	next	at last
Three, third	afterward	lastly

Numbers are frequently used to signal position in a series or the sequence of ideas or events. They may be either cardinal numbers (one, two, three) or ordinal numbers (first, second, third). Words such as then or next usually signal a continuation. Words such as finally or lastly signal an end of the sequence or status.

Connectives of Series Exercise

Exercice 5-18. In the following paragraph, circle the connective that figures in a series of time sequence.

This is **the way** Horlensc studies. First, she sits at her desk and thinks about the assignment. Next she decides that **she** needs a **glass** of water. **After she goes** to the kitchen, **drinks and** returns to her **room**, she opens her **book**. **Then she starts to** read the **lesson**. Her first **distraction** comes when **she** begins to think about **the party** on the weekend. **Her second** distraction comes when she is called to the telephone. **After she returns** to her room, her third distraction comes when she **realizes it** is time to **listen** to her favorite program on the radio. Finally she decides she can study her assignment between classes the next **day**.

Conclusion: Although not connectives in the same grammatical sense as the preceding **words** and phrases, **so** and **and** for example are used to relate ideas together, to indicate **the** writer's attitude, and to add emphasis or examples to a point.

SUMMARY. Here is a paragraph with **the** references circled and the **connectives** boxed. Arrows relate the references to the ideas they **refer** to.

Some **few**, **of course**, still believe **that Shakespeare could not have** written the plays attributed to **Shakespeare** but **they** have difficulty explaining **the fact that many contemporaries of Shakespeare** are **who** knew and worked with **him** considered **him** as the actual author, and **Shakespeare** as a very fine author indeed. Ben Jonson, for example, never doubted **the** authenticity of **the** plays. **Shakespeare** also referred to Shakespeare as a very fine playwright. **These** are only two of the many contemporary references that leave little doubt that Shakespeare wrote the plays of William Shakespeare.

There are two purposes of skimming: (1) to locate a specific word, fact, or idea quickly; and (2) to get a rapid, general impression of the material. Both of these purposes are common in studying so that skimming is an important reading skill to learn.

Skimming

SKIMMING TO LOCATE INFORMATION. When you look for a telephone number, the cosine of θ , the atomic weight of

cobalt, or your name on 11 grade list, you are skimming. In this kind of rapid reading, your eyes move quickly over the words or groups until you find the particular information you are looking for. Because skimming is directed and purposeful, it should be extremely fast, especially if the material is arranged in numerical or alphabetical order.

As you skim your eyes over a page or down a column, keep in mind the specific information you are looking for. In a numerical or alphabetical list, skim over numbers and letters until you reach the general area where what you are looking for should be.

Skimming Exercises 1

Exercise S-19. In the following list of Roman emperors, skim to locate the name of the emperor who ruled in A.D. 57:

A.D. 14-37	Tiberius
37-41	Caligula
41-54	Tiberius
54-68	Nero
68-69	Galba
69	Otho
69	Vitellius
69-79	Vespasian

If you read the name of the ruler from A.D. 14 to 37, you have not skimmed. The obvious way to skim here is to run your eyes rapidly down the list of dates, neglecting all others but what you are looking for. Then read across to the name.

Exercise S-20. In the following list of abbreviations of languages, skim to find answers to the following questions.

1. What does the abbreviation *Ind.* stand for? _____
2. What is the abbreviation of Sanskrit? _____
3. Which language had a longer historical period, Middle English or Middle French? _____
4. Is *G* the abbreviation of German, Germanic, Gothic, or Greek? _____
5. How many different abbreviations refer to some historical period of Latin? _____

AF	Anglo-French	LL	Late Latin
Arner. Ind.	American Indian	ME	Middle English (1100-1500)
Ar.	Arabic	MF	Middle French (1400-1600)
Ararn.	Aramaic	Mex.	Mexican
D	Dutch	MGk.	Medieval Greek (700-1500)
Dan.	Danish	ML	Medieval Latin (700-1500)
Egypt.	Egyptian	NL	Neo-Latin or New Latin
F	French	Norw.	Norwegian
Fris.	Frisian	OE	Old English (before 1100)
G	German	OF	Old French (before 1400)
Gk.	Greek	OS	Old Saxon
Gmc.	Germanic	Pers.	Persian
Goth.	Gothic	Pg.	Portuguese
Heb.	Hebrew	Pol.	Polish
HG	High German	Pr.	Provencal
Hind.	Hindustani	Rom.	Romance, Romanic
Hung.	Hungarian	Russ.	Russian
Icel.	Icelandic	Scand.	Scandinavian
IE	Indo-European	Scot.	Scottish
It.	Italian	Skt.	Sanskrit
Jap.	Japanese	Sp.	Spanish
L	Latin	Sw.	Swedish
LG	Low German	Turk.	Turkish
LGk.	Late Greek	VL	Vulgar Latin
LHeb.	Late Hebrew	WGmc.	West Germanic

Eurcuc 5-21. In each of the following paragraphs, you should skim to find specific information. Do not read closely. Skim across each line smoothly, looking only for a date, a name, or a fact that answers the question which precedes each paragraph. You should find each answer in five seconds.

1. Question: When was Amenemhet III pharaoh of Egypt?

Petrie first dug into the pyramids at Giza in 1880 and then went on in 1889 to a pyramid near the Nile. Here he came upon the burial place of Amenemhet III, one of the great pharaohs of Egypt around 1800 e.c. The discovery was important in itself, but it also led Petrie to devise a system of classifying and grouping archaeological finds which is still used.

2. Question: By what date were the Anglo-Saxons firmly established in England?

Not much is surely known about the arrival of the Anglo-Saxons in England. According to the best early source, the eighth-century historian Bede, the Jutes came in 449 in response to a plea from the Celtic king, Vortigern, who wanted their help against the Picts. The Jutes conquered the Picts but then quarreled and fought with

Vortigern, and with reinforcements from the continent, settled permanently in Kent. Somewhat later the Angles established themselves in eastf'r'n England and the Saxons in the south and west. The Angles, Saxons, and Jutes were a long time securing themselves in England. Fightin♦ went on for as long as a hundred years before the Celts were all killed, driven into Wales, or reduced to slavery. This is the period of King Arthur, who was not entirely mythological. By about 550 the Anglo-Saxons were firmly established. English was in England.

3. *Question:* Who was the most famous king of the West Saxons?

In the eighth century, Northumbrian power declined and the center of influence moved southward to Mercia, the kingdom of the Midlands. A century later the center shifted again, and Wessex, the country of the West Saxons. became a leading power. The famous king of the West Saxons was Alfred the Great, who reigned in the second half of the ninth century, dying in 901. He was famous not only ac; a military man and administrator but also as a champion of learning. He founded supported schools and translated or caused to be translated many books from Latin in English.

4. *Question:* How did Ponce de Leon die?

Less than 6.fy years after Columbus's discovery of the New World, naval commanders of Spain explored the coastline of North and South America. Juan Ponce de Leon was the first Spanish leader to-see any part of what is now the United States. It was in March 1513 that he landed on the sandy shores of a land which he called La Florida after the Spanish Easter feast. Legend claims that he wa; looking for a fountain of youth. \What he found, however, was death at the hands of Indians who struggled against his efforts to enslave them.

5. *Question:* Why did Magellan give the name "Pacific" to the Pacific Ocean?

The Pacific Ocean is a little less than twice the size of the- Atlantic Ocean, covering more of the earth than all of the continents combined. Between the Philippines and Panama, the ocean is more than 10,000 miles wide. In some phlces it is more than 6 miles deep. This ocean was named hy the Portuguese explorer, Fenli• nand Magellan, who led the first expedition around the world. In 1519, when he first saw the ocean, he culled it ..Pncifil," because it was so smooth and calm compared to the stonny Atlntic which he had just crossed.

¹ Paul Roberts, *Undnatandng Englul,,* p. 3◀. Copyri1ht 1958 by Paul Roberts. Dy permission of Harper & Row, Publ1shen, New York.
"Ibid., p. 35.

SUMMING TO GET AN OVERALL IMPRESSION, The second purpose of skimming is somewhat the opposite of the first. Instead of looking for a single fact, you are interested only in getting a general impression of the material. You use this kind of skimming when you first survey a chapter in a textbook, or when you want to determine whether an article contains new or useful information about a topic you are interested in.

For skimming of this kind, you ignore all details and look instead for the main ideas. These are usually expressed in topic sentences which often occur at the beginning or, less often, at the end of a paragraph. Therefore, it is useful to look only at the first and last sentences of each paragraph. You are likely to find there the transitions, summaries, and conclusions that are important to the development and statements of the main idea.

In rapid reading of this kind, it is also helpful to notice the arrangement and typographical devices that are used to organize and emphasize the material. Reference books and textbooks usually use different **means** of type to signal divisions. Sections are often summarized in headings or captions. Important ideas, formulas, or definitions are sometimes italicized or separated from the main text by spaces or boxes.

Skimming Exercise 2

The following exercises will give you practice in skimming to get an overall impression of only the main ideas. The first two are easy because the topic sentences are printed in capital letters. & you read homework assignments for your courses, get in the habit of first surveying the material by skimming through it quickly.

Exercise 5-D. Skim through the following reading selection for **only 16** minutes. Read only for the main ideas.

ASTRONOMERS ARE CERTAIN THAT THE MOON CANNOT SUSTAIN LIFE AS WE HAVE IT ON EARTH.

IN THE FIRST PLACE, THE MOON IS AIRLESS. More accurately, it may have a very thin atmosphere—about $1/10,000$ and $1/1,000,000$ as dense as that on earth—but this amount would be little better than none at all. It is not enough to breathe or to carry sound.

SECONDLY, THE MOON LACKS WATER. If the moon ever had water, it has long since disappeared and now there are no lakes, no rivers, and (despite names such as the Sea of Tranquility) no oceans. Without any atmosphere, water would turn to vapor. & because the moon's gravity is much too weak to hold vapor on its surface, it would float away into space.



THIRDLY, WITHOUT AIR OR WATER, THE MOON HAS NO WEATHER. Clouds, rain or snow never appear in the sky or moisten its surface. The moon is a dry, dead, weatherless world.

FINALLY, TEMPERATURES ON THE MOON ARE EXTREMES OF HOT AND COLD. Days there are 28 earth-days long; therefore, periods of daylight and darkness last two weeks each. For 14 days one side of the moon bakes in the sun while the other side freezes in darkness.

BECAUSE THE MOON IS AN AIRLESS, WATERLESS, WEATHERLESS SATELLITE WITH HARSH EXTREMES OF TEMPERATURE, NO KIND OF LIFE AS WE KNOW IT ON EARTH COULD POSSIBLY EXIST THERE.

Now answer the following question: What are four reasons why astronomers do not believe life exists on the moon?

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____

Exercise 5-13. Skim through the following reading selection in 100 seconds. Be prepared to answer questions about its main ideas.

EVERYONE KNOWS THAT TAXATION IS NECESSARY IN A MODERN STATE. Without it, it would be impossible to pay the soldiers and policemen who protect us; nor the workers in government offices who look after our health, our food, our water, and all the other things that we cannot do for ourselves; nor also the persons who govern the country for us. By means of taxation, we pay for things that we need just as much as we need somewhere to live and something to eat.

THOUGH EVERYONE KNOWS THAT TAXATION IS NECESSARY, DIFFERENT PEOPLE HAVE DIFFERENT IDEAS ABOUT HOW TAXATION SHOULD BE ARRANGED. Should each person have to pay a certain amount of money to the government each year? Or should there be a tax on things that people buy and sell? If the first kind of taxation is used, should everyone pay the same tax, whether he is rich or poor? If the second kind of tax is used, should everything be taxed equally?

IN MOST COUNTRIES, A DIRECT TAX ON PERSONS, CALLED AN INCOME TAX, IS USED. It is arranged in such a way that the poor people pay nothing, and the percentage of tax grows

greater as the taxpayer's income grows. In some countries, for example, the tax on the richest people goes as high as 90 or 95 percent.

COUNTRIES WITH DIRECT TAXATION NEARLY ALWAYS HAVE INDIRECT TAXATION TOO. Many things imported into the country are taxed. Of course, it is the people who buy these imported things who really have to pay the duties, in the form of higher prices. In some countries, there is also a tax on things produced in the country itself. If the most necessary things are taxed, a lot of money is collected, but the poor people suffer the most. If unnecessary things like jewels and fur coats are taxed, less money is collected, but the tax is fairer because the rich pay it.

PROBABLY THIS KIND OF INDIRECT TAX, TOGETHER WITH A DIRECT TAX ON INCOMES WHICH IS LOW FOR THE POOR AND HIGH FOR THE RICH, IS THE BEST ARRANGEMENT.

Now answer the following questions.

1. In one word, what is this reading selection about?

2. Does everyone agree or disagree about how taxation should be arranged?

3. What is a direct tax on persons called?

4. Give one example of an indirect tax.

5. According to the author, what is the best tax arrangement?

Exercise 2. The following reading selection contains about 400 words.

Skim through it in 30 seconds (that is, at 800 words a minute), and be ready to answer the following questions:

1. What three conditions does the author mention for life to be able to exist on other planets in the universe?
2. About how many planets in our galaxy might support life like that on earth?



Many scientists today are convinced that life exists elsewhere in the universe—life probably much like that on our own planet. They reason in the following way.

As far as astronomers can determine, the entire universe is built of the same matter. They have no reason to doubt that matter obeys the same laws in every part of the universe. Therefore, it is reasonable to assume that other stars, with their own planets, were born in the same way as our own solar system. What we know of life on earth suggests that life will arise wherever the proper conditions exist.

Life requires the right amount and kind of atmosphere. This eliminates all those planets in the universe that are not about the same size and weight as the earth. A smaller planet would lose its atmosphere; a larger one would hold too much of it.

Life also requires a steady supply of heat and light. This eliminates double and triple stars, or stars that flare up suddenly. Only single stars that are steady sources of heat and light like our sun would qualify.

Finally, life could evolve only if the planet is just the right distance from its sun. With a weaker sun than our own, the planet would have to be closer to it. With a stronger sun, it would have to be farther away.

If we suppose that every star in the universe has a family of planets, then how many planets might support life? First, eliminate those stars that are not like our sun. Next, eliminate most of their planets; they are either too far from or too close to their suns. Then eliminate all those planets which are not the same size and weight as the earth. Finally, remember that the proper conditions do not necessarily mean that life actually does exist on a planet. It may not have begun yet, or it may have already died out.

This process of elimination seems to leave very few planets on which earthlike life might be found. However, even if life could exist on only one planet in a million, there are so many billions of planets that this would still leave a vast number on which life could exist. For example, astronomers estimate that in our galaxy alone, which is but one of many, there may be nearly 50 billion families of planets. Of these, there might be 100,000 on which life like that on earth could exist.

Now answer the following questions,

1. List the three proper conditions necessary for life on other planets.

a. -----

b. -----

c. -----

2. About how many planets in our galaxy might support life like that on earth?

Vocabulary Exercise

Exercise 5-U. The following words have appeared thus far in this chapter. They may or may not be familiar to you. Because they are fairly common words which you will see often, if you are not sure of their meanings, write them in your vocabulary record.

to adapt
the adolescent
the analogy
to attribute
the authenticity
to confound
contemporary
deductive
to designate

the doctrine
the former
the galaxy
to glance
to imply
inductive
intricate
the latter
miscellaneous

to perceive
peripheral
the regression
to repel
to replenish
the respiration
subsequent
the superstition
the vapor

Most of your reading will be the purposeful, study-type reading of textbooks. Though you may often use a skimming technique, usually you will use a careful, close reading technique in order to understand specific information. This includes facts, formulas, dates, causes, effects, attitudes, ideas, experiments, results—the whole range of information that is contained in the textbooks of your various courses. Though the subject matter is different, its organization and presentation are similar. Because this kind of reading is so important to you, it will be useful to look closely at what a textbook contains, and at how you can make the most efficient use of its contents.

Textbook Reading

SURVEYING THE TEXTBOOK. Your textbook is going to be your companion for quite a long time. As with a friend, it is helpful to get acquainted. When you first get the book, skim through it to see what is included and how it is organized. Look especially at the following parts.

Title Page. It is surprising how many students do not know the title of their textbook or its author's name. It may not seem important, but since you are going to put confidence in the author and his book, it may be worthwhile to know his name, who he is, and where he comes from. This is essential, of course, if you must prepare footnotes or a bibliography.

Preface or Foreword: In the preface (sometimes called the foreword or introduction), the author explains the purpose, organization, method of presentation, and whatever particular features of the book he wishes to call to your attention. Frequently in textbooks there is a section titled "To the Student." Read it carefully. The author is recommending how to use his book efficiently.

❑ **مقدمه of Content:** Skim through the table of contents to gain an overall view of the material in the book. Some tables of contents are actually outlines, with subtopics of each chapter. This section of the text is the fastest, easiest way to survey the territory over which you will travel.

❑ **محتوای:** The chapters of most textbooks include a variety of guides. Section headings, in boldface type, announce the general subject of the material that follows. Frequently you will find summaries at the end of each chapter, often with thought questions and exercises. Many texts contain maps, charts, diagrams, and tables. Don't ignore them. They have been included to help you visualize the information. They are valuable aids to understanding. Know how to read them, and read them.

Glossary: Many textbooks include a glossary, either at the end of each chapter or at the end of the book. This is a kind of dictionary which defines or explains some of the technical terms in the book, and often provides examples and page references.

Bibliography: An alphabetical list of relevant books and articles is frequently included either at the end of each chapter or at the end of the book. If you want further information on the subject, or if you want to know the author's sources, the bibliography will list them by author, title, publisher, and date.

Index: One of the most important sections of any textbook is the index at the end. This is usually a thorough, fairly detailed alphabetical listing of all the major persons, places, ideas, facts, or topics that the book contains, with page references. For review, or for quickly locating some point you wish to check, the index is a valuable guide.

Textbook Exercises

Exercise 5-28. Choose two textbooks which you are currently studying. They may be for the same or different courses. On page 124,

in the special provided, highlight the two books. Then compare them by writing brief comments about each of the following parts.

1. **Bibliographical information.** For each book, write the name of the author(s), title of the book, place and date of publication, and the publisher.
2. **Front matter.** Does the book have a preface, foreword, introduction, To the Teacher, or To the Student? What information here might be useful for a better understanding of the purpose, content, and arrangement of the text? What differences in this part do the two books show? Is one preferable to the other? Why?
3. **Table of contents.** Does the Table of Contents give you a general idea of the material and organization of the book? Is it only a list of chapter titles? Is it a kind of outline with topics and subtopics? How do the two Tables of Content compare? Which is more useful? Why?
4. **Tert.** Are there different typographical devices to mark off sections and to emphasize important material? Are there summaries, notes, or additional readings at the end of the chapters? Are there maps, diagrams, charts, graphs, or tables to clarify significant points? Is the type clear, the margin wide, and the overall effect of the page pleasing to the eye? Without considering their content, which of the books is more appealing because of its organization, layout, and various reading aids?
5. **Back matter.** Does either of the books have a glossary? Are technical terms defined clearly as they occur in the text? Are they defined in a separate section, either in the chapter or at the end of the book? Does either of the books have a bibliography? If so, does it have brief comments about the content and relative value of the books that are listed? Is the bibliography at the end of each chapter, or is it placed at the end of the text?
6. **Index.** Compare the index of each book. Is one more complete than the other? Is there special information at the beginning of the index that *you* should know about in order to make best use of it? Think of a specific topic in each course and try to find page references quickly. Is there any reason to prefer the index of one book to that of the other? Why?

1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
a	

Exercise 5-27. Below is the Table of Contents from a book by Robert A. Hall, Jr., entitled *Linguistics and Your Language*.¹ Look at it closely, then answer the following questions.

Contents

PART I: THINGS WE WORRY ABOUT

1. Which Should I Say?	1
2. Right vs. Wrong	9
3. Marks You Make with Your Fiat	30
4. What Price History?	49

PART II: HOW LANGUAGE IS BUILT

5. Language Has System	57
6. Language Has Sound	68
7. Language Has Form	97

PART III: LANGUAGE IN THE WORLD AROUND US

8. Language Has Meaning	121
9. Language Covers Territory	135
10. Language Doesn't Stay the Same	157

PART IV: WHAT WE CAN DO ABOUT LANGUAGE

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12. Learning Another Language	209
13. One World, One Language?	228
14. There's Nothing Wrong with Your Language	242

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1. This book is divided into four parts. How many chapters does the book contain?
2. Judging from the titles of Parts I, II, and III, what is the general topic we worry about, referred to in Part I?
3. Assume that you are interested in each of the topics listed at the left below. If this book includes information about the topic, write the chapter number on the line at the right. If there does not seem

¹ By permission from Robert A. Hall, Jr., *Linguistics and Your Language*, Anchor Books (Doubleday), Garden City, N.Y., 1960.

to be any information about the topic, write None. The first has been done as an example.

- a. language families and dialects 9
 - b. the origin of language _____
 - c. an international language _____
 - d. language change _____
 - e. pronunciation _____
 - f. the language of poetry _____
 - g. how to learn a foreign language _____
4. If this book includes a bibliography, write the page number on which it begins. If it does not, write *None*. _____

Exercise 5-18. On the opposite page is part of the index from a book by Mario Pei entitled *The Story of Language*.¹⁰ Study it, then answer the following questions.

1. On what page can you find information about the Irish alphabet?
2. ~~Is there any information in this book about grammatical agreement in Slavic? If so, on what page?~~
3. ~~Is there any information in this book about Anatolian dialects? If so, on what page?~~
4. ~~On what page can you find information about the syntax of the Indian languages of America?~~
5. ~~If you wanted information about the polite forms of address, under what word would you look in this index?~~
6. ~~In this book there is information about the Turkish alphabet on 303f. There is information about the Roman alphabet on 75ff. What do f. and ff. stand for? (If you are not sure, check your dictionary.)~~

¹⁰ First page of the Index for Mario Pei, *The Story of Language*. Copyright 1949 by Mario Pei. Reprinted by arrangement with J. B. Lippincott Company, Philadelphia.

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Jobson)

Eurcw 1-19. Below is part of an index from a physics textbook. Look at it closely, then answer the following questions.

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11nd th, /'hylic/11, 239
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tion)
Dynami1m, defnillon, 17

1. How many pages of information are there in this text for
 de Broglie waves _____
 dispersion _____
 displacement _____
 Doppler effect in spectra _____
 diffusion of molecules _____
2. There is information about C. J. Doppler on pages 212 and 238n. Do you suppose the *n* refers to (a) a new or first reference, (b) a note, such as a footnote, (c) a page between page 238m and page 238o?

3. *Doppler: The Mathematician and the Physicist* is a reference to (a) an article, (b) a book, (c) a chapter in this text, (d) a footnote.

4. In what *two* places would you find a definition of dynamism?

5. On what page would you find information about DOVAC?

6. There is information about dielectrics on page 289. Where else in the index would a reference to dielectrics be found?

7. On what page is there information about diffraction of light by a slit?

Exercise 5-30. Assume that you have been assigned to write a report on American history. You look at the index in Volume IV of Winston Churchill, *A History of the English Speaking People*.¹¹ Skim through the United States entry in the index to determine if there is any information about each of the topics below. If there is, write the page references. If there is not, write *None*.

¹¹ Cassell & Co., Ltd., London, 1958. Reprinted by permission,

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1. The purchase of Alaska
2. World War I
3. Irish hnmigrants to the U.S.
4. War with Me:dcu
5. The Monroe Doctrine
6. Churchill and Roosevelt 1fgn the Atlantic Charter
7. Effect of the civil war
8. The slavery iuue
9. Tbe admiuton of ffawali and lJuka u Itatel in the union
10. Early political butmy

Reading the Assignment

Reading is not a passive skill as it may first seem to be when compared with speaking or writing. Reading is actually a kind of dialog between the reader and the author. Reading involves as much alertness and participation as does a conversation: asking questions, evaluating answers, summarizing ideas, then asking more questions, and so on.

A useful technique for reading a textbook assignment has been called SQ3R.¹¹ This code-standing for Survey, Question, Read, Recite, and Review-describes the five successive steps that should be followed while reading study-type material.

1. Survey: When you are assigned a section of a textbook to study, first survey the pages to get a general idea of the material. Skim quickly over the topic headings; look at the pictures, graphs, charts, or diagrams; see if there are questions or a summary at the end.

2. Question: After a rapid survey, ask yourself questions based on the material you have surveyed. This helps you to read with a purpose, looking for specific answers and anticipating essential points of information.

3. Read: Next read as rapidly as possible. Because you know what you are looking for and where you are going, your reading speed should be faster than if you had not first surveyed the pages and formulated questions for which you are seeking answers.

4. Recite: At the end of each section, summarize the material by reciting to yourself the important points. This helps you consolidate the information you have read, to relate it to previous information, and to prepare yourself for what is to follow.

5. Review: Finally, when you have finished the assignment, immediately review the material so that it will form a unified whole. Also, when you have the next assignment in the text, review the preceding material, surveying it rapidly to refresh your memory. Each section, though read separately and at different times, will fit together into the total organization of the material that the author intended.

Exercise 5-31. Practice using the SQ3R technique by reading the following essay.¹ Follow these five steps:

¹¹ Francis P. Robinson, *Effective Study*, Harper & Row, New York, 1946.

¹¹ Adapted by permission from Mortimer J. Adler, "How to Make a Book," *Saturday Review of Literature*, July 6, 1940; copyright 1940 The Saturday Review Company, Inc.; renewed July 6, 1967 Saturday Review, Inc.

First, survey the selection so that you have a general idea of its content. Do this by skimming over the section headings.

Second, ask yourself questions for which you expect to find answers. For example, Why is marking a book an act of love? What are the two ways of owning a book? Questions of this sort prepare you to read for a specific purpose.

Third, read as rapidly as possible, adjusting your speed to the content. Read to find specific answers to your questions. Underline key words. Mark main ideas. Number supporting details.

Fourth, when you finish each section, briefly recite to yourself the main point, of the section. Be sure you understand the author's argument and his reasons for it. Think about it; decide if you agree or not. Then go on to the next section.

Fifth, when you have finished the entire selection, review the section headings. Summarize the main ideas of the essay.

HOW TO MARK A BOOK

Mortimer J. Adler

You know you have to read "between the lines" to get the most out of anything. I want to persuade you to do something equally important in the course of your reading. I want to persuade you to "write between the lines." Unless you do, you are not likely to do the most efficient kind of reading.

Marking a Book Is an Act of Love

I contend, quite bluntly, that marking up a book is not an act of mutilation but of love. You shouldn't mark up a book which isn't yours. Librarians (or your friends) who lend you books expect you to keep them clean, and you should. If you decide that I am right about the usefulness of marking books, you will have to buy them.

Two Ways of Owning a Book

There are two ways in which you can own a book. The first is the property right you establish by paying for it, just as you pay for clothes or furniture. But this act of purchase is only the prelude to possession. Full ownership comes only when you have made it a part of yourself, and the best way to make yourself a part of it is by writing in it. An illustration may make the point clear. You buy a steak and transfer it from the butcher's icebox to your own. But you do not own the steak in the most important sense until you consume it and get it into your bloodstream. So do you any good.

Confusion about what it means to own a book leads people to a

false reverence for paper, binding, and type--a respect for the physical thing--the craft of the printer rather than the genius of the author. They forget that it is possible for a man to acquire the idea, to possess the beauty, which a great book contains, without staking his claim by pasting his bookplate inside the cover. Having a fine library doesn't prove that its owner has a mind enriched by books; it proves nothing more than that he, his father, or his wife, was rich enough to buy them.

Three Kinds of Book Owner,

There are three kinds of book owners. The first has all the standard sets and best-sellers-unread, untouched. (This deluded individual owns wood pulp and ink, not books.) The second has a great many books--a few of them read through, most of them dipped into, but all of them as clean and shiny as the day they were bought. (This person would probably like to make books his own, but is restrained by a false respect for their physical appearance.) The third has a few books or many--every one of them dog-eared and dilapidated, shaken and loosened by continual use, marked and scribbled in from front to back. (This man owns books.)

Reasons for Marking a Book

Why is marking up a book indispensable to reading? First, it keeps you awake. In the second place, reading, if it is active, is thinking, and thinking tends to express itself in words spoken or written. The marked book is usually the thought-through book. Finally, writing helps you remember the thoughts you had, or the thoughts the author expressed. Let me develop these three points.

If reading is to accomplish anything more than passing time, it must be active. You can't let your eyes glide across the lines of a book and come up with an understanding of what you have read. Now an ordinary piece of fiction, *Gone with the Wind*, for example, doesn't require the most active kind of reading. The books you read for pleasure can be read in a state of relaxation, and nothing is lost. But a great book, rich in ideas and beauty, a book that raises and tries to answer fundamental questions, demands the most active reading of which you are capable. You don't absorb the ideas of Aristotle the way you absorb the crooning of Frank Sinatra. You have to reach for them. That you cannot do while you are asleep. If, when you've finished reading a book, the pages are filled with your notes, you know that you read actively.

But, you may ask, why is writing necessary? Well, the physical act of writing, with your own hand, brings words and sentences more sharply before your mind and preserves them better in your memory. To set down your reaction to important words and sentences you have read, and the questions that have been raised in your mind, is to preserve those reactions and sharpen those questions.

Even if you wrote on a scratch pad, and threw the paper away when

you had finished writing, your grasp of the book would be surer. But you don't have to throw the paper away. The margins (top and bottom, as well as side), the end-papers, the very space between the lines, are all available. They aren't sacred. And, best of all, your marks and notes become an integral part of the book and stay there forever. You can pick up the book the following week or year, and there are all your points of agreement, disagreement, doubt, and inquiry. It's like resuming an interrupted conversation with the advantage of being able to pick up where you left off.

And that is exactly what reading a book should be: a conversation between you and the author. Presumably he knows more about the subject than you do; naturally, you'll have the proper humility as you approach him. But don't let anybody tell you that a reader is supposed to be solely on the receiving end. Understanding is a two-way operation; learning doesn't consist in being an empty receptacle. The learner has to question himself and question the teacher. He even has to argue with the teacher, once he understands what the teacher is saying. And marking a book is literally an expression of your differences, or agreements of opinion, with the author.

Way, of Marking a Book

There are all kinds of devices for marking a book intelligently and fruitfully. Here's the way I do it:

1. Underlining: of major points, of important or forceful statements.
2. Vertical line in the margin: to emphasize a statement already underlined.
3. Star, or asterisk, in the margin: to be used sparingly, to emphasize the ten or twenty most important statements in the book.
4. Number, in the margin: to indicate where else in the book the author made points relevant to the point marked; to tie up the ideas in a book which, though they may be separated by many pages, belong together.
6. Circling of key word, or phrase.
7. Writing in the margin, or at the top or bottom of the page, for the purpose of: recording questions (and perhaps answers) which a passage raised in your mind; reducing a complicated discussion to a simple statement; recording the sequence of major points right through the book.

You may say that this business of marking books is going to slow up your reading. It probably will. That's one of the reasons for doing it. Most of us have been taken in by the notion that speed of reading is a measure of our intelligence. There is no such thing as the right speed for intelligent reading. Some things should be read quickly and effortlessly, and some should be read slowly and even laboriously. The sign of intelligence in reading is the ability to read different things differently according to their worth. In the case of good books, the point is

not to see how many of them you can get through, but rather how many can get through you-how many you can make your own. A few friends are better than a thousand acquaintances, If this be your aim, it should be, you will not be impatient if it takes more time and effort to read a great book than it does a newspaper.

E ? ! While reading the following selection,¹ first cover the right-hand column with a piece of paper. Read the selection and underline key words and phrases, topic and summary sentences. When you have finished reading the selection, uncover the right-hand column and check your understanding of the organization of the passage.

THE NEED FOR CRUSADER CASTLES

There were three main reasons why the Crusaders fortified the Holy Land and devoted to castle building so much of their time, skill, and energy. The first reason was the curious shape of the Latin Kingdom; the second was the lack of manpower; and the third was the need of feudal administration.

The Latin Kingdom which the Crusaders maintained with varying success for nearly two hundred years was an unusual shape. The territory included the Kingdom of Jerusalem, the County of Tripoli, the Principality of Antioch, and (for only fifty years) the County of Edessa. It was between four and five hundred miles long, but, except in the extreme north, it was dangerously narrow, being rarely more than fifty to seventy miles across. In the County of Tripoli, its wasp-like waist was only twenty-five miles broad. Few areas were not exposed to the danger of sudden raids before the feudal army could be gathered. In the geographical circumstances, fortification was essential. Castles offered a refuge to those living in the immediate neighborhood. They also provided strong

Question: Why was there need for Crusader Castles?

Topic sentence: "three reasons why the Crusaders fortified"

1. curious shape of kingdom
2. lack of manpower
3. need of feudal administration

First reason restated

Evidence:

400-500 miles long
but
only
50-70 miles wide

Result of preceding fact


¹ Adapted from Robin Fedden and John Thomson, *Crusader Castles*. (Hayat, Beirut, 1957, pp. 14-19.

points from which control could be resumed over the surrounding L'Ountry when the invader had withdrawn. **Castles** were the key to the **land**. If the invader wished to conquer territory permanently, the **castles** had to be conquered first.

Summary:

Castles were the key to the land.

Second reason. Note **transition** phrase: ..as much as ... kingdom..

Shortage of manpower, as much as the shape of the Latin Kingdom, made castle-building necessary. The Holy Land was lost for lack of men. The **army which set out from Nicaea in 1097** was gigantic by the **standards** of the day. **But** at **Dorylaeum**, and to a greater extent in the hot summer crossing of Anatolia, losses **were immense**. Probably fewer than 20,000 men attacked Antioch. Moreover, as the Crusade approached its goal, commanders left with their military following to establish for themselves feudal kingdoms in the new territory. By the time the main crusading force reached Jerusalem in 1099, it included probably no **more** than 1,500 knights and ten times as many foot soldiers. After the city had fallen, and the primary objective of the Crusade had been gained, many of the **Franks** with their followers returned to Europe. The **new** ruler, Godfrey of Lorraine, was left with about **300 mounted** knights. Although the heavily  knight was an effective **weapon**, and Tancred with only 80 was **to capture** Tiberias and gain the **title** of Prince of Galilee, such restricted numbers could hardly maintain a kingdom. Failing adequate **reinforcements**, there remained only fortification. Stones were made **to** do the work of soldiers.

HBaOn6 for lack of manpower;

1. loss of men at Dorylaeum
2. hot, dry **summer** moreover
3. commanders left and established kingdoms of their **own**
4. After **capture** of **Jerusalem**, many Crusaders returned to Europe

Summary of paragraph

Third reason. Note **transition** word finally

Castles **finally were an essential feature** of feudal administration. In the Latin states this became a **complex** and **highly** developed **form**. Though **many** of the **Frankish barons** had their **town houses**, in addition they needed secure centers from which to administer their land. Castles that were conveniently situated and provided with the **various** offices of **medieval administration**, served as administrative centers. In describing Crusader castles, historians tend to dwell as much upon their vineyards and revenues as upon their fortification. **Saphet is praised for the richness of its soil and the abundance of its fruits** and mention is made of its **260** villages where 10,000 men labored in the

Explanation of feudal administration

Example

fields. Castles were not only weapons; they were vital centers of business and administration.

Geography, lack of manpower, internal security and administration; these go far to account for the number and importance of Crusader castles.

Summary of paragraph

Summary of three reasons, and restatement of first paragraph

Exercise S-33. Read the following selection.¹¹ As you do, mark it in this way: (1) Write a brief statement of its topic in the margin; (2) write numbers in the margin for each main idea about the topic; (S) underline each main idea.

To improve your reading habits, you must understand the characteristics of a good reader. First, he can concentrate. Because he is rapidly seeking out and categorizing main ideas and supporting details as he reads, he is able to complete an assignment without losing his way, without losing interest, without being distracted by random sights or sounds or thoughts.

Second, the good reader reads rapidly. True, he does not read every piece of material at the same rate, but whether he is reading a newspaper, a novel, the instructions accompanying a do-it-yourself kit, or a chapter in a physics text, his rate is relatively fast. He has learned to read for ideas rather than words one at a time.

Next, because the good reader is reading for ideas and moving through the material quickly, he is able to recognize and understand the elements that form any piece of prose—the author's general thesis, and the details that support the ideas. Thus he is able to comprehend the material with a minimum of effort and a maximum of interest.

Finally, the good reader has at his command several special skills which he can apply to reading problems as they occur. For the college student, the most helpful of these skills include taking advantage of the various aids to understanding that most textbooks provide and skim reading for a general survey.

¹¹ Adapted from Jameli E. Day, "Improving Your Reading Ability," in Russel Lye and Wilma Ebbitt, *Structure in Reading and Writing*. Copyright © 1961 by Scott, Foresman, Glenview, Ill.

Exercise 5-34. Use the SQ3R technique while reading the following selection." Mark the selection in any way which you think would be helpful to your understanding and future reviewing.

SPACING MECHANISMS IN ANIMALS

In addition to territory that is identified with a particular plot of ground, each animal is surrounded by a series of bubbles or irregularly shaped balloons that serve to maintain proper spacing between individuals. Hediger has identified and described a number of such distances which appear to be used in one form or another by most animals. Two of these—flight distance and critical distance—are used when individuals of different species meet; whereas personal and social distance can be observed during interactions between members of the same species.

Flight Distance

Any observant person has noticed that a wild animal will allow a man or other potential enemy to approach only up to a given distance before it flees. "Flight distance" is Hediger's term for this interspecies spacing mechanism. As a general rule, there is a positive correlation between the size of an animal and its flight distance—the larger the animal, the greater the distance it must keep between itself and the enemy. An antelope will flee when the intruder is as much as five hundred yards away. The wall lizard's flight distance, on the other hand, is about six feet. There are, of course, other ways of coping with a predator, such as camouflage, protective armor or spines, or defensive odor. But flight is the basic mechanism of survival for mobile creatures.

Critical Distance

Critical distances or zones apparently are present wherever and whenever there is a flight reaction. "Critical distance" encompasses the narrow zone

separating Right distance from attack distance. A lion in a zoo will flee from an approaching man until it meets an insurmountable barrier. If the man continues the approach, he soon penetrates the lion's critical distance, at which point the cornered lion reverses direction and begins slowly to stalk the man.

In the classical animal act in the circus, the lion's stalking is so deliberate that he will surmount an intervening obstacle such as a stool in order to get at the man. To get the lion to remain on the stool, the lion tamer quickly steps out of the critical zone. At this point, the lion stops pursuing. The trainer's elaborate protective devices—the chair, the whip, or the gun—are so much window dressing.

Contact and Non-Contact Species

In regard to the use of space, it is possible to observe a basic and sometimes inexplicable dichotomy in the animal world. Some species huddle together and require physical contact with each other. Others completely avoid touching. No apparent logic governs the category into which a species falls. Contact creatures include the walrus, the hippopotamus, the pig, the brown bat, the parakeet, and the hedgehog among many other species. The horse, the dog, the cat, the rat, the hawk, and the blackheaded gull are non-contact species. Curiously enough, closely related animals may belong to different categories. The great Emperor penguin is a contact species. It conserves heat through contact with its fellows by huddling together in large groups and thus increases its adaptability to the cold. Its range extends over many parts of Antarctica. The smaller Adelie penguin is a non-contact species. Thus it is somewhat less adaptable to cold than the Emperor, and its range is apparently more limited.

Personal Distance

Personal distance is the term applied by Hediger to the normal spacing that non-contact animals maintain between themselves and their fellows. This distance acts as an individual bubble that surrounds the organism. Outside the bubble two organisms are not as intimately involved with each other as when the bubbles overlap. Social organi-

zation is a factor in personal distance. Dominant animals tend to have larger personal distances than those which occupy lower positions in the social hierarchy, while subordinate animals have been observed to yield room to dominant ones.

Social Distance

Social animals need to stay in touch with each other. Loss of contact with the group can be fatal for a variety of reasons including exposure to predators. Social distance is not simply the distance at which an animal will lose contact with his group--that is, the distance at which it can no longer see, hear, or smell the group--it is rather a psychological distance, one at which the animal apparently begins to feel anxious when he exceeds its limits. We can think of it as a hidden band that *contains* the group.

Social distance varies from species to species. It is quite short--apparently only a few yards--among flamingos, and quite long among some other birds.

Social distance is not always rigidly fixed but is determined in part by the situation. When the young of apes and humans are mobile but not yet under control of the mother's voice, social distance may be the length of her reach. This is readily observed among the baboons in a zoo. When the baby approaches a certain point, the mother reaches out to seize the end of its tail and pull it back to her. When added control is needed because of danger, social distance shrinks. To document this in man, one has only to watch a family with a number of small children holding hands as they cross a busy street.

Vocabulary Exercise

Emcue S-36. The following words have appeared since the last vocabulary exercise in this chapter. Because they are fairly common words which you will see often, if you are not sure of their meanings, write them in your vocabulary record.

the abundance
the alertness
to anticipate
apparent

appealing
the asterisk
the barrier
the bibliography

bluntly
the camouflage
complex
to consolidate



to contend	intimately	readily
to cope	the intruder	the receptacle
the correlation	insunnountable	the reinforcement
the device	literally	relevant
the dialog	mobile	to restrain
the dichotomy	the mutilation	to resume
dominant	the notion	the reverence
to encompass	the obstacle	to scribble
the glossary	to penetrate	solely
the hierarchy	to persuade	sparingly
the humility	the prelude	to stalk
inexplicable	to preserve	to survey
to intervene	presumably	to be taken in
		the transition

A textbook author and his publisher present their material as clearly and effectively as possible. In almost all textbooks you will find the usual front matter (such as the preface and table of contents) and back matter (such as the bibliography and index). In addition, depending upon the subject, most textbooks include some of the following aids to help you understand and interpret the material: footnotes, photographs, tables, charts, maps-, diagrams, and graphs. You are probably familiar with these aids, although you may occasionally overlook their value. Because of their importance as well as the possibility of their misinterpretation, it will be useful to practice reading some of the most common aids.

Aids to Reading and Interpretation

FOOTNOTES. Whenever an author reprints an exact quotation, or when he summarizes or refers to a fact or opinion that is original with someone else, he must acknowledge his source. He does this by inserting a small, raised number (called a superscript) at the end of his reference in the text. This number refers to a footnote. They are usually placed at the foot of the page on which the quotation or reference occurs. Frequently, however, they are placed at the conclusion of the chapter or at the very end of the book.

In an index or bibliography, the author's name is printed drectory style (last name first) because of the alphabetical arrangement. In a footnote, however, the author's first name is placed first and his family name last. The title of the book or article is placed next. Titles of books, magazines, newspapers, and plays are printed in italics. (In handwritten or typed material, italics are indicated by underlining.) Titles of articles and short poems are printed within quotation marks. The publisher, place, and

date of publication are placed after the title. The page reference is placed last.

Two abbreviations are common in footnotes. *Ibid.* is a Latin term that means "in the same place." It is italicized (because it is a foreign term); it refers to the immediately preceding footnote reference. *Op. cit.* is a Latin term that means "in the work cited... It is placed after an author's name, referring to a previously footnoted reference by that author.

Footnote Exercises

Exercise 1. The following footnotes are from a book by Paul Woodring entitled *A Fourth of a Nation*. Answer the question below by referring to the information in the footnotes.

Note

C. A. P. T. S. I, pp. 1-30

1. William Ems Hockin - 11... N. It. p. 15.

1. Walter Lippmann, The Public Place of Man, Atlantic Monthly Press, Boston, 1955, p. 95.

3. Robert Ulich, Crin, and Hope In American Education, The Beacon Press, Boston, 1951, p. 28.

4. Dewey, Experience and Education, 11ae. Macmillan Company, New York, 1939, p. v.

5. Ibid.

1. Irving Babbitt, The American Renaissance, Meridian Books, Noonday Press, New York, 1955, p. 284.

7. Dewey, op. cit., pp. 5-6.

8. Bode, Progress of Education in the United States, Newson Company, New York, 1938, p. 3.

9. Ibid., p. 3.

10. Ibid., pp. 1-30.

11. Forest J. C. Davis, "Education Is One: The American Education System," Fall, 1955, p. 285.

12. Ulich, Crin, and Hope In American Education, 11ae. Beacon Press, Boston, 1951, p. 28.

13. J. D. N. Justman, "Wanted: A Philosophy of American Education," Scholastic, May 12, 1956, p. 159.

14. Dewey, op. cit., p. 1.

15. Ibid., p. 10.

18. David Riesman, The Lonely Crowd, Yale University Press, New Haven, Conn., 1954.

17. Ibid., p. 85.

18. Aristotle, Politics, Book VIII, chap. 2, par. 1.

1. What is the title of the reference referred to in footnote 4?

By permission from Paul Woodring, *A Fourth of a Nation*, McGraw-Hill, New York, 1957.

2. Did Forest IC. Davis (footnote 11) write a book called *The Antioch Review*?

3. What is the title of the article written by Joseph Jusbnan (footnote 13)?

4. \What is the book and page number referred to in footnote 5?

5. What book is referred to in footnote 10?

6. \Who is the publisher of the book referred to in footnote 7?

7. If p. 5 means page 5, what would you guess pp. 5-6 means?

8. What is the page reference for footnote 14? Why is this in lower-case roman numerals? (If you are not sure, look at any book and compare the way the front matter is numbered with the way the text material is numbered.)

TABLES. Tables display various kinds of information in clear, compact columns. You are probably familiar with a timetable (such as airline and train schedules), or tables in mathematics, physics, or chemistry. Tables are useful for quick reference, but they require careful reading. First look at the following table. Then read the comments and answer the questions below it.

VALUE OF EXPORTS AND IMPORTS¹
OF MEMBERS OF THE EUROPEAN ECONOMIC COMMUNITY

Country	Exports (in millions of dollars)	Imports (in millions of dollars)
Belgium-Luxembourg ¹	7,002	7,176
France	11,377	12,352
Germany (West)	21,737	17,352
Italy	8,702	9,697
Netherlands	7,288	8,338
Total	56,136	54,915

Source: UN Monthly Bulletin of Statistics.

¹ For the year 1967 unless otherwise indicated.

² By agreement in 1948, foreign-trade figures of Luxembourg are included in those of Belgium. No separate statistics are available.

1. Read the title of the table first. What information is shown in the table above?

2. Always look at footnotes that may explain or give additional information that is necessary for an accurate interpretation of the data. For what year is this information?

Why are Belgium and Luxembourg listed together?

3. Check the source of information in the table. Ask yourself if, as far as you can determine, it is reliable. What is the source of information for this table?

4. Look at the heading of each column. Be sure you understand exactly what each heading refers to and what is (and is not) included in each column. Notice especially the units that are used. These may be in terms of numbers, money, weights and measures, percentages, sex, dates, and so on. The units may also vary from column to column. From the information provided in this table, what countries belong to the European Economic Community?

What unit is used to report the value of exports?

Is this unit also used for imports?

5. Read figures carefully and interpret them accurately. Which country had the highest value of exports in 1967?

What was the value of the country's imports during the same year?

According to this table, which country had the lowest value of imports in 1967?

According to this table, how much more money did the

Netherlands spend on imports than it received from exports in 1967?

Which country exported more than it imported?

Does this table show the value of French exports to the United States in 1967? If so, how much was it?

Did the total value of exports exceed the value of imports by \$1,221?

Table Exercises

Exercise S-37. Study the following table carefully. Then answer the questions on the opposite page.

Table S-37. Exports and Imports of the United States, 1965-66

	Exports	Imports	Balance
United States	1,111	1,215	1,111
France	1,111	1,215	1,111
Germany	1,111	1,215	1,111
Japan	1,111	1,215	1,111
United Kingdom	1,111	1,215	1,111
Italy	1,111	1,215	1,111
Canada	1,111	1,215	1,111
Sweden	1,111	1,215	1,111
Netherlands	1,111	1,215	1,111
Belgium	1,111	1,215	1,111
Switzerland	1,111	1,215	1,111
Australia	1,111	1,215	1,111
New Zealand	1,111	1,215	1,111
South Africa	1,111	1,215	1,111
India	1,111	1,215	1,111
Pakistan	1,111	1,215	1,111
Bangladesh	1,111	1,215	1,111
Sri Lanka	1,111	1,215	1,111
Malaysia	1,111	1,215	1,111
Singapore	1,111	1,215	1,111
Thailand	1,111	1,215	1,111
Philippines	1,111	1,215	1,111
Indonesia	1,111	1,215	1,111
Brunei	1,111	1,215	1,111
Saudi Arabia	1,111	1,215	1,111
Uganda	1,111	1,215	1,111
Kenya	1,111	1,215	1,111
Tanzania	1,111	1,215	1,111
Zambia	1,111	1,215	1,111
Botswana	1,111	1,215	1,111
Lesotho	1,111	1,215	1,111
Swaziland	1,111	1,215	1,111
Namibia	1,111	1,215	1,111
Angola	1,111	1,215	1,111
Mozambique	1,111	1,215	1,111
Madagascar	1,111	1,215	1,111
Comoros	1,111	1,215	1,111
Maldives	1,111	1,215	1,111
Seychelles	1,111	1,215	1,111
Yemen	1,111	1,215	1,111
Oman	1,111	1,215	1,111
Qatar	1,111	1,215	1,111
Bahrain	1,111	1,215	1,111
Kuwait	1,111	1,215	1,111
Saudi Arabia	1,111	1,215	1,111
Uganda	1,111	1,215	1,111
Kenya	1,111	1,215	1,111
Tanzania	1,111	1,215	1,111
Zambia	1,111	1,215	1,111
Botswana	1,111	1,215	1,111
Lesotho	1,111	1,215	1,111
Swaziland	1,111	1,215	1,111
Namibia	1,111	1,215	1,111
Angola	1,111	1,215	1,111
Mozambique	1,111	1,215	1,111
Madagascar	1,111	1,215	1,111
Comoros	1,111	1,215	1,111
Maldives	1,111	1,215	1,111
Seychelles	1,111	1,215	1,111
Yemen	1,111	1,215	1,111
Oman	1,111	1,215	1,111
Qatar	1,111	1,215	1,111
Bahrain	1,111	1,215	1,111
Kuwait	1,111	1,215	1,111
Saudi Arabia	1,111	1,215	1,111

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Answer the following questions by writing on the line at the bottom of the page.

1. _____ The table shows the number and kind of U.S. college degrees that were conferred during the two years, 1985 and 1988.
2. _____ The source of this information is the U.S. Office of Education.
3. _____ The table lists three general categories of degrees: (a) bachelor's or first professional, (b) second level (master's), and (c) doctorate.
4. _____ The number of degrees in home economics education is included under education, not under home economics.
5. _____ More students graduated with degrees in the physical sciences than in the social sciences.

Answer the following questions by writing on the lines provided.

8. On the lines below, write the fields of study in which more women than men received degrees.

Bachelor's Degree	Master's Degree	Doctor's Degree
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____

8. About what percent of those who received a degree in medicine (M.D.) were women?
9. _____ What was the total number of bachelor's degrees conferred?

EzerclN S-38. Study the following table carefully. Then answer the questions on the opposite page.

Mwclm

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¹ 1966-67. ² 1965-66. ³ Annual average. ⁴ 1964-65. ⁵ 1963-64. ⁶ Figures supplied by the U. S. Office of Education; they are not totals of the columns.

1. a. Which state has the largest total number of public schools?

 b. What is the total number of students enrolled in the public schools of this state?

 c. What is the average yearly expenditure for each of these students?

2. Alaska is the largest state in the country. From all of the information in this table, what might you judge about the population of this state?

3. The teacher-student ratio in the elementary schools of Rhode Island is one teacher to about 19 students. What is the teacher-student ratio in the elementary schools of Mississippi?

4. a. Which state has the largest average expenditure per pupil?

 b. What is this figure?

 c. What is the ratio of teachers to students in the public schools in this state?

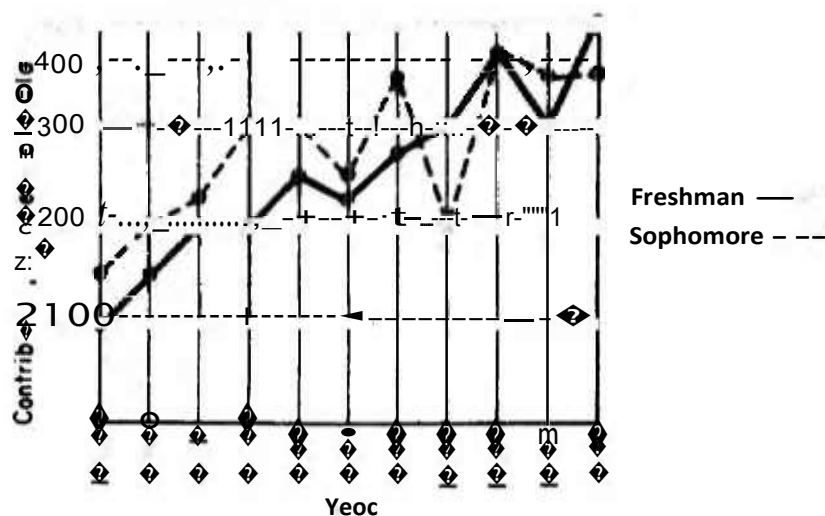
5. a. If you wanted to be a public school teacher in the United States, and hoped eventually to earn a maximum salary, in which state would you choose to teach?

 b. Assuming that class size is measured by the number of students divided by the number of teachers, about how many elementary school students would you expect in your class?

LINE GRAPHS. A graph illustrates a relationship between at least two things, one of which is measured on a vertical axis, and the other (or others) on a horizontal axis. First look at the

following line graph. Then read the comments and answer the questions below it.

State University freshman and sophomore class contributions to the Red Cross.



1. Always read the title of the graph first. What two classes at State University are represented in this graph?

Does this mean that the junior and senior classes at State University did not contribute anything to the Red Cross?

2. Look at the horizontal axis of the graph. Are years, number of students, amount of money, or college classes indicated on this axis?

3. Look at the vertical axis. Are contributions represented in

units of \$10, \$25, \$100, or \$1,000? _____

4. According to the legend, a solid line represents contributions of the _____ class; a broken line

represents contributions of the _____ class.

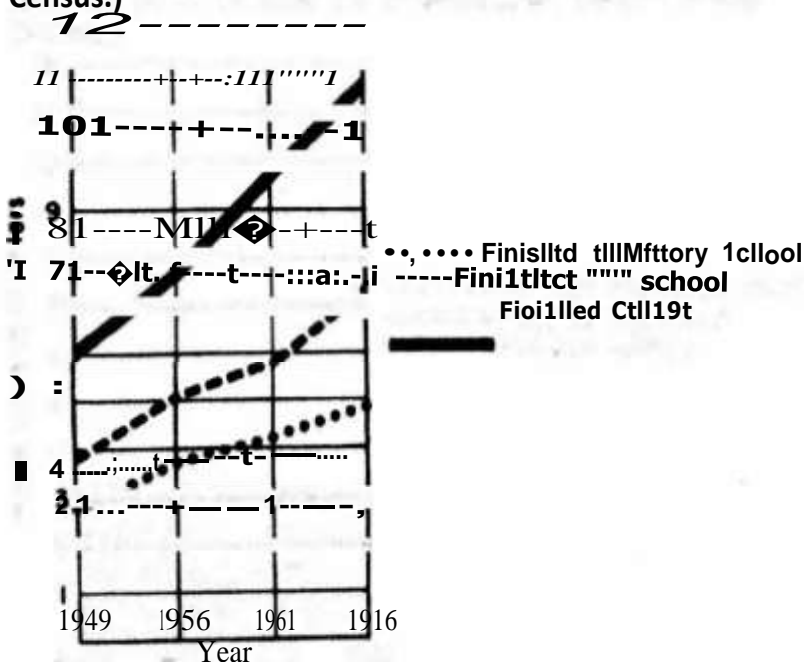
5. The amount of money contributed by the freshman class in 1959 was _____

6. The amount of money contributed by the sophomore class in 1964 was _____

7. The sophomore class contributed less money than the freshman class in _____ and _____.
8. The sophomore class contributed the same amount of money as the freshman class in _____.
9. This graph covers a period of _____ years.
10. From 1959 to 1969, the contributions of the freshman class increased by _____ percent.
11. The year in which the sophomore class contributed the greatest amount more than the freshman class was _____.
12. The exact reverse of this situation (in no. 11) was true in _____.
13. Between 1959 and 1969 the sophomore class increased its contributions from _____ to _____.
14. The year in which the sophomore class contributed the most money was _____.

ESffeim \$-39. Study the following graph carefully. Then answer the questions on the following page.

Mean income of males by years of school completed.
(Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.)



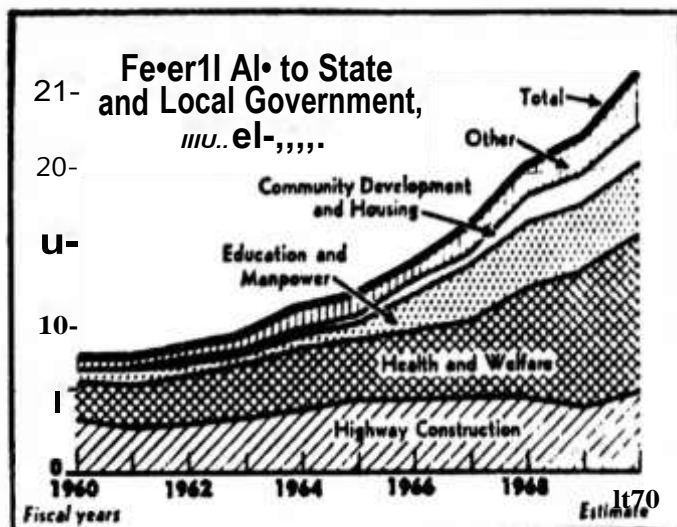
Answer the following questions by writing true or false on the line at the left.

1. _____ Specific years are indicated on the vertical axis.
2. _____ The legend shows how many men finished elementary school, high school, and college.
3. _____ The mean income of high school graduates is consistently higher than that of elementary school graduates.
4. _____ College graduates earn the highest income.
5. _____ This graph proves that female college graduates earn more money than male high school graduates.

Answer the following questions by writing on the lines provided.

6. In 1961, the difference in mean income of elementary and high school graduates was about _____
7. In 1966, this difference became about _____
8. In 1961, a college graduate earned a mean income of _____
9. The mean income of a college graduate in 1966 was about _____
10. In the years between 1961 and 1966, about how much did the income of college graduates increase? _____

Exercise 5-40. Study the following graph carefully. Then answer the questions on the opposite page.



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Executive office of the President, Bureau of the Budget

1. List the five categories of federal aid to state and local governments that are shown in the graph.

a, _____

b, _____

c, _____

d, _____

e, _____

2. Of these five categories, which received the least federal aid in 1900?

Which received the most federal aid in the same year?

3. In the 1970 estimate, which category will receive the least federal aid?

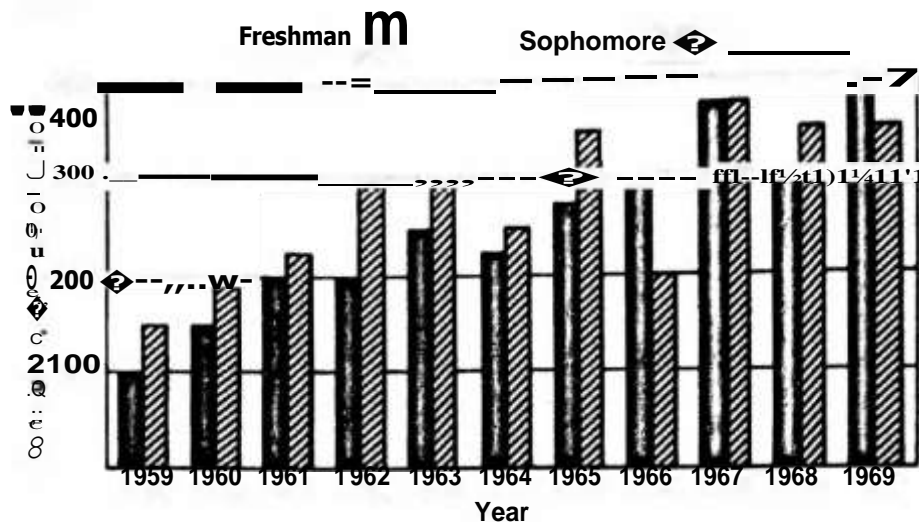
Which will receive the most federal aid?

4. In the 1970 estimate, which category will receive about the same amount of federal aid as it did in 1960?

5. In 1967, what was the approximate total amount of federal aid to state and local governments?

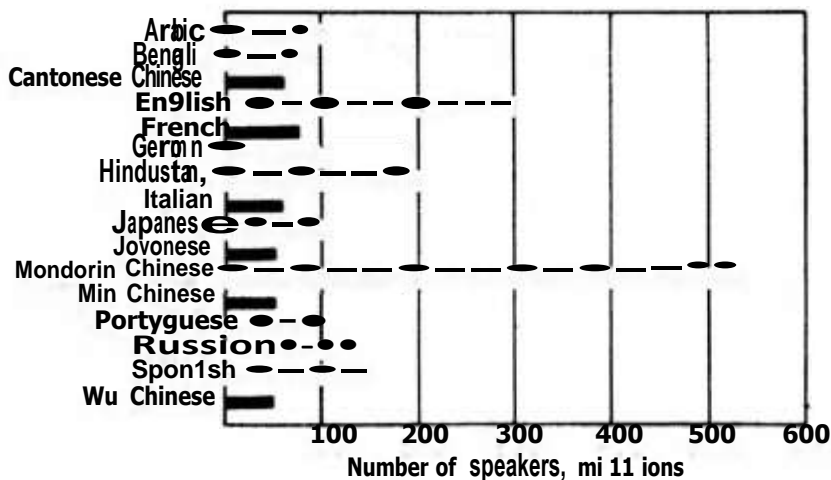
BAR GRAPHS. A bar graph is similar to a line graph except that bars (extending from either the vertical or the horizontal axis) are used instead of dots and lines. For example, the information on the line graph on page 148 could have been represented by bars.

Freshman and sophomore class contributions to the Red Cross.



Exercise 5-41. Study the following bar graph carefully. Then answer the questions on the opposite page.

languages of the world spoken natively by 50 million or more persons. (Based on data from the Information Please Almanac, 1969.)



Answer the following questions by writing *true* or *false* on the line at the left.

1. _____ This table shows the number of speakers of all the languages of the world.

2. _____ The number of speakers is shown on the vertical axis.

3. _____ The number of speakers is indicated in millions; for example, 100 means 100,000,000.

4. _____ There is only one language in the world with more than 300 million speakers.
5. _____ There are twice as many speakers of Hindustani as there are of Japanese.

Answer the following questions by writing on the lines provided.

6. About how many native speakers of English are there in the world?

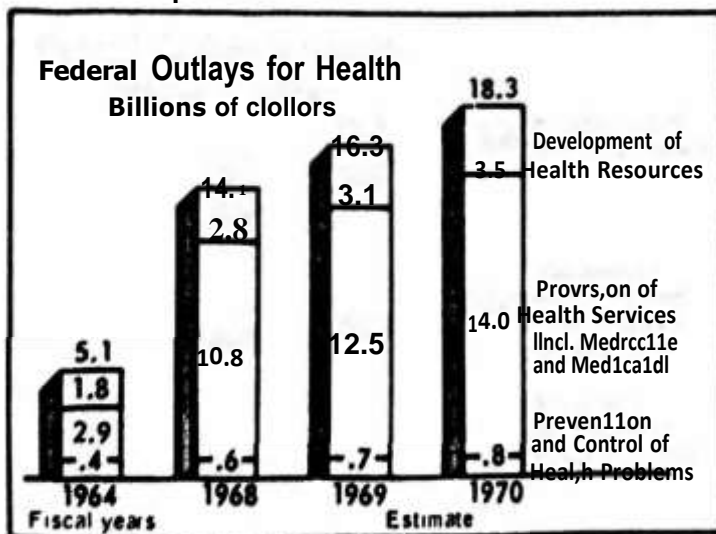
7. Which dialect of Chinese has the most speakers?

8. What language has as many native speakers as Arabic has?

9. Which languages have half as many native speakers as Japanese?

10. Which language ranks fifth in total number of native speakers?

Exercise 5-4! Study the following bar graph carefully. Then answer the questions below it.



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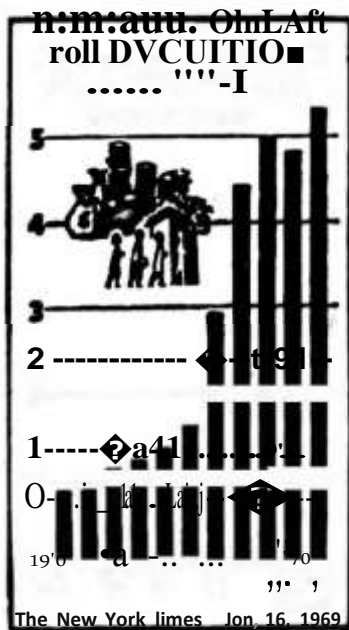
Answer the following questions by writing *true* or *false* on the line at the left.

1. _____ This graph shows what percent of the total federal budget has been or will be spent on health services.

Telegram: @zaban98_ir

2. _____ The graph shows a steady increase in federal spending for health from 1964 to 1970.
3. _____ In 1968 the government spent over \$14 billion on health programs.
4. _____ In 1968 more than half of the total federal outlay for health was spent on provision of health services, including Medicaid and Medicare.
5. _____ The graph estimates that money spent in 1970 for the development of health resources will be more than the total outlay for all health programs in 1964.
6. _____ Between 1964 and 1970, spending on the prevention and control of health programs tripled.
7. _____ From 1964 to 1970, the proportion of increase in each of the three categories of health expenditures has been about the same.
8. _____ The graph estimates that in 1970 the government will spend \$80 million on the prevention and control of health problems.

Exercise 5-43. Study the following bar graph carefully. Then answer the questions on the opposite page.

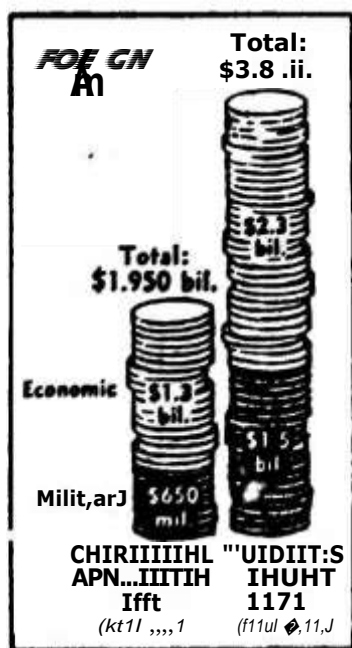


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Answer the following questions by writing on the lines provided.

1. The two years when the federal outlay for education remained the same were _____ and _____.
2. The only year when the federal government provided less money for education than the preceding year was _____.
3. During the years from 1960 to 1970, how many years were federal expenditures for education less than \$3 billion? _____
4. During the years from 1960 to 1970, the federal outlay for education increased from _____ to _____.
5. The increase in federal outlays for education from 1960 to 1970 represents what percent increase? _____

E 5-44. Study the following bar graph carefully. Then answer the questions below it.



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The New York Times Jan. 16, 1969

This graph is a kind of bar graph. Instead of a bar, however, it uses a stack of coins to represent federal money. Answer the following questions by writing on the lines provided.

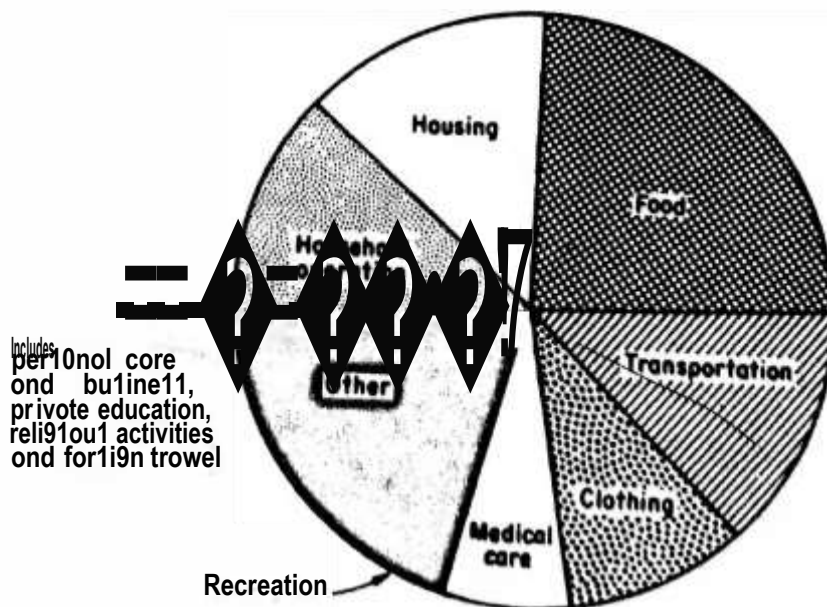
1. What was the total amount of foreign aid appropriated by Congress in 1969? _____



2. For 1970, how much larger was the President's request for foreign aid than Congress appropriated in 1969? _____.
3. In 1969, did Congress appropriate more money for foreign economic aid or for foreign military aid? _____.
4. For 1970, how much more money did the President request for foreign economic aid than Congress appropriated in 1969 for both foreign economic and military aid?
_____.
5. In 1969, Congress appropriated _____ as much money for foreign economic aid as for foreign military aid.

CIRCLE GRAPHS. In this kind of graph, a circle represents the total of some specific information. A pie-shaped piece of the circle represents a proportion of the total. First look at the following circle graph. Then read the comments and answer the questions below it.

*How United States consumers spent their dollar, 1967.
(Source: U. S. Department of Commerce.)*



1. Always read the title of a graph first. This circle shows how

consumers in the ————— spent a dollar in
the year _____

2. Notice the source of the information and decide if it is reliable. Is the source of the information presented in this circle graph from the United States or the United Nations?

3. Each pie-shaped piece of the circle represents a portion of one dollar. In 1967 the largest part of a dollar was spent on

————— This represents about _____

percent of a dollar, or about _____ cents.

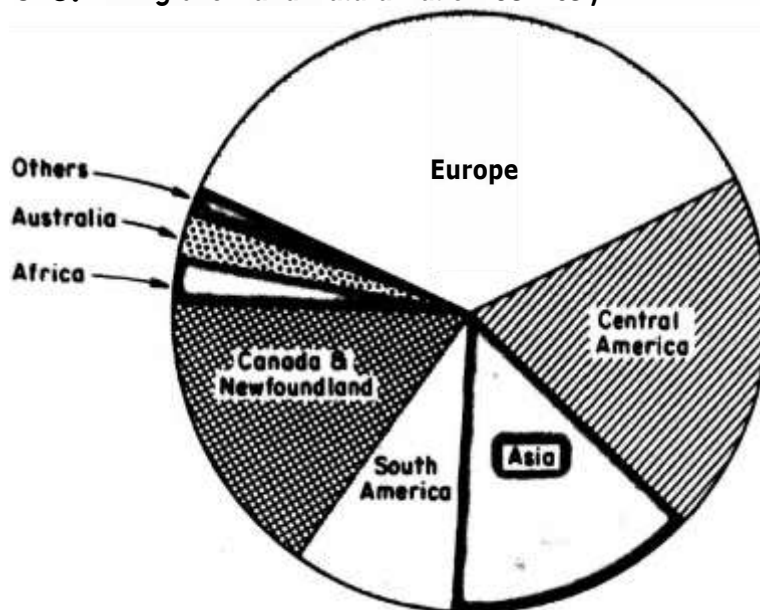
4. Does this graph represent the way in which the poorest, average, or wealthiest U.S. consumer spent a dollar?

Answer the following questions by writing true or false on the line at the left.

5. _____ In 1967 the U.S. consumer spent more money on clothing than on medical care.
6. _____ Private education accounts for the largest share of the expenses included in Other.
7. _____ About half of every dollar in 1967 was spent on housing, food, and transportation.
8. _____ In 1967 the costs of housing and household operations were about the same.
9. _____ The cost of transportation is included in recreation.
10. _____ This graph shows that the cost of food in 1967 increased more than the cost of any other item.

Exercise 5-45. Study the following circle graph carefully. Then answer the question below it.

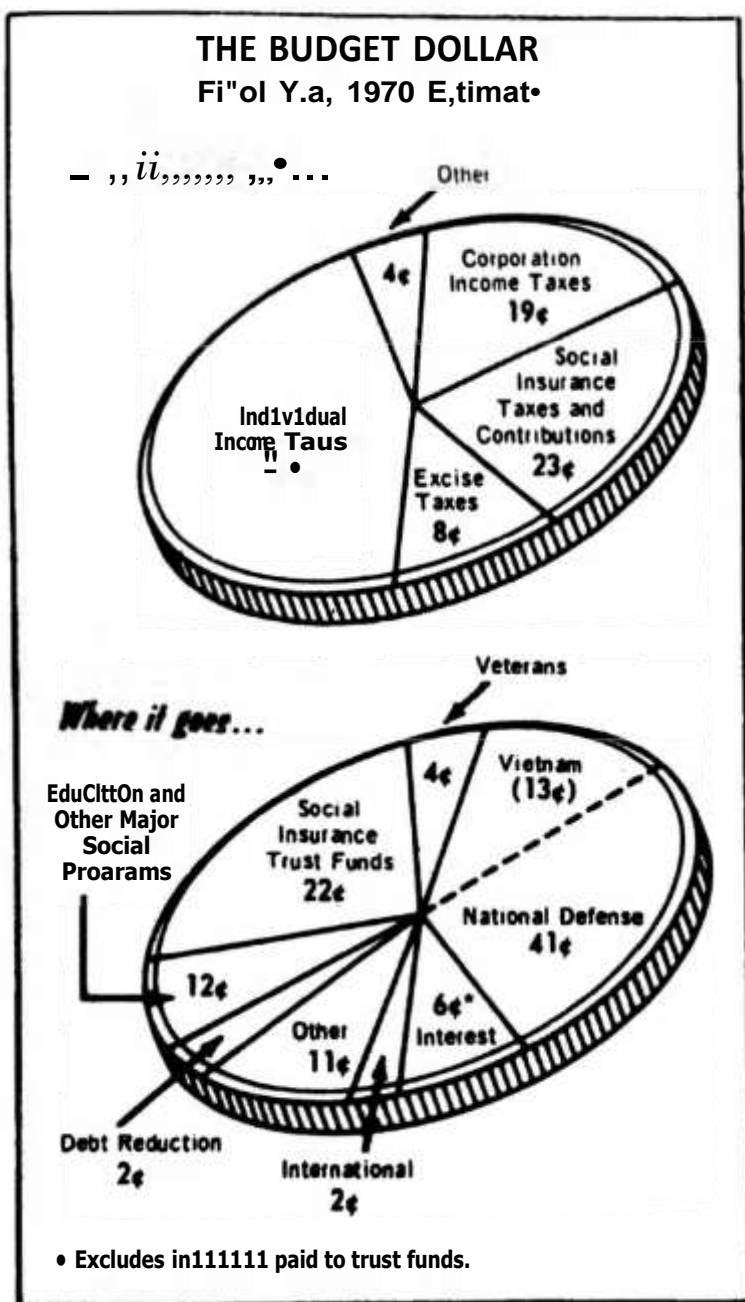
Immigration to the United States, 1961-1967. (Source: U. S. Immigration and Naturalization Service.)



Answer the following questions by writing *true* or *false* on the line at the left.

1. _____ This graph shows the geographical areas to which United States emigrants went from 1961 to 1967.
2. _____ The whole graph represents all of the immigrants from 1961 to 1967.
3. _____ Each part of the circle represents a geographical area from which immigrants came during 1961 to 1967.
4. _____ Nine geographical areas are represented in the graph.
5. _____ More immigrants came from Asia than from any other geographical area.
6. _____ Fewer immigrants came from South America than from Central America.
7. _____ This graph shows that about 2,000,000 persons immigrated between 1961 and 1967.
8. _____ About the same number of immigrants came from Africa and Australia.

Exercice 5-46. Study the following circle graphs carefully. Then answer the questions below them.



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Answer the following question• by writing on the lines provided.

A. Where It Coma, Prom

1. The largest single source of income for the U.S. government in fiscal year 1970 will be from _____.
2. What percent of the total budget will come from individual income tax? _____

3. Income taxes from corporations will account for ----- percent of the total government income.
4. Income from social insurance taxes and contributions will be exactly half as much as the income from -----.

B. Where It Goes

5. What percent of the budget will be spent on national defense?

6. How much of each tax dollar will be spent on the war in Vietnam? _____
7. How much of each tax dollar will be used to reduce the national debt? _____
8. Will the government spend more or less of each tax dollar on education and other major social programs than on the war in Vietnam? _____

Answer the following questions by writing true or false on the line at the left.

9. _____ Income from excise taxes will be sufficient to cover the cost of education and other social programs.
10. _____ Income from individual income taxes will not be enough for national defense.
11. _____ The income from *Other sources* will be more than enough to pay for *Other* expenses.
12. _____ *The income from Other sources is exactly enough to pay the cost of Veterans expenses.*

Vocabulary Exercise

Exercise 5-41. The following words have appeared since the last vocabulary exercise in this chapter. They may or may not be familiar to you. Because they are fairly common words which you will see often, if you are not sure of their meanings, write them in your vocabulary record.

to acknowledge
to appropriate
compact
to confer

the consumer
to display
the emigrant
the expenditure

the immigrant
the legend
the outlay
reliable

6

Making Good Notes

There are two main values of making notes. First, note-making requires active participation in the learning process. Notice the difference between note-taking and note-making. To *take* notes suggests a passive procedure of recording words *verbatim*, like a secretary taking dictation. To *make* notes demands your full attention. You must be alert to the pattern of thought, its direction and development, and you must distinguish between what is important and what is not. This active involvement is what makes note-making difficult; it is also what makes note-making valuable.

A second value of making notes is their use when the time comes to review the material and relate it all together. Notes help you recall and summarize information, and help you understand the material in the total context rather than as a separate series of lectures or chapters.

The form in which you make notes depends upon the subject of the course and whether they are from a book or a lecture. The most common and versatile form is probably an outline, indicating logical divisions and developments of important points. However, some students find a summary or a series of questions and answers is a satisfactory record of information. Although the outline form is recommended, you may want to experiment to determine the kind that best suits your personality and purpose.

The Fann Notes

The best arrangement for keeping notes is an individual matter. Generally, however, the most practical method is the use of a large loose-leaf notebook. This permits you to keep all the notes for each course together, separated by a divider or tab, to insert new notes and to rearrange their order if necessary. Small, separate, bound notebooks for each course do not permit the insertion of new or revised notes; they seem also to be more easily forgotten or misplaced.

Notebooks

It is best to make notes in ink. Pencil tends to smudge in time and to become illegible. The permanence of ink also suggests neatness rather than hastily scribbled words and phrases.

It also helps to title each page with the course and date so that you can arrange them in proper order quickly and easily. Some students leave a wide margin on the left or right side of the page. During review, this space can be used for brief summaries, reminders, and references to related ideas elsewhere in your notes.

The most important consideration in making notes is what to write down and what not to. A few sketchy notes reflect a failure to fully understand the development and organization of the material. On reviewing them at a later date, when much of the illustrative material has been forgotten, you find incomplete ideas that do not seem to hang together. On the other hand, notes that are too complete fail to distinguish between essential information and subordinate ideas and examples. This too makes review difficult. If you remember that the purpose of notes is to guide you carefully through the course, to aid your thinking by setting out the main points, and to remind you at a later time of the development and relationship of essential ideas, you should have a fairly adequate guide to what should be recorded in your notes.

To make note-making useful, it is not only necessary to distinguish the relative importance of information. It is also necessary, especially during lectures, to decide and to write rapidly. The cues that signal an essential point, a sequence of ideas, or an important result will be illustrated later. As far as rapid writing is concerned, regular note-making practice should stimulate the use of some sort of abbreviation system. Common symbols, such as the following, can be used:

e.g.	for example	=	is equal to
re	concerning	≠	is not equal to
ca	about	➤	greater than, or became
c	with	<	less than, or came from
&	and	∴	therefore

Use abbreviations for common words in the course: ag for agriculture, govt for government, sci for science, \$ for money, 18c for eighteenth century. Abbreviate names that recur frequently: Sh for Shakespeare, N for Napoleon, K for Keynes. Many abbreviations will develop naturally from the commonly repeated words or ideas of particular courses. Be careful, however, not to create many symbols and abbreviations that you confuse yourself.

Making Notes

READING NOTES. For practice in Note-making, outlining written material is the best way to begin. You have the text before you so that you can see the topic sentences, references, connectives, and transitions. You have time to consider the relative importance of ideas, and you can refer forward or backward in the text—all of which is impossible while listening to a lecture.

The techniques of reading and note-making are related. If you can identify topic sentences, you can identify a main idea that should be written in your notes. If you can distinguish supporting details, you can distinguish subordinate points that probably ought to be included in your notes. If you can recognize transition phrases and sentences, you can recognize the conclusion of one idea and the introduction of another.

The techniques of outlining and note-making are also related. Whatever method you choose for keeping notes, their form should clearly show the relative importance of ideas and their relationship. An outline, with its indentation and numbering system, helps you visualize these levels of importance and the way each idea is related to the others.

Care and practice will result in outline notes that clearly indicate the proper relationship of each point. It is precisely this that makes them more valuable for exam preparation than continuous run-in notes that have no clear-cut arrangement.

For example, read the following selection. As you do, underline the important sentences. Circle key words. This will help you recognize the main points to be included in your notes.

In this discussion of art history, we give special emphasis to three basic factors. First, the background: the religious, social, and economic conditions that make art possible in any period. Second, the foreground: the work of art itself, its style and its variation from other styles. Third, the contribution of the individual artist, revealing his inspirations and the extent of his gift.

There are two wrong ideas we must guard against. First, art history is not a development from primitive beginnings in the past to final perfection in our own period. Styles change but artistic quality is more constant. Superior works of art occur in many periods. Second, often one style of art is the characteristic expression of one period. It is useless to attempt any evaluation between styles that have little in common. We should compare a work of art only with work of the same period, as we must recognize that each period posed its own problems and arrived at its own unique solutions.'

¹ From Erwin O. Christensen, *The History of Western Art*. Copyright © 1959. by Erwin O. Christensen. Reprinted by permission of The New American Library, Inc., New York.

EnrcIN 6-1. Reread the selection fn Chapter 5, Exercise 5-22, and then makf! a sentence outline of it on u separate sheet of paper.


EardN - Reread the selection in Chapter 5, Exercise 5-23, and tñ make a sentence outline of ft on a separate sheet of paper.

Effl'Cils 8-4. Reread the selection in Chapter 5, Exercise 5-24, and then make a topic outline of it on a separate sheet of paper.

Es.re• S.S. Reread the selection entitled "The Need for Cl'Ulader Castles," Chapter 5, Exercise 5-32. Make outline notes of this selection on a separate sheet of paper.

EserciN U. Study the following selection. • First. survey it by skimming. You will see that the first part has been marked and notes have been made in the margin. As you read, do the same for the second t,art. After reading the selection completely. and marking the second part. make outline notes of the entire selection on a piece of paper to be handed in to your instructor.

THE BATILE OF TIE ATLANTIC

On January 1, 1941, the British navy was only slightly inferior to the American and Japanese navies. But it had the almost ime9'sible task of
 1) protecting British shipping. It had to protect the Atlantic and safeguard the necessary Bow of food and munitions from the English dominions, the
 2) United States, and other neutrals. It had to protect t h e British life-line in the :Mediterranean, by way of Gibraltar, Malta, and Suez to India, Australia,
 J) and the Far East. d iuso had to patrol the Seven
 and protect British shipping against Gnn surface raiders and wide-ranging submarines.

Factor, Fa,,orable to Germany

Aware of the difficulty of Britain's naval task, Hitler planned to strangle the country by cutting off its supplies from overseas. Once before, in 1917, imperial Gnnmany had almost succeeded in block-ading Briblin. In UHi, Nazi Germany seemed to be in an even better position to succeed. because ft controlled all the continental Ports from Narvik, Norway, to Bordeaux, France. It could operate directly in the Atlantic from nearby French ports,

3 ,/adlj 7'
 /i  . 

@  

② protect Med. life-line

③ patrol all oceans





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instead of having to make the long and dangerous trip through the North Sea. Also, Germany started the war in 1939 with 71 submarines-more than twice as many as in 1914-and was rapidly building new ones.

In addition, in 1941 Germany had a large fleet of "mosquito boats"-small swift torpedo vessels which could operate in the North Sea and English Channel. It had two fast and powerful battleships, the 26,000-ton Scharnhorst and Gneisenau; two 10,000-ton pocket battleships, Admiral Scheer and Luettow; the cruiser Prinz Eugen, and the new giant battleship Bismarck. A sister ship, Tirpitz, was completed during the year.

Besides these naval vessels, Hitler had an overwhelmingly large force of long-range bombers which could fly far out into the Atlantic to attack British convoys, rain destruction on British docks, warehouses, shipyards, and industrial cities, and sow mines at the entrance of British ports. Mines were also sown at night by German submarines and regular mine layers.

With these weapons, Hitler waged an increasingly successful war against British commerce. During the first eighteen months of the war, British shipping losses had averaged a but 65,000 tons a week. The British Admiralty admitted that by March 1941, Germany had sunk 5,000,000 tons

British, Allied, and neutral shipping. In March and April 1941, the weekly losses more than doubled, and were mounting at an appalling rate. In April, the British Admiralty ceased to report losses week by week, partly because it was impossible to make accurate reports, partly to avoid giving useful information to the enemy. On November 12, 1941, Prime Minister Churchill revealed that during the four months of March through June, British, Allied, and neutral shipping had been sent to the bottom at the dangerous rate of about 500,000 tons a month, but this had been cut during the four following months to about 180,000 tons monthly.

Factors Favorable to Britain

Several factors contributed to the favorable turn in the Battle of the Atlantic during the second half of 1941.

③ Navy
a) 71 subs

b) torpedo boats

c) warships

④ Airforce
a) long-range bombers

/ II' ?
Bh., i, t., u- =
5,000 ? / ?
"5,000,000 ?

March-June '41 =
500,000 tons/month

la,
If 0,000 ? / ?

The danger from German surface raiders was lessened after the sinking of the *Bismarck*. This newest battleship slipped out of a German port and, on May 24, in the icy waters between Iceland and Greenland, was intercepted by a British fleet including the battleship *Hood*. A German shot struck the turret and munitions magazine of the *Hood*, causing it to blow up and sink immediately, with a total loss of life of some 1,300 officers and men. The *Bismarck* fled southwest in the direction of Newfoundland, and then turned eastward toward the French port of Brest. The British pursued, but in the snow and sleet lost contact until May 26 when a reconnaissance plane spotted the *Bismarck* and reported it heading for France. With this information, and with the report from a plane sent out by the aircraft carrier *Ark Royal*, the British trapped the *Bismarck* 400 miles west of Brest. The British gave it a terrific punishment with bombs from the air, torpedoes, and direct gunfire, and finally sent the ship to the bottom with flag flying and all hands lost.

With the aid of American-built planes and its own production, Britain was able to increase destructive bombing raids on German ports and submarine bases. The Royal Air Force made especially heavy high-level attacks on Brest, where the *Scharnhorst*, *Graf Zeppelin* and *Prince Eugen* were sheltered throughout the year. The British also heavily bombed the German industrial centers where submarine parts were fabricated, and destroyed fuel depots.

Germany had lost many submarines and probably suffered from a shortage of trained crews and officers. Some of the submarines were shifted from the Atlantic to the Baltic and the Arctic Seas, where several of them were sunk by the Russians.

After the German attack against Russia on June 22, 1941, Hitler transferred many planes which he had been using against British shipping in the Atlantic to the Eastern Front for use against Russia.

The most important favorable factor, however, was the increasing aid which the United States began to render by delivering bombers and fighter planes, by patrolling the Atlantic and by protecting American cargoes bound for Britain.

Exercise 6-7. Reread the selection entitled "Spacing Mechanisms in Animals," Chapter 5, Exercise 5-34. Make outline notes of selection on a separate sheet of paper.

LECTURE NOTES. The ability to read and to write notes about what you read is important. Equally if not more important is the ability to understand spoken English and to write notes about what you hear. You cannot rely solely on book-learning. Most of your real learning, and probably much more than you experienced in your previous education, will come from lectures, seminars, class recitations, and the give-and-take of classroom discussions. This places a heavy demand on your quick and accurate comprehension of spoken English.

The Lecture: You will face a range of learning situations, from the formal lecture to the informal class discussion. In the same way that you should adjust your reading speed to the content of the material and your purpose of reading, you should adjust your note-making techniques to the oral presentation of the material and your purpose of making notes.

Each lecturer's manner of speaking and **organizing** his material will differ. Nevertheless, after several lectures you will become familiar with these individual characteristics and be able to adjust your note-making techniques to them. If the lecturer prepares carefully, uses notes, and speaks effectively, with experience you will learn to recognize the important ideas and their development and supporting points.

A good lecturer will use his words, his voice, and his body to present his ideas effectively.

Words. The next three pages list examples of common verbal cues to listen for. These words and phrases are likely to introduce an important point that should be noted, or to signal a conclusion or a transition to a new idea. Some lecturers carefully organize their material and include cues of this kind to help you clearly follow their presentation. Other lecturers may be less organized, in which case you will have to listen closely and make your own decisions about important points, their sequence and development.

Voice. A good lecturer will use "vocal underlining," varying the pace, pitch, and volume of his speech to emphasize particular ideas. He may pause before a significant statement; he may raise his voice; he may speak more slowly and distinctly, as though purposely dictating. Listen for cues of this kind. A lecturer's voice can signal meaning, as effectively as his words can.

Body. As you listen, also watch. A good lecturer does not move his body or hands in a distracting, meaningless way. Instead, he

uses movement, facial expressions and hand gestures to emphasize a particular point. He may step forward: he may spread his arms, hold up a finger, point; he may look directly at his audience. Each of these movements may be closely related to the presentation and relative importance of his ideas. Become familiar with each lecturer's characteristic gestures. Certainly if he takes time to show a model, demonstrate an idea, or write a fact or formula on the blackboard, you can be sure that he thinks it is important enough to be noted.

NOTE-MAKING CUES

Introduction to an Idea

NUMERICAL STATEMENTS

The	are were	two	reasons	
		three	causes	
		four	results c-	
		several	onsequences	looking at ...
		many	ways of	interpreting ... defining ...

RHETORICAL QUESTIONS

Now, why should the Greeks have considered the city-state in this way?

How does the copper react when a catalyst is added to the solution?

INTRODUCTORY SUMMARIES

Let me first		explain describe talk about	the background ...			
This	topic	which I intend to	discuss	is	important	because ...
	subject		explain		valuable	
	idea		talk about		useful	
	story		describe		necessary	
	fact		recount		interesting	
	formula		define		significant	

Development of an Idea

In the first place ...
second
third

Another reason
An additional cause
explanation
development is
was ...



Contrast of Several Ideas

On the one hand ... On the other (hand) ...
 But ... However ... Although ...

Results of Ideas

therefore... consequently ..
 As a result
 consequence of ...
 If
 Since this is so, (then) ...
 Because were

Transition of Ideas

Now, let us think about
 look at
 consider for a moment ...
 turn our attention to
 If these facts is possible, (then) ...
 what I have said are what happened,
 true, justified,

Chronology of Ideas

First...	Following ...	Heretofore...
In the beginning...	The former...	Subsequently...
Then...	The latter...	Finally ...
The next ...	Prior to ...	At last ...
Another...	Before...	Ultimately ...
Again ...	Hitherto. .	

Emphaau of Ideas

This is important because..
 was
 The important results an,
 obvious were
 significant would he ...
 Let me repeat ...
 I say it again ...

Summary of Ideas

In summary ..	As a summary , ..
In conclusion ..	As a conclusion ..
Briefly then ..	As we have seen ..
For all these reasons ...	As I have shown ...
Let me review quickly ..	

Th♦ Note.: The form of lecture notes can be similar to that of reading notes. You may wish, however, to leave more space as you write so that you can insert additional or related ideas when you revise your notes or review them later. This is especially true if you have recorded a particularly disorganized lecture or discussion.

For example, on page 172 is a sample of notes taken during a lecture on the history of the English language. The student has written the important ideas of the lecture at the right, leaving a wide margin at the left. During his review, in this left-hand space he has reduced this part of the lecture to brief reminders of the three main points. Note also that he has used abbreviations, such as *c* for century, *la* for language, *>* for became, *Xized* for Christianized, and so on. The course number and date help to keep his notes organized and properly sequenced in his notebook.

Your notes are your own for your own use, but this does not mean they should be scribbles and scrawls, illegible even to yourself. It is useless and frustrating to be unable to read your own handwriting. The need to listen carefully and to write rapidly may result in hasty notes. It is possible, however, to write both quickly and clearly, especially if you have developed some abbreviation system and if you do not try to write down every word that is said.

Should notes be recopied? If you have made them carefully the first time, it should not be necessary to recopy your notes. However, if they are so poor that in time they will be worthless, or if you wish to type them as a means of organizing and reviewing the material, it is best to recopy them immediately after the lecture.

Should notes be written in your native language? No, definitely not. This may at first seem a practical solution to one of the problems of note-making, but actually you will find it not helpful at all. It requires simultaneous translation—a sophisticated skill that is so highly valued that governments pay extremely high wages to interpreters. Furthermore, it requires listening to one language and writing in another. Note-taking is much more complicated. You may occasionally need to write a word or phrase in your native language as a clarification or clue. In the long run, how-


ever, it is better to listen, think, and write totally in English. The more you do, the easier it becomes.

Prof. Collins

5c = Germanic
Proto-Germanic
> 3 lars

① E. Germ
= Gothic
(dead)

(\)'l. 
O'k 
.k.ut-. .tJam,,,
K. 'l..-t.,

{J)'t. 
> O'e

English 201

October 10

I 5th c AD might be called Germanic c.
A. Germanic tribes (beyond Alps & Rhine)
called Germani by Tacitus, Cymbri
or Teutones by Romans.

B. 3 great migrations, bringing
their la.

1. East Germanic: Ostrogoths (Italy)
Visigoths (Spain), Burgundians
(Gaul), Vandals (N. Africa)
a. Goths Lized by Wulfilas (4c)
b. la (Gothic) > extinct

2. North Germanic: Scandinavia
isolated from Ger-Rom world
a. Old Norse > Swedish, Danish,
Icelandic, Norwegian

3. West Germanic: Franks (Gaul)
Jutes (Jutland), Angles
(N. Germany), Saxons
(Saxony)
a. Invaded Britain
b. la > Old Eng (Anglo-Saxon)

5,..... Cona111a11 Problnu, ◆facing note1 of lecture• ta difflcuJt for native speakers; It IJ more 10 for foreign 1h1denll of Engl1h. Here are **sevmal** problem■ you may face, and their po11lble 10lutions.

1. L«turcr dfpaa or I, dl,organized. Sometime• a lecturer will ◆ss from his topic and talk about 1omethlng which I.I not directly important or related to the mnln fdf'DJ of the course. "hen you realize this i1 happening, stop making notes. Use the time to revise what YOU ha,-e already written, but continue to listen carefully. W'Mn the lecturer stops wandering and return to his main line of thought, start making notes again.

If a lecture seems to be a series of random thoughts without any clear organization, the l>Nt you can do is simply to note what ap◆ars at the time to be the important points. There may be a logic to the organization that is not at 6nt apparent. On the other hand, the lecture may be seriously disorganized. In this case, you will ha\~e to reread whatever disconnectcd notes you took, and try to organize them into some meaningful pattern. If the lecture C'O\~cn information that is included in your t◆xt, reading the assignment before the lecture wilJ help you provide your own structure.

2. Lectursr mambla or speab too لكقح, A lectuttr's ◆may be indistinct or **blurred** because he speaks too rapidly. Or he may **speak** in fragments of unfinished thoughts, using incomplete sentences, repeated words, or distracting fillers such 81 r,h and er. This problem Is the same for all students, hut it may be more difflcult for foreign students who cannot 81 quickly fill in the verbal gaps. Be more attentive than usual, try to disregard regreuiom, repetitions, and intem1ptions, 111d listen only for what ◆ to be the main points. Later you may want to compare your notes **with**◆ student or with the lecturer himself.

3. Lecturer baa an unfamiliar *accllnt*. You may be accustomed to an English pronunciation that fa different fmm that of your lecturer. This problem Is not, of coune, restricted to the lecture hall. You may be **used** to hearing only Japanese English, Indian Englilh, Spanish English, a, British Engl1h, for example. It may at flnt require a little extra effort to undentand American English, or its dlalectal variant.I, But you will be surprised how quickly your ean can adj111t. If you mix with native-speaking claumatea, and listen to radio, ftlm1. and televulon, you Will IOOI1 8qd It PUirr to undentand different varietle1 of 1pobn English. If for some reason a particular lecturer Is 1tfll difficult to undentand, you will have to ck-pend on the notes of othen to fill In what you missed.

4. Leclu,., .,., unfamiliar Idiom,. Each 1ubject hu Itl own

vocabulary. New words, or words with a specialized meaning, will occur in your text. They will also recur in lectures so that they should cause you little difficulty. What may be a problem, however, are the idiomatic words or phrases which a lecturer might use. For example, he may say, "Therefore the allies ought to table the matter." *Therefore* signals a result which probably ought to be included in your notes. If you are not sure what *to table* means, don't worry. Write the exact words and continue to listen to the lecture. Later you can ask a friend or look it up in your dictionary. Subsequent information in the lecture may even provide enough context to make its meaning clear.

If you hear an unfamiliar idiom which is not part of an idea to be recorded, at least write the idiom quickly in the margin. Later look up its meaning and add it to your vocabulary record. Gradually you will learn many of the English idioms that occur more frequently in speech than in writing.

Lecture Notes Exercises

Exercise 8-8. Your instructor will give you the following lecture. • Before listening and making notes, however, read it through first. Familiarize yourself with the vocabulary and organization. Then close your books. As your instructor lectures, make outline notes on a separate sheet of paper. Listen especially for the cues that signal each new idea.

I have two propositions to make concerning the purpose and value of work. My first proposition is that work is not a thing one does to live, but the thing one lives to do. It is, or it should be, the full expression of the worker's faculties, the thing in which he finds spiritual, mental, and bodily satisfaction, and the medium through which he serves God.

If we believed this, we should have a new attitude toward pay and wages. We should believe that as long as the worker received enough pay to enable him to go on with his work, he had his reward. His satisfaction would be found in the fulfillment of his own nature and the contemplation of the perfection of his work. That in practice there is this satisfaction is shown by the fact that a man will put loving labor into a hobby that will never earn him any money.

A second consequence is that every man should do the work for which he is best fitted by nature. At present, the employer thinks only of getting the laborer to do the work for only high wages.

³ Adapted from "Why Work?" by Dorothy Suyttn, *ht Crud or Ch,wsil* Harcourt, Brace & World, New York, 1949. Copyright 1949 Dorothy L. Sayers.

This results in many people gutting themselves into jobs that are hurtful to others, and is very wasteful.

A third consequence is that, if we really have elevated this proposition, and turn our work and our values accordingly, we should no longer think of work as something that we hastened to get through in order to enjoy our leisure. We should look on our leisure as the period of changed rhythm that refreshes us for the delightful purpose of going on with our work. We should all find ourselves fighting for precious time in which to get on with the job—instead of fighting for precious hours saved from the job.

A fourth consequence is that we should fight tooth and nail not for mere employment, but for the quality of the work that we had to do. We should clamor to be engaged in work that was worth doing, and in which we could take pride. The worker would demand that the stuff he helped to turn out should be good stuff—he would no longer be content to take the cash and let the credit go. He would feel a sense of personal responsibility, and demand to know what went into the work that he produced. There would be strikes and protests not about pay, but about the quality of the work demanded and the honesty, beauty, and usefulness of the goods produced.

My second proposition is that the worker's first duty is to serve the work. There is much well-meaning talk nowadays about serving the community, but service to the community is usually thought of as a sort of sparetime activity, which mostly consists of talking. Real service to the community consists in doing good honest work. The best service a carpenter can render to the community is to make good tables and chairs. The right way to serve the community is to forget about the community and serve the work.

There are three good reasons for this. The first is that you cannot do good work if you take your mind off your work to see whether the community is appreciating it, any more than you can score a goal if you take your eye off the ball. If your heart is not wholly in the work, the work will not be good, and work that is not good serves neither God nor the community.

The second reason is that the minute you begin to think of serving other people, you begin to have a notion that other people owe you something for your pains; you begin to think that you have a claim on the community. You will begin to bargain for a reward, to seek for applause, and to feel a grievance if you are not appreciated. But if your mind is set upon serving the work, then you know that you have nothing to look for; the only reward the work can give you is the satisfaction of seeing that it is good. The work takes all and gives nothing in return, and to serve the work is a labor of pure love.

Thirdly: if you set out to serve the community, you will probably end up by merely fulfilling a public demand. For example, nine-tenths of the bad films we see owe their badness to the fact that the maker

has aimed at pleasing the audience, instead of producing a good and satisfactory film.

It is the work that serves the community; the business of the work is to serve the work.

Exercise 6-9. Your instructor will give you the following lecture. • Without reading it first, make notes on a separate sheet while he speaks. Then read the lecture and compare your notes. Have you included two main topics, the first with four subtopics and the second with three?

SOME THINGS WE KNOW AND DON'T KNOW ABOUT LANGUAGE

Many things about language are a mystery, and many will always remain so. But some things we do know.

First, we know that all human beings have a language of some sort. There is no race of men anywhere on earth so backward that it has no language, no set of speech sounds by which the people communicate with one another. Furthermore, in historical times, there has never been a race of men without a language.

Second, there is no such thing as a primitive language. There are many people whose cultures are undeveloped, who are, as we say, uncivilized, but the languages they speak are not primitive. In all known languages we can see complexities that must have been tens of thousands of years in developing.

This has not always been well understood; indeed, the direct contrary has often been stated. Popular ideas of the language of the American Indians will illustrate. Many people have supposed that the Indians communicated in a very primitive system of noises. They said "ugh" and they said "how" and they uttered a few miscellaneous grunts, and otherwise they communicated by waving their arms at one another. Study has proved this to be nonsense. There are, or were, hundreds of American Indian languages, and all of them turn out to be very complicated, very elaborate, and very old. They are certainly different from the languages that most of us are familiar with, but they are no more primitive than English or Greek.

A third thing we know about language is that all languages are perfectly adequate. That is, each one is a perfect means of expressing the culture of the people who speak the language. A corollary is that languages are not really comparable, in the sense that we ask, "Which is the better language, French or Navajo?" French is an excellent language for expressing French culture, but it would be a very poor language for expressing the culture of a Navajo Indian. The best language for the latter purposes is Navajo.

• Paul Roberts, *Understanding English*, pp. 242-23 (adapted). Copyright 1958 by Paul Roberts. By permission of Harper & Row, Publishers, New York.

Finally, we know that language changes. It is natural and normal for language to change: the only languages which do not change are the dead ones. This is easy to understand if we look backward in time. The English of 1600 would be nearly unintelligible if we heard it today. The English of 1300 would be completely so, and the English of 900 would be entirely strange and foreign. Change goes on in all aspects of language. Grammatical features change as do speech sounds, and changes in vocabulary are sometimes very extensive and may occur very rapidly. Vocabulary is the least stable part of any language.

Now let's consider the things that we still don't know about language. Several questions frequently asked about language are unanswerable and may always remain so. First of all, we do not know how language began. Men have wondered for a long time, and many theories have been proposed. It has been suggested that people learned to speak by imitating the sounds of nature or by making noises while doing heavy labor or by singing and then attaching meaning to the sounds they sang. Other more metaphysical theories have been advanced. But all this is speculation only. The plain fact is that there is no evidence through which we can study the origin of language, and there never will be any. If we could find some language just being born, we could get clues to the mystery, but this we cannot find because, as has been said earlier, all men on earth already have languages and their languages are already old and fully developed. We can guess all we like about how language originated, but we shall never know.

Neither shall we ever know when it originated. Writing began about six thousand years ago, but all we know about the beginning of language is that it must have been long before that. Fifty thousand, eighty thousand, a hundred and fifty thousand years ago—pick any number you like. Anthropologists have studied the bone structure of Neanderthal Man, who wandered in the forests of Europe some seventy thousand years ago; but all they can tell us is that there is nothing in the bone structure which would have prevented Neanderthal Man from talking, if he knew how.

Finally, we do not know where language developed. The exact spot isn't of much importance. It wouldn't matter much now whether the great event took place on the steppes of Russia or on the banks of the Congo. But it would be interesting to know whether language began at one place and then spread over the earth or whether it was developed independently in several places. For if language developed among one group of men and spread from them to all others, then it would be true that all the present languages of the world are related.

They would all have a common ancestor.

But this also we can apparently never know. When we compare the present languages of the world, we can see relationships between some of them but not all. It can be shown, for example, that English and Greek are related. Different as they now are, they go back to a

common ancestor. They were at the same time, the same language. It can also be shown that Finnish and Hungarian were once the same language. But this cannot be shown of English and Finnish. So far as we can see, English and Finnish are not related. If they do have a common ancestor, it lies so far back in time that we can see nothing of the development.

In summary, then, what we don't know about language is how, when, and where it began. Moreover, we will probably never know.

Exercise 6-10. Your instructor will give you the following lecture. Do not read it first. Make outline notes on a separate sheet. Exchange your notes with a classmate and compare them.

WHAT FOREIGN VISITORS THINK OF AMERICA

Last year more than a million and a half foreign tourists visited the United States. In order to understand intercultural problems better, and perhaps to find ways to improve America's image abroad, a reporter recently interviewed some of these visitors as they were leaving to return home. He especially wanted to find out their first impressions of the United States, what places they most enjoyed visiting, and some of their likes and dislikes.

As far as first impressions are concerned, almost all of the foreigners were impressed by the tremendous size of the country. The United States, of course, is a large country. The distance between San Francisco and New York is about the same as that between Gibraltar and Baghdad. Indeed, the entire Mediterranean Sea could easily fit within the country's borders. Even expecting this, foreigners who visit the United States for the first time are overwhelmed by the vast distances. Apparently to be believed, such distances have to be traveled.

The foreign visitors were also impressed by the range of climate and the variety of scenery in the country. Many were amazed to discover that, in the same day, they could travel from the snowy cold of New England winter to the sunny warmth of Florida sunshine. Even in the single state of California, they could find sandy beaches, rocky shores, tropical vegetation, hot dry deserts, redwood forests, and towering snow-capped mountains.

They were also impressed by the informal friendliness of Americans. Whether on buses, trains, planes, or at vacation or scenic resorts, these visitors generally agreed that they had been greeted warmly. Many commented on the invitations they received and how they had learned the sincere meaning of "make yourself at home." On the other hand, many reported that hotel clerks, waiters, and taxi drivers were often unsympathetic, impatient, and rude. (I can certainly agree about this last point. All too well I remember arriving several years ago at Grand Central Station in New York. It was after midnight and I had difficulty finding a cab. Fortunately there was a policeman on the corner—he was very pleasant, I must say—and he managed to

get me a taxi. Once inside though, I found the driver extremely rude. Apparently he had been sleeping and was irritated at having been awakened. Imagine, and my fare was at least several dollars since I had to go way up town to 239th Street-or was it 235th Street?-Yes, I remember: it was 239th Street. Well, I shall certainly never forget the things he said-and the language he used. I'm sure foreign visitors must be very upset by the rudeness of some New York taxi drivers. One good thing, I guess: foreigners probably can't understand such language.)

The popularity of tourist attractions seems to depend primarily on the nationality and expectations of the foreign tourists. Many of the interviewed group were familiar with the romantic past of the country and came here to see historical monuments, especially those of the colonial period, or the wild West with its cowboys and Indians. One visitor admitted that he had stayed in a certain Chicago hotel because his travel agent had told him that was where the gangsters stay.

Many of the British tourists, the largest group of visitors annually, still tended to think of the United States as "the colonies." They especially enjoyed seeing Plymouth Rock and Valley Forge, places which reflect a common heritage. Their favorite city was San Francisco, and they preferred Niagara Falls to New York or Washington.

On the other hand, the French, Italians, Danes, and Brazilians preferred New York City, as did the Spaniards, who also enjoyed the Western cattle ranches and rodeos. Australians preferred the rural areas of the country, while the Austrians, perhaps not surprisingly, most enjoyed the mountains and ski resorts.

In general, of the many cities they visited during their stay in this country, tourists found the sights of New York, Washington, and San Francisco the most popular, as well as Disneyland. Of all the scenic wonders, Grand Canyon and Niagara Falls were mentioned most frequently.

If the most common likes or dislikes can be identified by the number of times they were mentioned, then, in addition to the friendliness of most Americans, the most often praised things in American life were our seafood, our ice cream, and our supermarkets. Among the things most often criticized were ugly roadside cemeteries, tasteless bread, women who wear hair curlers while shopping, the confusion of local sales taxes, and our overemphasis on size and cost.

However, the most common complaint of all was that so few Americans can speak any language but English-and some claimed that they had difficulty understanding the American accent. Even in the first class hotels, these visitors found very few clerks or waiters who could speak any foreign language. This language barrier is now recognized as a formidable obstacle to establishing good international relations in this country. Many major tourist attractions, stores, hotels, and airports are now trying to solve the problem. It is likely to be

but for many years to come, however, that American tourists abroad will find more people who speak their language than do foreigners traveling in America.

Vocabulary Exercise

Exercise 6-11. The following words have appeared in this chapter. They may or may not be familiar to you. Because they are fairly common words which you will see often, if you are not sure of their meanings, write them in your vocabulary record.

the ancestor
appalling
blurred
to cease
to clamor
the contemplation
contrary
the corollary
the cue
to digress
to excel
to fabricate
the faculties
the fragment
frustrating
the gap

the grievance
the heritage
illegible
the insertion
the inspiration
to intercept
metaphysical
the overwhelming
to patrol
to pose
primitive
the proposition
the reconnaissance
to recur

to render
to reveal
rude
natural
to safeguard
simultaneous
sketchy
sophisticated
the speculation
to stimulate
to strangle
the stuff
tooth and nail
tropical
venetian

Using a Library

Learning how to use a library is like learning any other skill. It requires instruction and practice. This chapter will briefly introduce you to the ways in which material in a library is organized and how it can be found quickly. You will have the opportunity to become familiar with a few of the basic procedures by using exercises for practice and review. To feel really comfortable in a library, however, you must get in the habit of going there, learning your way around, asking questions, and using its facilities regularly.

Whether a library has only a few thousand books or, like some of the large university and government libraries, several million volumes, its organization is basically the same. There are three kinds of material that any good library includes: (1) books, (2) reference material, and (3) periodicals. Each of these will be considered in detail: where and how they are collected and arranged, and how you can get them and evaluate them for your particular purpose.

In addition to these three services, many libraries also provide places for study: large quiet rooms with good lighting, and small individual booths (called carrels) usually reserved for graduate students who are doing research. You may also find a reading room where daily newspapers and current magazines are displayed, and a Reserve Reading Room where required books for specific courses are placed for your convenience. Large libraries may also have microfilm viewers. These are used for reading books, newspapers, and dissertations that have been photographically reduced on film. You will get to know many of these additional functions and services as you become more familiar with your library. They are all for your use and convenience and they are all free.

The card catalog is a complete index of all the books in the library. You will usually find the catalog in wooden cases, with many individual drawers, somewhere near the entrance of the

The card catalog

library. Each book in the library has at least one card, and usually three. These cards are filed alphabetically in the catalog. In libraries that have many books in different languages, you will find separate catalogs for different alphabets. Books in English, French, Latin, German, Spanish—that is, languages that use similar alphabets—are usually filed together. Russian, Hebrew, Armenian, Chinese, or Arabic, however, would have separate catalogs because of the different alphabets.

Each book is listed in the catalog by its title. In addition, it is also listed by its author and its subject. Therefore, there are usually at least three cards for each book: a title card, an author card, and a subject card. If a book has two authors, it will have one for each author. If a book is about several different subjects, it will have a subject card for each. The arrangement of the cards in a card catalog is as complete as necessary to make it easy to find a particular book.

On page 183 are examples of catalog cards for the same book. Each important item of information is labeled on the author card, and explained below.

The *call number* is printed in the upper left-hand corner of card. This number is part of a system which outlines all human knowledge. There are two systems in general use: the Dewey decimal system and the Library of Congress system. Each is a means of organizing books so that new titles can be easily and regularly added without changing the system in any way. Because the Dewey decimal system is more common, it will be explained briefly.

First, all knowledge is outlined, with the following major headings:

000	General Works	500	Pure sciences
100	Philosophy	600	Applied sciences
200	Religion	700	Fine arts
300	Social sciences	800	Literature
400	Languages	900	History

Within each of these divisions there are subdivisions. For example, the book on page 183 is about cities. Its call number is 301.36. This number represents these subdivisions:

300	Social sciences
301	Sociology
301.3	Human ecology
301.36	Suburban and urban

Beneath the Dewey decimal number, you will see another number. This is for the author. The capital letter represents the first

Sample library card from the catalog.

01.6 S472b	Cities and towns -- Hist. Schnelder, Wolf, 1925- Babylon is everywhere; the city as man's fate. Trans-	Subject card
01.6 S472b	Cities and towns -- Growth Schnelder, Wolf, 1926- Babylon is everywhere; the city as man's fate. Trans-	
301.56 S472b	Babylon is everywhere Schneider, Wolf, 1925- Babylon is everywhere; the city as man's fate. Trans-	Title card
301.6 S472b	Sammet, Ingeborg, tr. Schneider, Wolf, 1925- Babylon is everywhere; the city as man's fate. 'frana- late<l from the Ge1-man by Ingeborg Sammet and John Oldenburg. New York, McGraw-Hill 1963, . 400 p. mu,. 27 cm. Includea blbllosrapb7. 1. Cities and towD11-H11t. 2. Cltlm and towas--Growth. I. Title. HT111.S313 O 301.36 63--1'1,90 t Library of Oonr,ea (7-1)	Translator Card

Call number	Author's name	Author's notes	
301.36 8472b	Schnelder, Wolf, 1925--		Author Card
Title of book	Babylon is everywhere; the city as man's fate. Trans: lated from the German by Ingeborg Sammet and John Oldenburg. New York, McGraw-Hill 1963		Translators; place of publication; publisher; date of publicat
Number of pages; height of book	400 p. mus. 22 cm. JurlurIP.11 blhlo1raphy.		
1. Cities and town1-H11t. 2. Oitlea and towa&-Growthb. -- -- + v/ Title.			Other cards in catalog
JITI IJ.8313 Library or Congrea			
Library 01 Conoress coll number Dewey Decimal System call number			

letter of the author's last name. The following number is specially assigned to this particular name. The small letter is the first letter of the title of the book. Note that, in cataloging titles, *a*, *an*, and *the* are disregarded.

The *author's name* is always written directory style: the last name is first, followed by a comma, then the first and middle names. Note how important the comma is to separate the last name from the first name. *Henry George* means that his last name is George (Mr. George) and his first name is Henry. *Henry, George* means that his last name is Henry (Mr. Henry) and his first name is George. Always remember to use a comma when you are writing a name directory style.

The *author's dates* follow his name. If the author is still living, only the year of his birth is given.

If a book has been written by several authors, this information will be given on the card. There will be another card in the catalog for the joint author.

If a book has been translated, there will also be a card for the translator's name.

The title of the *book* is printed directly below the name of the author. You may have learned in English class to capitalize all the important words of a book title and to underline the complete title. This is not done on library cards. Only proper nouns are capitalized.

The *place of publication*, the *publisher*, and the *date of publication* are listed after the title, author, and other information about them.

The *number of pages* is given in small numbers. Roman numerals refer to front matter; such as the preface and table of contents. Arabic numerals refer to the text material. The height of the book, primarily of interest to the librarian, is also given. Additional information is sometimes given: whether the book has illustrations, maps, plates, or a bibliography, or whether it is part of a series.

The information at the bottom of the card is for the librarian. Call numbers for both the Library of Congress and the Dewey decimal system are given. There is also a reminder to make additional cards for the catalog. Here, 1 and 2 refer to subject cards for the book. Roman number I refers to the title card.

The subject card will always have the subject written at the top of the card *in red*. This distinguishes a subject card from an author card or a title card.

USING THE CARD CATALOG EFFICIENTLY, Unless you are looking for a general reference book or a periodical, the place to begin your search for information about a particular subject

is the card catalog. You can save yourself, as well as the librarian, a lot of time and trouble if you know how to use the catalog efficiently.

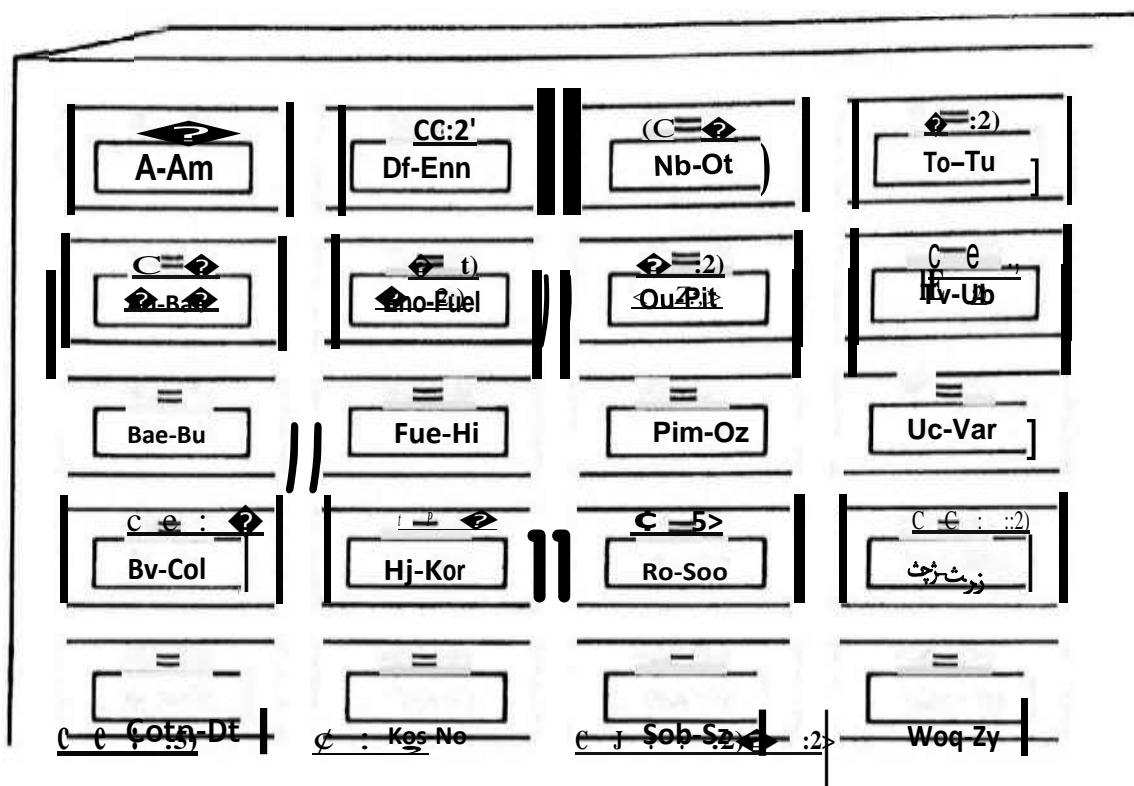
If you are looking for information about Franciscan monks, for example, you may find subject cards for *Monks--Franciscan*. But you may not. Then you would have to think of a broader topic that might include information about this subject. You might look under *Monastic Orders--St. Francis*, or even *Christianity*. Think also of synonyms. For example, if you do not find a subject card for *cars*, try *automobiles*. If you find nothing under *Carpeus--Oriental*, then try *Rugby*. Frequently you will find cross-reference cards. For example, if you need information about stars, you might find a cross-reference card in the alphabetical place for *Star* which says *See Astronomy*. After a series of subject cards for *pyramid*, you may find a card that says *See also* and then lists *Egypt--Antiquities*.

Once you find the subject cards dealing with the topic you are interested in, study the cards carefully. Look at the book's date of publication: is it recent, old, or completely out of date? Look at the number of pages: does the book seem to be a long and detailed treatment of the subject, or only a few pages? The card will also tell you if there are diagrams, pictures, illustrations, or tables. This may be important to you.

THE CALL SLIP. When you have located a card for the book you want, you must then of course get the book itself. In most libraries you are not allowed to go to the stacks (the shelves where all the books are kept) to get the book yourself. Therefore, you must fill out a call slip. This is a paper on which you write the call number, author, and title of the book you want. You must also write your name and address. Be sure to print all this information clearly and accurately. You then give the call slip to the librarian at the circulation desk so the book can be located and delivered to you.

Card Catalog Exercises

Exercise 1-I. On the next page is a diagram of the front of a small card catalog. For each of the subjects below, write in which drawer you would be most likely to find subject cards. Write the letters of the drawer on the lines at the right. In some cases, there may be two possibilities. If you are not sure of a subject, check your dictionary,



Subject

Card Catalog

1. Astronomy
2. Gutenberg's invention of the printing press
3. Mexico
4. The Sykes-Picot Treaty
5. The Greek sculptor Phidias
6. Irrigation
7. The life of Martin Luther
8. Tribal dialects of Swahili
9. Phoenician trading colonies
10. A poem by John Milton
11. John F. Kennedy
12. Alexander's siege of Tyre

AN-BAB

FUE-HI

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PIM-QZ

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13. The Ncanals.. on Mars _____

l-' Analog and digital computers _____

Efff'CW 7.J. Answer the following questions by referrfng to the Ubrary card below.

274.7	Greek church in Ru11ia.
H44r	HECKER, JULIUS FRIEDRICH, 1881-
	Religion under the 1oviet1, by Juliu1 F. Hecker. New York, Vanguard press, 1927.
	xvii, 207 p. 18\cm. (Vanguard studies of soviet Russia) "Selected bibliography": p. 204-207.
	1. Russia - Religion. 2. Greek church in Russia. I. Title.
	Library of Congress BR936.H3 27 - 23706
	_____ Copy 2.
	Copyright A 1010219 28d3

1. What is the title of thu bookP _____

2. Who iJ the author of dus book? _____

3. When was the author born? _____

4. Who iJ the- publisher of this bookP _____

5. What is the date of its publication? _____

6. What is the call number? _____

7. What are the suggested subjects under which this book could be found In the card catalog?

8. Are there any tllustrations, maPs, tables, or diagrams in this book?

9. What i1 the total number of pages in thi1 bookP _____



10. Does this book have any special features which might make it useful as a source of other references?

11. Is this card an author card, subject card, or title card?

Exercise 1-3. In the card catalog of your library, find a card for each of the books below. Write its call number, author, and title. If the library has no book under one of the categories, write *None*.

1. A book by an author with the same last name as yours.

2. A book by your favorite English author.

3. A book by an author with the same initials of your first and last names. (For example, if your name is Faridi Bulbul, the author's first name must start with F, the family name with B.)

4. A book about the history of your country.

5. A book about your native language.

6. A book by an author who was born after 1900.

7. A book about your major field of interest.

8. A book which has more than 500 pages.

9. A book that has been translated into English.

10. A book that contains illustrations, maps, or diagrams.

While you are using the card catalog, frequently you must exercise judgment and ingenuity. You may be looking for a particular subject that is too narrow or specialized to be included on a subject card. In this case, you must broaden the subject. For example, you may not find a subject card for *Addis Ababa*. You would then expand the subject and look for *Ethiopia*. (Remember that subject cards have the subject printed at the top in red.) If you are interested in *skin diving* and cannot find cards for this subject, look under *swimming*. If you cannot find subject cards for this, then look under *athletics*. Do not give up simply because you cannot find subject cards immediately. Think of some other, broader subject that may include the particular subject you are interested in.

Exercise 7-4. Each of the subjects in the column at the left is too narrow to be listed in the card catalog. (Use your dictionary to identify any subjects that you are not familiar with.) From the list of broad subjects at the right, select the one which would lead you to books dealing with the narrow subject. Write its letter on the line. (There are more subjects at the right than at the left.)

- | | | |
|-----------|------------------------|----------------------------------|
| 1. _____ | schizophrenia | A. Chemistry |
| 2. _____ | fugues | B. Hawaii-history |
| 3. _____ | the Hegira | C. Astronomy |
| 4. _____ | Queen Liliuokalani | D. Agriculture-soil conservation |
| 5. _____ | Doppler effect | E. Physics |
| 6. _____ | anapestic tetrameter | F. Poetry-metrics |
| 7. _____ | strip crop farming | G. Psychology-abnormal |
| 8. _____ | DNA | H. Muhammad-life |
| 9. _____ | uteroids | I. Language-phonology |
| 10. _____ | the Abominable Snowman | J. Insecticides |
| | | K. Himalayas |
| | | L. Music-theory |

Enrcue 1-5. For each of the following subjects, write a more inclusive subject under which you might find books listed in the card catalog. If you are uncertain about any of the subjects, consult your dictionary.

Example: kerosene

Petroleum products

1. The agora _____
2. DDT _____
3. pas de deux _____
4. The Bey of Tunis _____
5. The Bay of Naples _____
6. Nirvana _____
7. The Rh factor _____
8. The quantum theory _____
9. Sputnik _____
10. The Palace of Knossos _____
11. The Security Council _____
12. Gresham's Law _____

Eurcile 7-8. Assume that you are preparing a research paper about the pyramids in Egypt. You go to the library, look in the card catalog, and find the following six cards. To save time and effort, always study the information on the cards before you fill out a call slip. There is often enough information on the card to tell you if the book will be useful or not. Study each of these six cards carefully. Decide if the book would be helpful in preparing your paper. At the right, write brief, specific comments about each book.

Comments

Card 1

913. 32

Jl73m

JONES, MARY PYTHKSOS, 1756-1801

The mystic significance of the pyramids;
a study of the prophecy set forth in the
measurements of the Great Pyramid of Cheops.

London, Society of Mystic Prophecy, 1832,

48 p. charts.

Card 2 (top line often in red)

913.32

Pyramids

G426b

Ghunaim, Muhammad Zakariyya

The buried pyramid. London, New
York, Longmans Green, 1956.

155 p. illus. 23 cm.

American ed. (New York, Rinehart)
has title: The lost pyramid,

Card 3 (top line often in red)

916.2
W25p Pyramids

WARD, JOHN, 1871-1934

Pyramids and progress; sketches
from Egypt. London, Eyre, 1900.

288 p. front., illus., plates,
maps, 45 cm.

Card 4 (top line often in red)

913 .32
G72iF Pyramids – curiosa and miscellany

GOYON, GEORGES

Les inscription et graffiti des
voyageurs sur la grande pyramide. Le Caire,
Societe royale de geographie, 1944.

183 p. plates (Societe royale de
geographie d'Egypte, Publications
speciales.)

Comments

Card 5

916.2

W25p

Pyramids and progres1

WARD, JOHN, 1871-1934

Pyramids and progress; sketches
from Egypt. London, Eyre, 1900.

288 p. front., illus., plates,
maps, 45 cm.

Card 6

371.73

MI4p

Pyramids illustrated

MACHERY, MATHIAS H., 1892-

Pyramida illustrated; a compre-
hensive manual for class use and exhibi-
tion purpose■, by Mathias H. Machery
John N. Richards. New York, A. S. Barn
& Co., 1932.

xiv. 189 p. illus.• fold.,
plates, 24 cm.

1. Gymna1tic1

2. Pyramid•

Reference Works

In addition to the book listed in the card catalog, a library has two other sources of information: reference books, such as encyclopedias, dictionaries, and atlases; and periodicals, such as magazines and journals. Reference books are usually listed in the card catalog, but they may be consulted in the reference room without writing a call slip. They may not, however, be taken out of the library. Reference books have special value because of their ease of use, their wide coverage, and their concise presentation of topical information.

ENCYCLOPEDIAS. Encyclopedias contain short articles on specific subjects, written by authorities, and compiled into a series of many volumes. The articles are arranged alphabetically. At the end of most of them, initials of the author are printed. The full name of the author can be determined from the list of contributors, usually included in introductory matter in the first volume. Many articles include cross references and a brief bibliography.

For general reference, the *Encyclopaedia Britannica* and the *Encyclopedia Americana* are the best known. The *World Book* is **written** primarily for high school students and is generally less detailed. These encyclopedias are kept up to date by regular revisions. Also, most encyclopedias issue a yearbook which summarizes important new information during the previous year. One of the volumes may be an atlas. The last volume is a comprehensive index of articles and references in all the volumes.

Besides the general encyclopedias, there are encyclopedias for specific fields, such as engineering, religion, arts, sciences, and technology.

YEARBOOKS. Several reference books are published annually. The *World Almanac* and the *Information Please Almanac* contain a wealth of factual information. Here is just a sample of the kinds of information that can be found in an almanac: the number of telephone calls in Tokyo, the highest waterfalls in the world, atomic weights, Olympic records, birth dates of movie stars, automobile registrations in Germany, U.S. income tax tables, prime numbers, the population density of Thailand, U.S. divorce laws, and what time the full moon will rise on May 19 in California.

These are also yearbooks in special fields, such as the *Statistical Yearbook*, *Yearbook of the United Nations*, *Who's Who*, *World*, and the *Foreign Commerce Yearbook*.

DICTIONARIES. The greatest achievement in lexicography in any language is the *Oxford English Dictionary*, published be-

tween 1888 and 1928 in thirteen volumes. This dictionary gives the history and meanings of every word in English, both current and obsolete, with almost 2 million illustrative quotations from famous authors. (The definition of *go*, for example, requires 12 pages.) The *Shorter Oxford English Dictionary* is a single-volume abridgement.

Besides dictionaries of languages, there are reference works that are a combination of an encyclopedia and a dictionary in special fields. Sample titles are *Grove's Dictionary of Music and Musicians*, the *Dictionary of National Biography*, and the *Dictionary of Psychology*. Dictionaries of this kind may be a useful starting point for information. For any thorough research, however, there are more detailed, scholarly references.

ATLASES. An atlas is a collection of maps. These maps may show many kinds of information besides geographical features, national boundaries, and the location of cities. For example, some atlases display information about population distribution, major resources, sea routes, prevailing winds, and climate. Some are historical atlases. There is even a linguistic atlas which maps the distribution of the use and pronunciation of key words to show dialect boundaries within a language area.

BIBLIOGRAPHIES. Bibliographies are alphabetical lists of books and articles dealing with specific subjects or general areas of study; for example, the *Cambridge Bibliography of English Literature*. Although they contain no facts themselves, bibliographies are the most complete references of where to find the facts. Most are annotated with notes about each item to indicate special qualities or usefulness.

SOME COMMON REFERENCE WORKS. The following list is intended to give you an idea of a few of the many references that are available in general and specific fields of knowledge. Take time to walk among the reference shelves of your library and see the range of reference books, especially those in your particular field of study.

GENERAL REFERENCE WORKS

Indexes

Art Index

Applied Science and Technology Index

Biography Index

Biological and Agricultural Index

... (oonl.)

Book Review Dlpst
Bulinea Periodicala Index
Education Index
International Index to Pe-
riodicals
New York Times Index
Readen• Gulde to Periodical
ltmature
Social Sciences and Human-
ities Indu

EflCfl
clap,,dlta

New Catholic Encyclopedia
Compton• Pictured Encylo-
pedia
Encyclopedia Brlw mica
Encyclopedia Americana
Encyclopedia International
The Jewish ~~Encylo~~
Encyclopedia of Islam
The World Book

UnabridglItl Dldfonarla

A Dictioaary of Amerfcan.
imll on m.torical Prin-
ciplel
Odorcl English Dictioaary
WebItm'l New Interna-
tional Dictioaary
The Random House Dic-
tionary of the English
Language
Funk and Wagnall■ New
Standard Dictionary of
the English Language

BfograP Mcal, VletlofilltWI

Current Biography l)jcdon•
ary of American Blogra•
phy
Dictionary of Natlona! Bi-
ography
Who"• Who
WhoWuWbo

YflGf'boob *and* AnnC,ala

Statesman"• Year-Book
World Almanac and Book of
Facts
Information Pleue Almanac
Yeatbook of the United Na-
tions

Atlaaa and Ma,-

Atlas of Islamic Iliitory
Collier's World Atlas and
Gazetteer
Encyclopedia Britanmca
World Atlas
Hammond's Geographical
Atlas
11\ e Times Atlas of the
World

Boob of *Quotaffons*

JOHN JWI'l'Lftr, FamItlv
Quotations
Hoyt'■ New Cyclopedia of
Practbl Quotations
I. O. CHAMPION, Racial Prov-
erbs
The Oxford Dictionary of
Quotadons
■URTON ITEVDfllON, 11le
Home Book of Quotations

SPECIFIC REFERENCE WORX:S

.,.,.,.,, *and* ~~Itro~~

MARJAN c, MANLSY, BIl1lnea
Information: , How to
Find and U■e It

OLKNN o. MUNN, Encyclo-
pedia of Banking and Fi-
nallC.'e

**Business and Finance
(cont.)**

ROBERT J. SCHWARTZ, Dictionary of Business and Industry
UNITED NATIONS, Statistical Yearbook
Foreign Commerce Yearbook

Education

American Universities and Colleges
CARTER AND BURKE, How to Locate Educational Information
Education Abstracts
Encyclopedia of Educational Research
Review of Educational Research

Engineering

LOUIS DERR, Cyclopedia of Engineering
A. L. DYD, Automobile and Gasoline Engine Encyclopedia
Engineering Index
Industrial Arts Index

Humanities

American Authors, 1800-1900
J. BLANCIC, Bibliography of American Literature
Cambridge Bibliography of English Literature
Cambridge History of American Literature
Collins, Music Encyclopedia
Cyclopedia of Painters and Painting
Encyclopedia of World Art
Encyclopedia of Religion and Ethics
Grove's Dictionary of Music and Musicians

Humanities (cont.)

Twentieth Century Authors
Cambridge History of English Literature
EGON WIDMERSZ, Ancient and Oriental Music

Natural Science

CHARLES, BEADNELL, Dictionary of Scientific Terms
Chambers Technical Dictionary
Condensed Chemical Dictionary
CRANE AND PATTERSON, Guide to the Literature of Chemistry
GRAY, Dictionary of Physics
JAMES, Mathematics Dictionary
IIRJC AND OTHMER, Encyclopedia of Chemical Technology
McGraw-Hill Encyclopedia of Science and Technology
Science Abstracts
SINGER AND HOLMYARD, A History of Technology
SOULE, A Library Guide for the Chemist
Van Nostrand's Scientific Encyclopedia

Social Sciences

ADAMS, Dictionary of American History
American Labor Yearbook
Cambridge Ancient History
Cambridge Medieval History
Cambridge Modern History
DUTCHER, Guide to Historical Literature
Economic Almanac
International Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences

SadaJ Sdnoa (oonl.)

The Ilarvard Gulde to
American Hlltmy
urra◆ Dicltonuy of Datea
LOW AND PIJLUNC, DlcUon-
uy of English History
Political Handbook of the
World

Sodal Solnoll (oonl.)

Psychological Amtncb

ma. Dtctlonary. of Geo-
graphical 1•enm

THIUMICII, An Encyclopec)fa
of Modem World Politics

WAIHIIEN, Dictionary of Pl)•
chology

Work Exerclw

&llla11 'I-'I. Below ii a nwnbm,d lilt of ten reference worb. Ulinl only
this llat, for each of. the following question, write the num-
ber of. the refermce which you think would provide answers.
In 101De cues MMnl references might be useful. 'lile Int
two are **done** a aamplm.

1. CoDI111' MULic Encyclopedia
2. Statesman's Year-BookCurrent Biography
3. Eocydopedia of Relfglon
4. Mathematics Dictionary
5. The Odmd Dictionary of
6. Quotations
7. Chford English Dictionary
8. The Time1 Atlas of the World
9. Von Nostrand's Scientiftc Encyclopedia
10. 1118 World Almanac

a. 2, 4 IQ_ What Is the birtbdate of Prmident NimnP

b. I Who wroIII **the** opera AldaP

c. _____ What are **the** dfetary **laws** of JnclaumP

d. _____ When wu Lawrence Olivier ImghteclP

e. _____ What 11 a Mobim ltrfpP

f. _____ In what year Wlii William **Tubman** Int elected
president of LibmlaP

g. _____ What II the average rainfall in CaylonP

h. _____ What Is the IOW'Ce of the quotation that begins ..No
man II an island .. ,•p

i. _____ What did dam. mean In Old EnglllhP

j. _____ Who wrota the UnklSpplaonvP.

- k. _____ What is the boiling point of tungsten?
- L. _____ Does a Shintoist believe in immortality?
- m. _____ How do you find the area of a trapezoid?
- n. _____ Is U Thant from Burma or Thailand?
- o. _____ In what play did Shakespeare write, "Parting is such sweet sorrow"?
- p. _____ Who won three gold medals in the 1968 Olympics?
- q. _____ Is the formula for ethylene glycol $\text{C}_2\text{H}_4(\text{OH})_2$ or $\text{C}_2\text{H}_6(\text{OH})_2$?
- r. _____ Why is a Stradivarius violin so famous for its quality?
- s. _____ What was the tonnage of shipping that passed through the Suez Canal last year? Was this more or less than passed through the Panama Canal?
- t. _____ How was the word love first used in English?

Exercise 7-8. Your instructor will assign you one of the following groups of three topics. Choose two of the three topics. Using encyclopedias, dictionaries, yearbooks, and atlases, list sources of information from the reference books in your library. Write the title of the reference book, the publisher's name, place and date of publication, and the volume and page number. Skim through the information and write a brief description and evaluation of it. For example, for the topic of Lebanon, several sample entries might be:

1. *Encyclopedia Britannica* (London: Encyclopedia Britannica, 1957), vol. 13, pp. 852-855. Location, history, and political divisions.
2. *Encyclopedia Americana: Annual, 1958* (New York: Americana Corp., 1959), pp. 385-387. 1958 revolution and U.S. marine landing.
3. *New Reference Atlas* (New York: Rand McNally, 1918), p. 76. Poor map: old boundaries and population figures seriously out of date.
4. *The World Almanac, 1969* (New York: Newspaper Enterprise Association), p. 531. Up-to-date half-column summary of resources, history, government, education, and religion.



J00 UiffllaUlwarv

Group A

1. George Wuhington
2. Luxembourg
3. History of basketball

Group C

1. Magna Chuta
2. George Bemud Shaw
3. Battle of Marathon

Group E

1. Johann Sebastian Bach
2. Pearl &shing in Bahrein
3. Television

Group G

1. Ballet
2. Fiji Islands
3. Lord Byron

Group I

1. Jet propulsion
2. Turtles
3. Charles de Gaulle

Group K

1. Roman Catholic Church
2. Abraham Lincoln
3. Bacteriological warfare

Group M

1. Hypnotism
2. M01e11
3. Medco City

Group O

1. Papyrus
2. Dem01thene1
3. Penian art

Group Q

1. Simon Bolivu
2. Aurora boreall,
3. Eskimo1

Group B

1. Invention of gunpowder
2. ICfni Arthur
3. Cru1ader castles

Group D

1. Ghana
2. Martin Luther IC4ng
3. Fertilizen

Group F

1. Head hunters
2. Atomic radiation
3. Albert Einstein

Group H

1. Henry VIII of England
2. Birth control
3. Interior decoration

Group J

1. Japanese kabuki
2. Hawaiian sugar production
3. Fidel Castro

Group L

1. Earthquakes
2. U 'Thant
3. Aramaic

Group N

1. MahatmaChandi
2. Mount Everest
3. South Korea

Group P

1. Oil tanken
2. Narcotics
3. Argentine bcief

Group R

1. Boylc,1 Law
2. Tobacco
3. Pharaoh Ikhn"ton

Group S

1. Urnnium
2. Mount Palomar
3. Mata Hari

Group T

1. Oriental carpets
2. Joan of Arc
3. Heart transolants

Every library has a section or a special room for periodicals. These are journals, magazines, bulletins, and pamphlets that are published periodically: weekly, monthly, or quarterly. Most libraries will put current periodicals on display, filed alphabetically in racks or boxes. After a certain period of time they are removed, bound in volumes, and shelved in the stacks. If you are looking for a current journal, you will probably find it on the periodicals shelves. If it is more than a year old, you will have to fill out a call slip.

Each academic field has numerous professional journals which publish articles dealing with specific subjects in the field. A university library subscribes to several thousand magazines and journals of this kind.

To help you locate articles about a particular topic, indexes for special fields of study are published regularly. For example, there is an Art Index, Education Index, Index to *Legal Periodical*, Social Sciences and Humanities Index, and many more. The Applied Science and Technology Index lists nearly 200 periodicals in the fields of aeronautics, automation, chemistry, electricity and electrical communication, engineering, geology and metallurgy, industrial and mechanical arts, physics, transportation and related subjects.

Periodicals

THE READERS' GUIDE. The Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature indexes more than 100 magazines of a fairly general nature. If you learn how to use The Readers' Guide, you will know how to use any of the other indexes. On pages 200 to 205 you will see the list of periodicals that The Reader's Guide indexes along with the abbreviations that are used, and a sample page of entries. Each volume covers a period of time: two years for the thick cloth-bound volume, three months for the large paper-bound collection, and two weeks for the thin, paper-bound booklet. Instead of looking in one place in the set of guides, you must look in each volume of the set, because each volume has its own alphabetical arrangement of the topics for the period of time it covers.

Articles are listed alphabetically under both the author and the subject. Subheadings and frequent cross references are helpful in finding what you want. Here are two sample entries, with ex-

planations. The first is a subject entry, the second is an author entry.

TIMBUKTU

Fabled Timbuktu is a small,
squalid city. Sci N L
67:59 Ja 22 •55

This entry means that, for the subject of Timbuktu, there is an article in *Science News Letter*, volume 67, page 59, published January 22, 1955. (In this case the article is unsigned, so that no author is given.)

WALKER, John S.

Thermonuclear reactions: can
they be used for man's benefit?
For Affairs 33:605-14 Jl •55

This means that John S. Walker wrote an article entitled "Thermonuclear Reactions: Can They Be Used for Man's Benefit?" It was published in the magazine *Foreign Affairs*, volume 33, on pages 605 to 614, in July of 1955.

There is a table of abbreviations in the front of each *Readers' Guide*. You should become familiar with the common abbreviations: months, dates, volume and page numbering, and the recurring symbols. If you are uncertain about the name of a magazine, check the abbreviations and list of periodicals in the front of the guide. You will need the complete, unabbreviated title of the magazine when you write a call slip to let the bound issues from the stacks.

When you are searching for information, the titles of the articles under the subject headings will help you decide whether the articles may have the information you want. If you want one of the magazines, fill out a call slip and present it to the librarian at the circulation desk, just as you would do for a book. Write only the volume number, date, and name of the magazine. Do not write the author and title of the particular article you are interested in. Of course you also write your name and address as usual. However, periodicals, whether bound or unbound, may not ordinarily be taken out of the library.

Periodicals Exercise

Exercise 7-9. On the next page is an entry from the *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature*. Answer the following questions.

AlaITIIATION, l11duatr111

U1111Nala1N
A-ehl?f\ta\.'11J. W. Walla.

1. What is .the general topic of thl1 articleP

2. What is the exact title of thl1 article?

3. Who is the author?

4. In what journal was this article published?

5. What ii the volume number?

6. On what pages does the article appearP

7. What is the date of publication?

8. What does bibliog f meanP

PARTIAL LIST OF PERIODICALS INDEXED IN READERS' GUIDE TO PERIODICAL LITERATIJRE

ALA Bui-ALA Bulletin

Am City—American City

Am Ed—American Education

Am Hilt R-American Historical Review

Am Scbolar—Americftn Scholar

America-America

Ann Am Acad-Annals of the American
Amdemy of Political and Social Science

Aviation W-Aviation Week & Space Tech-
nology

Bet **Hom** & Cud-Better **Homa** and **Car-**
dem

Blm \V-B1111Dea \Week

Chem--Qemfstry

Chr Today-Christianity Today

Cur Hist-Current History

Dept State Buī—Department of State Bul-
letin

Delign--Design

Ebony-Ebony

Electr World-Electronics World

Esquire-Esquire

Farm J-Fann **It** llni Q-Film

Q
For Alain-Foreign Alain

Good ff-Good HOU1ebepIng

Harper—Harper'■ **Mapzme**



Harvard Bsns R-Harvard Business Review
 Holiday-Holiday
 Horizon-Horizon
 House B-House Beautiful
 Ladies Home J-Ladies' Home Journal
 Library J-Library Journal
 Life-Life
 Look-Look
 McCall's-McCall's
 Mech Illus-Mechanix Illustrated
 Mlle-Mademoiselle
 Mo Labor R-Monthly Labor Review
 Mod Phot-Modern Photography
 Mus Q-Musical Quarterly
 Nat Geog-National Geographic
 Nation-Nation
 Nat R-National Review
 Nations Bsns-Nation's Business
 New Yorker-New Yorker
 Newsweek-Newsweek
 Opera N-Opera News
 Org Card & Farm- Organic Gardening & Farming
 Phys Today-Physics Today
 Pop Electr-Popular Electronics
 Pop Mech-Popular Mechanics
 Pop Sci-Popular Science Monthly

R Pop Astron-Review of Popular Astronomy
 Radlo-Electr-Radio-Electronics
 Read Digest-Reader's Digest
 Sat Eve Post-Saturday Evening Post
 Sat R-Saturday Review
 Sch & Soc-School and Society
 Sci A-Scientific American
 Sci Digest-Science Digest
 Sci N-Science News
 Science-Science
 Sports Illus-Sports Illustrated
 Sue Farm-Successful Farming
 Sunset-Sunset
 Time-Time
 Todays Ed-Today's Education
 Todays Health-Today's Health
 Travel-Travel
 UN Mo Chron-UN Monthly Chronicle
 UNESCO Courier-UNESCO Courier
 US Camera-US Camera
 US News-U.S. News & World Report
 Vogue-Vogue
 Weatherwise-Weatherwise
 Writers Digest-Writer's Digest
 Yachting-Yachting

ABBREVIATIONS USED IN THE READER'S GUIDE

+	continued on later pages of same issue	ed	edited, •ion, -or	prelim p	preliminary p
abp	architecture	F	February	pscud	pacudonym
abr	abridged	facslm	facsimile	q	quarterly
A1	Au1u11	Hon	Honorable	-r	request
Ap	April	i	indul	rev	revised
arch	architect	ii	Illustrated, -ions, -or	s	September
arr	arranged	inc	incorporated	ستن	stitched in last num-
a'bn	association	lnlrod	Introduction, -tory	1b	bcr of volume
bart	baronet	Ja	January	stitched in tint num-	
biblio1	bibliography	Je	June	bcr of volume	
biblio1 r	bibliographical	Jr	junior	semi-m	stitched in a follow-
	footnotes	-l	sent loose	-afn	ina number of
bi-m	bimonthly	m,mo	monthly		successive volumes
bi-w	biweekly	Mr	March	umc	
bp	bishop	My	May	•nlor	supplement
comp	compiled, -er	N	November	tab	table
cond	condensed	no	number	tp-	title page
con1	continued	-none	none included	lpi-	title page and index
D	December	ns	new series	tr	translated, -ion, -or
dlaa	dla1ram	0	October	v	volume
		pl	philc	w	weekly
		por	portrait		

Sample page from The Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature.

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Info. Allen (annWad. for flaper1: rom er-
AMI "ICAN studn In Ruma, B-rena.n
ltUdenta ID - - -

BLOCK, Arthur Ray
American student in Russia. America 130:3-
13 Ja 4 '68
BLOCK, Victor
Wild cats could turn them off. Today's Health
44:54-74 D '68
BLOOD
Collection and preservation
See also
Blood banks
Corpuscles and platelets
Inside a blood cell; ion etching. B. J. Cul-
lison. U Sci N 94:440 D 12 '68
BLOOD banks
Blood banks, how do you benefit from them?
CHAMBERLAIN William & Gard 44:30 D '68
T B with WUt. p r N-w.-k TZ:41 D 10

CHAMONIX, -r-
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p N U:32 D 11
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ELECTRONIC apparatus and appliances
Testing
Jobs for electronic testers. L. L. Farkas. U
Radio-Electr 39:52+ D '68
ELECTRONIC circuits
Integrated circuits
Nine digital readout IC instruments. R.
Genter. U Radio-Electr 39:57-61+ D '68
ELECTRONIC data processing
Airline data systems seen cutting costs. N.
S. Himmel. U Aviation W 39:79-83 D 12 '68
See also
Programming languages (computers)
ELECTRONIC technicians
Jobs for electronic testers. L. L. Farkas. U
Radio-Electr 39:52+ D '68

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Hf-1t lou U TacbUM IH:11-1+ D '11
& CUMUI&, Iu-1 HJ:111
tt&-....., .. 'Qlw., -- JC.

Eure• 7-10. Above is a sample page from the Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature. Use the information to answer the following questions.

1. a. You are interested in information about the collection and preservation of blood. The cross reference tells you to look under the subject _____



- b. What is the title of the article that may give you information about this subject?

- c. The author, _____, published his article in the magazine _____, volume _____, page _____

2. BLOCK, Arthur Ray. This is an author entry. Under what subject entry can you find exactly the same information about his article?

3. a. What is the title of an article about forced-air heating?

- b. On what pages of *Sunset* does this article appear? _____

- c. When was this article published? _____

4. Does the article about gastropods by H. A. Lowenstam have any pictures or illustrations?


5. An article about electronic integrated circuits is listed under a subject entry. Can you find exactly the same information under an author entry? What is the author's name?

6. In what journal could you possibly find information about the number of students from your country who were studying in the

United States in 1967-1968? _____

7. Under what subject in the *Readers' Guide* might you find information about electronic data processing?

8. Does the article in *Newweek* about Wilt Chamberlain have a

picture of him?  _____

9. What are the three subheadings under the  subject of Detroit?

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

10. .. What U the pmpoae of the grant which the Ford Foundation made to the Unfvcnlty of ChicagoP

b. In what journal ll there an article about thltP

c. On what page, ? -----

d. Are there any tables or IllllustratiomP _____

EnrdN 7-U. For whiche,-er of the 1ubject1 below that your instructor assigns, find the most rec•nt article that fl indexed In Th, lwad,n' Guiel• lo Periodical Lt,ratur•. On the lines below, write the information in the form of a footnote. For example:

Rnd,n' Gulilll: WAL■■R, John S.
Tbeffl)onuclear reactions: can they be
•wec1 for man'• bene'litP For Alain
SS:804-14 JI '55

Footnote:

John S. Walker, "Thermonuclear Reactions:
Can They Be Used for Man's Benefit?" *Foreign*
Affaires vol. 33 (July 1955) pp. 604-614

1. Sh:ablpeare

2. Solar energy

3. Dieting

4. Pablo Picaao

5. *Arpania*

6. James Bond

7. Harvard Unlver1lty

8. Computen

9. The United Natiom

10. Atomic radiation

11. The Nobel Priu

12. President Noon

13. The price of gold

14. Dalal Lama of Tibet

15. Intmnational language

16. Dead Sea Scrolls

17. Advertising

18. Ju,•enile ◆linqu"ncy

19. Mill Universe contests

10. Auusination of

President ◆nnedy

Footnote 1: _____

Footnote .1: _____



Footnote 3:

Vocabulary Exercise

Exercise 7-11. The following words have appeared in this chapter. They may or may not be familiar to you. Because they are fairly common words which you will see often, if you are not sure of their meanings, write them in your vocabulary record.

annotated
the arbitration
to compile

comprehensive
concise
the lexicography

the pamphlet
thorough

8

Preparing to Pass

E, callri!rtations

An examination reflects how well you have understood the material of a particular course. This is the obvious purpose of exams, but the application of this purpose is often misunderstood. The results of an examination are used for several purposes:

1. You should use an exam as an incentive to study regularly and as a reason to review. Most students admit that they study harder when an exam has been announced. They should, of course, but it should be to review the material, not learn it for the first time.
2. You should use the results of an exam as a measure of how much you understand and where you need extra effort. This means that you should look over your exam when (and if) it is returned, analyze your mistakes, and check with your teacher or text. Don't look at only the grade, jump with joy or groan with despair, then throw the paper away.
3. Your teacher uses the results of an exam to help him determine your final grade. He may have some idea of how much he thinks you have learned, but to be as fair as possible, he tests his belief by testing you. If you have regularly done satisfactory work in class, you should do the same on exams. If you have done poor work, you have the chance to prove that you can do better.

You can prepare much better for exams if you recognize their positive value. Also, until some other way of judging a student's progress has been found, exams will be an unavoidable part of the educational system. You may as well make the best of the situation.

How to Prepare for Examinations

An examination tests more than your knowledge. It tests your mental discipline and emotional stability too. Some students occasionally collapse under the stress of exams. Fear makes them nervous, or they suddenly become sick. This may be only a psychological excuse, a subconscious way of avoiding personal responsibility for not having prepared properly. To avoid this disease of test anxiety, try the following prescription.

PHYSICAL PREPARATION. If you have studied properly, there should be no reason to cram at the last minute. It is much wiser to get a good night's sleep than to stay up till the early hours of the morning and then be half awake during the exam. Health is an important factor in taking successful exams. Avoid strain and fatigue by eating regularly and getting your usual amount of sleep. The best preparation the night before an exam is to review briefly the material that you have reviewed during the preceding days. Then relax, preferably by going to bed early.

EMOTIONAL PREPARATION. Like your body, your mind needs to be in a good state of health also. If you face an emotional block or a mental blackout, you should reexamine your study habits. Allow yourself enough time to review so that there are no last-minute regrets or tensions. Immediately before the exam, relax. It's too late to do anything else. Don't waste energy by worrying, disputing small details with friends, or suddenly trying to memorize something. The pressure will merely upset you. Simply be confident that you have done and will do your best. It is understandable that you might become nervous and tense, but you should realize that the testing situation occurs throughout life and is not peculiar to school life alone.

REVIEW PREPARATION. When an exam is announced, you can best prepare yourself in the following way:

1. As early as possible, begin to plan your time for review. Arrange your schedule so that you have enough time to continue your regular studies, but begin to add hours here and there for a careful, conscientious review. Several short review periods are more effective than one long session.
2. To review does not mean to reread the textbook or to memorize facts and formulas at the last minute. If you have studied properly, you should need only to look through your notes or the underlined parts of your textbook. From this perspective, summarize the main facts, trends, or arguments. Organize

Organize the material into meaningful patterns and relationships. Apply the principles and formulas to typical problems. Do not waste time reviewing material you fully understand, except to relate it to other material. Concentrate your time and attention on the material you are not sure of. Practice solving problems, answering possible questions, or relating the information to the information you already know.

3. It is practical to study for an exam in the same way you expect to take the exam. Therefore, there is good reason to know the kind of exam your teacher plans to give so that you can anticipate the kind, if not the exact content, of questions. If you are expected to solve problems, prepare by practicing different types of problems. If you are expected to discuss a physics theory or to explain the preparation of a chemical compound, concentrate on that. If you are expected to identify historical events, places, personalities, or dates, review this factual material carefully. If you are expected to discuss causes and effects, influences and developments, focus your attention on the total material and organization of the course. In other words, review the material in the same way in which you expect to use it.
4. After you have reviewed often and briefly during the preceding days, quickly review all of the material the night before the exam. Then go to bed, relaxed and confident. The next morning you might want to go over some material briefly, but don't expect to learn anything new. It's too late for that. All you want to do is to get the wheels of your mind turning so that when you enter the exam room, you are ready to start. Be certain that you have prepared well, confident that you can now do your best.

Whether an exam is an objective or essay type, it is a good idea to look over the whole exam before beginning to write anything. Be sure you understand the directions. Notice if you are told how to divide your time, or if the relative value of each question is given. If there is a choice of questions, consider each choice carefully, plan possible answers in your mind, then choose to answer that question in which you feel the most confidence.

While taking the exam, keep these important points in mind:

1. Be sure that you follow directions. This is especially important for objective-type exams. The direction may change from question to question, or they may be different from what you are accustomed to. Follow all directions exactly.
2. Be sure that you answer the question. This is especially important for essay-type exams. If you have indicated a par-

How to Take an Examination

ticular question during your review and have practlt'ed an answer, there la the temptation to write it on your exam, even though the actual question may be phrased differently or ask for other information. Also, many students feel that the more the)' write, the better their grade will be. If there is a correlation between quantity and quality, it is because the student who writes the most also knows the most. More often, students write too much because they are not sure of the answer. Consequently, they write u much u they can think of, hoping that "omewhere among all the word, ll the eeuect answer. Circumlocutions of this kind are quickly recognized by the teacher. Stick closely to the Information that is relevant to the question, and present it concisely and precisely.

3. Work steadily but not with nervous hute or pressure. Notice the time periodically, and don't spend more than the suggested time on any one question.
4. Write legibly. draw diagrams clearly. and write letters and numbers accurately so there can be no doubt u to what you mean.
5. When you &nish. don't sit back. look about the room to see if others have noticed how fast you have completed the eum, then tum in your paper---only to discover a careless mistake just after you have left the room. If you &nish early, go back over the paper carefnlly. An omitted not, a wrong algebraic sign, or an illegible number can make the difference between triumph and tears. In an objective-type test, reread the directions and make sure you have followed them euctly.
8. After reviewing your paper to your own satisfaction, he sure you have written your name on the exam (and on each page if necessary) and that each page is numbered. You are then ready to submit your exam. Your signature on it is evidence that you have done your best aad most careful work.

An eumfnation falls Into one of two main categories: the objective exam and the subjective exam. Ell<'h ty{H' has certain advantages and disadvantages, depending upon tht" rours<'. content, and purpo,e of the exam, Because few foreign schools use- tht objecdve-type exam, you are probably ll"SS famlliar with It than with the 1ubjective, or essay, type.

Types al Ex111i11tions

OBJEcRIVE EXAMINATIONS. There are numt"rous variations of this type of exam. Basically. In an objective exam you are limited to **selecting** the right **at11wer** from a group of possible

answers. You do not write anything; you merely decide whether the answer opposite A, B, C, or D is correct. This exam is considered to be objective in two ways: (1) Each student has an equal chance; he must merely choose the correct answer from the same list of alternatives, therefore he has no opportunity to express a different attitude or personal opinion. (2) The judgment and personality of the teacher cannot influence the correction in any way. Indeed, many objective tests are scored by machines.

This type of exam may be graded more quickly and objectively than the subjective type, but it is not necessarily more reliable. An objective exam requires you only to recognize rather than to reproduce what you have learned. Although a well-constructed objective exam can require you to think through a complicated problem, evaluating alternatives before selecting an answer, it is generally not as effective as the subjective type in measuring your ability to assimilate or interpret information.

English expression is not a factor in an objective exam (except, of course, in an English language exam). Reading comprehension, however, is very important. It is necessary to understand and follow directions exactly, and to read each question completely and carefully.

Objective exams are usually true-false, multiple choice, matching, or sentence completion questions. Following are examples of **each** of these kinds of questions.

True-False Circle the letter T if the statement is true.
Circle the letter F if the statement is false.

- (T) F** 1. English is spoken as a native language by about 300 million people.

True-False On the line to the left of each statement, write "true" if the statement is true; write "false" if the statement is false.

- FALSE** 1. English has more native speakers than any other language in the world.

Multiple Choice Select the one answer which completes the sentence correctly. Blacken the letter of the answer.

1. The language of Shakespeare is considered to be
A Old English
B Middle English
C Early Modern English
D Modern English



Multiple Choice Select the one answer which completes the sentence correctly. Make an X through the letter of the answer.

1. Old English was spoken in England from about
 A 100 to 500 AD
 B 500 to 1100 AD
 C 1100 to 1500 AD
 D 1500 to 1700 AD

Multiple Choice Decide which of the four alternatives best completes the meaning of the sentence. On the line to the left of each sentence, write the letter of the correct answer.

U It's raining today; \.

A	however,	we can't go swimming..
B	although,	
C	therefore,	
D	nevertheless,	

Matching For each of the inventors at the left, match the invention for which he is credited at the right. Write the letter of the inventor on the line opposite the invention. There are more inventors than inventions.

A	Wright Brothers	1.	<u>D</u>	phonograph
B	Samuel F. B. Morse	2.	<u>G</u>	telephone
C	Thomas Edison	3.	<u>D</u>	dynamite
D	Alfred Nobel	4.	<u>D</u>	airplane
E	Robert Fulton	5.	<u>II.</u>	telegraph
F	Igor Sikorsky	6.	<u>E</u>	helicopter
G	Alexander Bell			

Standard Exam: A standard exam is an objective type that is used widely and often repeatedly. You may have taken an English exam of this kind; for example, TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language), ALICU (the English test of the American Language Institute, Georgetown University), or the English Proficiency Test (University of Michigan). The Scholastic Aptitude Test and the Graduate Record Examination (Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey) are other examples.

On exams of this type, you are not expected to answer all of the questions or get a perfect score. Your result is reported as a standard score, based on the results of thousands of students. Because these exams are corrected by machine, you do not indicate answers on the exam paper itself. Instead you mark a separate answer sheet, usually by blackening a space or letter that corresponds with the letter of the answer on the exam paper.

Whatever the specific directions may be, follow them exactly. A machine cannot guess what answers you intended. Also, because you must read questions on one paper and record answers on another paper, under the pressure of time you may become confused and misplace an answer. Be sure that the number of the answer corresponds with the number of the question.

Following are two sample questions and answers from a standard test in English.

EXAM PAPER		ANSWER SHEET			
1.	Because there was not enough food, many people died of	A	B	C	D
	A assumption.	1.			
	B distinction.		F	G	H
	C starvation.				
	D obstruction.	2.			
2.	"How did you get to this country?"	3.			
	E "A week ago."		E	F	G
	F "To study."	4.			
	G "New York."				
	H "By plane."				

On any type of objective exam, it is important to read the directions carefully and follow them exactly. They will differ from exam to exam, and sometimes within an exam. Be sure you understand how you should indicate your answers and that you do it exactly as required. Otherwise your answer is likely to be counted wrong.

When you take an exam of this kind, look over the whole exam first to get a general idea of the type and range of questions, the method of indicating your answers, and any suggested distribution of time. Check to see if there are any directions about guessing. Often a wrong answer counts off double while an omitted answer counts off only one. Avoid wild guessing, but if you have a vague idea of the answer, or if you are sure that several of the choices are obviously wrong, it may be to your advantage to guess.

When you are sure that you understand the directions, begin. Do not spend too much time on any one question. If you are not sure of it, omit it and go on to others, coming back to it later if you have time.

Read the statements carefully. Look for important key words such as all, none, rumer, always, sometime, *lea..t*, *best*, Words of this kind are qualifiers on which the correctness of a statement depends.

When you have finished the exam, check your paper over. Ask yourself:

1. Have I followed directions exactly? (Read the directions *R?in* and check to see if you followed them.)
2. Have I answered all the questions I possibly can? (Check to see if you have omitted any that you now feel you can answer with some degree of certainty.)
3. Have I recorded the answers accurately and clearly? (Check to see if you have written letters and single-word answers legibly. On separate answer sheets, check to be sure you have not marked two answers for the same question.)

SUBJECTIVE (OR ESSAY-TYPE) EXAMINATIONS. This type of exam is considered to be subjective because you are able to express your own opinions freely and interpret information in my way you wish. In the same way, your teacher is able to evaluate the quality of your opinions and interpretations, as well as the organization and logic of your presentation.

An essay exam allows you to select, organize, and present information in whatever way you choose. This freedom requires several responsibilities.

First, be sure you know how much time you are permitted. Plan to write only as much as you can write well in the time allowed.

Second, read each question carefully. Be sure you understand what the following common words require you to do:

Compare and contrast. To compare means to show in what ways several things are similar. To contrast means to show in what ways they are different. If you are asked to do only one, either to compare or to contrast, it is permissible to mention the other, but emphasis should be placed on either the comparison or the contrast.

Criticize. To criticize means to express your own judgment, keeping in mind the basis you are using for critical evaluation. Remember to bring out the good as well as the bad points.

Discuss. To discuss means to write a relatively full and detailed answer insofar as your knowledge and time permit. You are free to approach the question as you wish, but you should include an analysis of the problem and a consideration of both sides of any possible argument.

Enumerate. To enumerate means to write your points, one by one, in a list or in outline form. Make them as concise as possible.

State. To state means to answer briefly and to the point. Details, examples, and illustrations are usually omitted.

Relate. To relate means to show relationships by emphasizing the connections and associations of various things; how one thing causes or is caused by another; how things are like or unlike others.

Illustrate. To illustrate usually means to clarify an idea by presenting a diagram, figure, or specific example.

Explain. To explain means to clarify, interpret, or otherwise make clear the material. Give reasons for differences of opinions or results, and analyze facts, causes, or trends.

Summarize. To summarize means to present in condensed form the principal facts, ideas, or explanations. Details, examples, and illustrations should be omitted.

Third, before you begin to write anything, organize your thoughts by outlining a possible answer. Check your outline to see that it has a pattern of development. When you feel sure that you have included as much information as required, and only information that is relevant, begin to write.

Your English is an important part of *the essay*. While writing essays for courses other than English, you may tend to neglect the quality of your English. An essay examination is a kind of verbal communication. "The clarity of the message depends upon the clarity of your expression. If your grammar is imprecise, if your vocabulary is ambiguous, if your organization is distorted, if your handwriting is illegible, there is likely to be a breakdown in communication. Even if the message comes through, confused but comprehensible, your teacher may unconsciously deduct credit for straining his eyesight and patience. Use the very best English you know at all times. It will help in your work in other courses, and it will reinforce correct language habits in English.

Ten-minute Quiz. A common type of essay exam is the ten-minute quiz. It may be announced or unannounced. Some teachers give them more often than others. If you can persuade yourself to expect one for every lesson, you will be motivated to prepare more thoroughly than you otherwise might.

Questions on a ten-minute quiz will differ according to the subject. In mathematics and sciences, you may be asked to solve a problem, but you may also be asked to define a substance, explain a process, or describe a reaction. Questions of this kind

require the same quality of organized writing as questions in history, sociology, economics, or English.

Because you have such a short time, it is important to understand the question clearly and to answer it concisely. Compare these two answers to the same ten-minute question:

Question: What reasons does the author give against the use of any current language as an international language?

Student 1: The author gives two reasons why no language today would be acceptable as an international language. (1) Language is a symbol of national pride to which people tend to be more attached than anything else. If any one language were selected as an international language, it would gain prestige over all others. Linguistic nationalism makes an imposed international language almost impossible. (2) Languages change. Rapid communication does not necessarily stabilize a language, so that eventually the language chosen as an international language would break into numerous national dialects which might ultimately become mutually unintelligible.

Student 2: The author points out that people tend to feel that their language is the best language. This is so because they grow up speaking it and because they speak it they assume it is the best, though maybe it isn't. Also some languages are better languages to express certain ideas in modern life and if a person's language doesn't express their ideas well, he might have difficulty understanding the idea when it is expressed in another language. This is why no current language would be good for an international language. Also a language changes as it is used; for example, English is now quite different from what it used to be in Shakespeare's day. That's why it is so difficult for us to read Shakespeare's plays now, even though he is supposed to be the world's greatest dramatist, which he is.

Student 2 has attempted to write the same reasons as those written by Student 1. However, the reasons are not really clear in his mind; consequently, his answer is disorganized and includes irrelevant comments and an afterthought. The first answer is clear-cut and well organized.

For a ten-minute quiz, take a minute to think, organize your thoughts, then answer precisely and concisely. When you have done that, stop. If time is left, avoid the tendency to add other ideas just to prove that you have done the assignment. Concentrate on the specific question. When you have written your answer, look your essay over for careless grammar and spelling. Find your mistakes before your teacher does.

Vocabulary Exercise

Enrcw 8-1. The following words have appeared In this chapter. They may or n1ay not be famlliar to you. Because they are fairly common words whid1 you will see often, if you are not sure of their meanings, write them in your vocabulary record.

.1.mbiguous
the anxiety
to assimilate
the blackout
the circumlocution
the clarity
to colla_{pse}

to condense
conscientious
to dispute
to distort
the fatigue
to impose
the incentive

the perspective
the prescription
the prestige
to stabilize
subconscious
the tension
vague

Inventory of Vocabulary

This inventory of vocabulary is an alphabetical listing of all the words that have been isolated in the vocabulary exercise for each chapter. Following each word is the number of the page where the word first occurs.

The form of the word is listed here as it occurs in the text. However, you should be familiar with other common forms. For example, *penn*, *ad.* is listed, but you should also know the noun form, *pen*, *a*, *fon*, the adjective form, *pen*, *ad.* and the adverb form, *pen*, *ad.*

Words from some of the exercises, either highly technical or of very limited value to students, have been omitted.

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
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