# PART ONE – WHILE LISTENING

- This part of the exam aims at testing your ability understand the main points and important examples in a discussion.
- You are going to listen to a student and a university tutor talking about emotional intelligence (EQ). Gizem is going to do an oral presentation about this topic and is consulting her tutor.
- Answer the following questions while you listen and give short answers. At the end of the discussion, you will be given 5 minutes to check your answers.
- You will hear the discussion only ONCE.
- Now you have 3 minutes to read the questions before the discussion begins.
- The answers are IN THE SAME ORDER as the information provided in the discussion.

1. Emotional intelligence is a kind of social intelligence that involves the ability to _____ _____. (Write only one)

2. Self-awareness is understanding _____.

3. What does self-motivation require? _____

4. A person who can recognize the value of the _____ has the ability to empathize.

5. Two of the abilities necessary to handle one's relationships with others are _____ and _____.

6. Intelligence is defined as a set of cognitive abilities that help us to acquire knowledge, _____ _____.

7. What are two explanations that show the advantages of developing one's emotional IQ?

   a. _____

   b. _____

Please turn the page ===>

(1)

8. Is the following statement **TRUE** or **FALSE**? Please CIRCLE the correct answer.

   Emotional intelligence is an inborn capacity which cannot be learned or taught.

   **TRUE** **FALSE**

9. The **two** components of the 'Know Yourself' step of the training model are _____ and _____.

10. What is the aim of the 'Choose Yourself' step of the training model?

    _____

11. How was "delayed gratification" defined by the speaker?

    _____

12. Daniel Goleman's study on a group of four-year-olds show that those who develop delayed gratification will _____

13. What is the 'Give Yourself' step based on?

    _____

14. Which test gives information about how other people perceive us?

    _____

(2)

# PART TWO – LECTURE AND NOTE-TAKING

- **This part of the exam aims at testing your note-taking ability from a lecture.**
- **You are going to listen to a lecture about pain and how scientists turn to nature to develop new medicine. Take notes on the following pages as you listen to the lecture. Your notes will not be marked.**
- **At the end of the lecture, you will be given questions which you have to answer by using the notes you have made. You will have 15 minutes to answer the questions.**
- **Listen to the lecture and take notes. Note down the important information, as well as examples.**
- **You will hear the lecture only ONCE.**
- **You now have 1 minute to look at the note-taking headings before the lecture starts**

***You may use this page and the following two pages to take your notes.***

## NOTES

**Pain & chronic pain**

**Neurogenic pain**

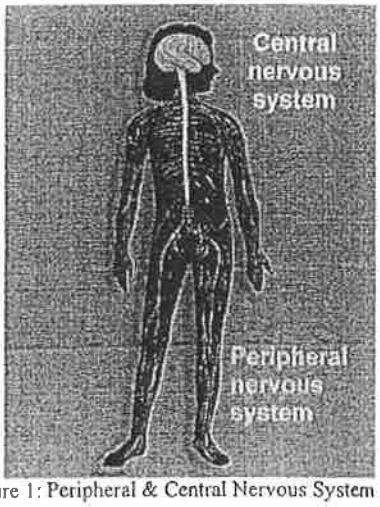
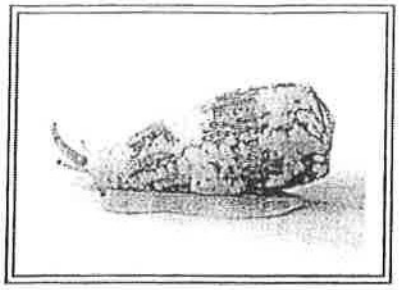



Figure 1: Peripheral & Central Nervous System

**Unidentifiable pain**

**The '5th Vital Sign'**

**The 'Pain Market'**



**Conus magus** (Pacific Ocean cone snail)

## PART TWO – LECTURE AND NOTE-TAKING – PAIN - QUESTIONS

**Answer the following questions by using the notes you have made. You have 15 minutes to complete this part. Give precise answers. You will lose points if you include irrelevant information in your answer.**

1. According to the lecturer, when does a person generally experience pain?

_____

2. How do the pain signals serve a protective function?

_____

3. What are the distinguishing features of chronic pain?

   a. _____

   b. _____

4. What is **one** way in which chronic pain would have a profound effect on the sufferers and their families?

_____

5. **Two** of the tasks under the control of our central nervous system are _____

   and _____.

6. **One** cause of psychogenic pain is _____; and research results have shown that psychogenic pain can result in _____.

7. What is the significance of "vital signs" for doctors?

_____

8. According to the 2003 study carried out in the US, what are **two** of the areas where pain creates a negative outcome?

   a. _____

   b. _____

Please turn the page ===>

9. How will the painkiller produced from the venom of the *Conus Magus* alleviate pain?

_____

10. Look at the stages of how pain is experienced and put them in correct order. An example has been done for you.

| | |
|---|---|
| a) Calcium gates are closed. | 1 |
| b) Jonathan experiences the pain of the burn in his finger. | |
| c) Pain signal passes on to the next nerve cell. | |
| d) Calcium gates open. | |
| e) Pain signal reaches the brain. | |
| f) Jonathan burns his finger. | |
| g) Calcium enters the metabolism. | |
| h) Pain signal is received. | |

11. **Two** of the specific types of pain that the new painkiller will be able to help with are pain resulting from _____ and from _____

Part 1 Skimming (15%) Duration: 20 minutes

- **This part of the exam aims to test your ability to locate main ideas in a text. The text is about the biological and psychological processes involved in sleep.**
- **Each of the following headings matches <u>one</u> of the paragraphs in the text. Write the paragraph number beside the correct heading. The headings are <u>not in the same order</u> as the information in the text. One of the answers is given as an example.**
- **It may be useful to spend a few minutes previewing the text before you begin answering the questions.**
- **Each question is worth 1 point.**

| Paragraph Number | Heading |
|---|---|
| *15* | *e.g. The extent of sleep deprivation in everyday life.* |
| | a) Variations in sleeping habits among people of different cultures. |
| | b) Ways that people can cope with disturbances in their sleep routine. |
| | c) Different ideas about the purpose of REM sleep in humans. |
| | d) Differences in the characteristics of sleep as people grow older. |
| | e) How irregular working hours affect sleep patterns. |
| | f) A description of brain activity during different periods of NREM sleep. |
| | g) The physical and mental impact of missing small amounts of sleep. |
| | h) Results of experimental research to determine how the brain regulates sleep. |

___ / 8

(8)

# The Workings of Sleep

## The Sleep—Wakefulness Cycle: Circadian Rhythms

1. Sleep seems inescapable. Most people—indeed, most creatures—sleep. Some animals are awake during daylight and sleep at night, whereas other have the opposite cycle, but cycles of sleep and waking are the rule. Humans and other animals seem to have an internal biological clock that controls the sleep–wakefulness cycle. This clock runs on about a 24-hour cycle; thus, the term *circadian* arose from the Latin *circa diem* ("around a day"). Circadian rhythms are internally generated patterns of body functions, including hormonal signals, sleep, blood pressure, and body temperature, which vary over approximately a 24-hour cycle. Even when normal indications of whether it is day or night are missing, circadian rhythms still operate.

2. Light is not essential for maintaining circadian rhythms, but it is an important cue. Light helps keep the biological clock synchronised (Boivin et al., 1996). When time cues (clocks, natural light windows, temperature changes as the sun goes down) are missing from the environment for a long time, circadian rhythms still operate (Lavie, 2001). Early research indicated that when cues were absent, the cycle lengthened; but when all factors are controlled, the 24-hour cycle varies by only a few minutes (Lavie, 2001).

3. The impact of circadian rhythms can be seen when the body's routine is disrupted by having to work through the night and sleep during the day—the body's clock no longer matches the work clock. This disruption is apparent for airline pilots, police, and health-care workers—some of the approximately 10 million Americans who work at night (Beers, 2000). When workers put in long hours that stretch through the night and into the dawn, and especially when these hours are not regular, they become less attentive, think less clearly, and may even fall asleep on the job. Thus, employers, workers, and consumers need to be aware of the potential decreases in efficiency of night workers who vary their schedules, especially airline pilots and health-care workers. Their inattentiveness and errors can have serious safety consequences. Research shows that light therapy can help; exposure to bright light, even during sleep, can help reset circadian rhythms (Campbell & Murphy, 1998; Lavie, 2001). This possibility offers relief for those whose jobs call for constantly readjusting their internal clock.

4. Another problem with circadian rhythms is jet lag. If a traveler flies by jet from, say, New York City to London, the trip will take about 6 hours. If the plane takes off at 9:00 p.m., it will arrive in London 6 hours later—at 3:00 a.m.—as far as the body is concerned. It will seem very late at night. But local London time will be 8:00 a.m. The traveller will experience exhaustion and disorientation—*jet lag*. He might have the urge to sleep during the first day, which will make him stay up at night and keep his circadian rhythm different from London time. This experience will affect performance in ways similar to the experience of people who work at night on a shifting schedule.

5. What can be done to minimize the effects of a shifting schedule or jet lag? The body takes time to accommodate, so no instant cure is available (Dement, 1999), but gradual adjustments can be made to ease a transition in most cases. If a long-term adjustment is needed, for weeks rather than a few days, the adjustment process can be accelerated in two ways. One is through light exposure, which promotes wakefulness. Any level of light can be helpful, but the best is bright sunlight. To promote sleep, the hormone melatonin can be useful (Brown, 1994). This

hormone is produced by the pineal gland in the brain, rises before people fall asleep, and helps keep the biological clock synchronised (Middleton, Arendt, & Stone, 1997). Small doses of melatonin tend to promote sleep and can help shift the biological clock toward sleep.

**Sleep Stages: REM and NREM Sleep**

6. Until the 1950s, the assumption was that consciousness had two levels: awake and asleep. When early sleep researchers such as Eugene Aserinsky, Nathaniel Kleitman, and William Dement studied the sleep—wakefulness cycle, they found that sleep consists of five different stages. By using electroencephalograms (EEGs)—graphic records of brain-wave activity obtained through electrodes placed on the scalp and forehead— these researchers found that sleep included a variety of different levels of consciousness.

7. Researchers working in sleep laboratories study the EEG patterns that occur in the brain while participants sleep. They make these recordings by gluing measuring electrodes to participants' scalps and allowing them to sleep (no easy task for the participants). The electrodes measure the electrical activity of neurons in the brain, and the wave forms reflect the brain's activity. EEG waves vary in two ways: *frequency* and *amplitude*. The frequency shows the number of waves per second, and the amplitude indicates the height of the waves. Both of these factors are important in determining brain activity and stages of sleep. Recordings of the brain waves of sleeping participants have revealed five different stages of sleep, which occur in a cycle throughout a night's sleep.

8. The most dramatic finding of early sleep research was rapid eye movement (REM) sleep—characterized by high frequency, low amplitude brain wave activity and systematic eye movements (Aserinsky; Kleitman, 1953). REM sleep occurs only after people go through four stages of non—rapid eye movement (NREM) sleep. During an 8-hour sleep period, people typically progress through five full cycles of the five stages of sleep, each cycle lasting approximately 90 minutes.

9. In a normal adult, the EEG brain-wave patterns of wakefulness, the four stages of NREM sleep, and REM sleep are very distinctive. The waking brain-wave pattern exhibits high-frequency, low-amplitude waves, which indicate a lot of different types of brain activity. Stages 1 through 4 of NREM sleep reflect increasing relaxation of body activity and slower EEG activity; heart rate slows, blood pressure lowers, and respiration slows. EEG activity indicates lower levels of brain arousal. In addition, people become more difficult to awaken as they progress through the stages of NREM sleep.

10. In stage 1, light sleep, the brain waves are low amplitude and are relatively fast, with mixed frequencies. Sleepers in stage 1 can be awakened easily. Stage 2 sleep shows low-amplitude, nonrhythmic brain-wave activity, but sleepers in stage 2 are in deeper sleep than those in stage 1. Stage 3 sleep shows brain waves that are slower and higher in amplitude than those in stage 2, including some low-frequency, high amplitude waves called delta waves. Stage 4 sleep, the deepest sleep, has over 50% delta waves. This stage of sleep is the lowest level of arousal that people normally experience. Sleepers take about 30 to 40 minutes to go through these NREM stages. When sleepers leave stage 4, they move back through stages 3, 2, and sometimes stage 1, and then nearly awaken before going into REM sleep.

11. REM sleep is very different from NREM sleep, not only in the presence of eye movements but also in body and brain arousal. In REM sleep, breathing and heart rate increase, eye movements become rapid, and EEG waves are high in frequency and low in amplitude. Indeed, REM sleep is difficult to distinguish from waking on the basis of brain or physiological arousal. But in some sense, people are even more soundly asleep because they are more difficult to awaken. In addition, people experience paralysis of the postural muscles during REM sleep; they make small movements, but they cannot sit up, stand, or walk during this sleep stage. These seemingly contradictory indications have led to the term paradoxical sleep to describe REM sleep (Jouvet, 1999). When awakened from a REM period, sleepers are more likely to report that they were dreaming than when awakened from other stages. Early research on sleep and dreaming suggested that dreams occurred only during REM sleep, but, in fact, dreams occur during all stages of sleep (Foulkes, 1996).

12. Sleep cycles develop before birth, and they continue to change into adulthood. Initially, sleeping fetuses show no eye movements. Later, they show eye, facial, and bodily movements but not the five distinct stages of sleep (Dement, 1999). Newborns spend nearly half their sleep time in REM sleep. From age 1 to age 10, the ratio of REM sleep to stage 4 sleep decreases dramatically, accounting for only about 25% of sleep. In later adulthood, there is increased fragmentation of sleep patterns; older people have trouble sleeping through the night, and they experience a decrease in the proportion of REM sleep.

13. Sleep researchers have established the cyclic pattern that occurs during sleep by testing people in sleep laboratories. Almost everything that is known about sleep comes from people in Western, industrialized societies, which may produce a biased view of sleep. Anthropologist Carol Worthman studies sleep in other cultures, and she has found that our sleep patterns and habits may not be universal (Bower, 1999). People in traditional tribal cultures in Africa, Paraguay, Pakistan, and Indonesia have very different sleep habits from those of people in the United States. In these societies, sleep is more social, and people sleep in groups rather than alone or in couples; babies sleep with their mothers. Noise is part of the sleep environment, and there are no thick, comfortable mattresses. Yet people in these cultures sleep well—they tend to complain about getting too much rather than too little sleep. Not only do sleep habits of people in these cultures differ, but sleep patterns also vary. People in these cultures experience the five stages of sleep, but they spend more time in stages 1 and 2 and less in the deeper stages of 3 and 4. This difference may allow them to wake more easily in less protected environments. This cross-cultural research shows how easy it can be to overgeneralize laboratory research and how variable even biologically based activities like sleep can be.

**Sleep Deprivation**

14. In January 1964, at age 17, Randy Gardner made history by setting a world record by staying awake for more than 260 hours—just short of 11 days. He enlisted two friends to help keep him awake, and he took no stimulants, not even coffee. After 2 days, sleep researcher William Dement began supervising Gardner's progress, much to the relief of his parents. Although Gardner did not suffer any serious physical symptoms, there were marked psychological effects. On day 2, he had trouble focusing his eyes. On day 3, he experienced mood changes. On day 4, he was irritable and uncooperative; he also began to hallucinate. By day 6, Gardner had some memory lapses and difficulty speaking. By day 9, his thoughts and speech were sometimes incoherent. On day 10, blurred vision became more of a problem, and he was

regularly forgetting things. Mornings were his most difficult time. Despite these behavioral changes, Randy never became violent or behaved in a socially deviant manner. One of the most interesting aspects of Randy Gardner's adventure is what happened to his sleep after his deprivation. Dement followed up by monitoring and observing Gardner for several days to see how well he recovered, what happened to his sleep and whether he made up for the sleep he had lost. Dement found that for the 3 nights following his deprivation, Gardner slept an extra 6.5 hours; on the 4th night, he slept an extra 2.5 hours (Gulevich, Dement & Johnson 1966; Johnson, Slye & Dement, 1965). Therefore, Randy did not make up all the sleep that he lost in his 11 days of sleep deprivation.

15. Randy Gardner's experience was unusual in terms of the length of his sleep deprivation, but going without sleep is a part of many people's lives. According to the United States National Sleep Foundation (Harvey, 2000), 67% of adults in the U.S. get less than the recommended amount of sleep; 43% say that sleepiness interferes with activities in their lives, including work performance. People miss sleep in order to work, but they also neglect sleep in order to have fun, such as partying and watching TV. What are the effects of sleep deprivation? How much harm does going without sleep cause, especially at typical levels such as a few hours per night? If Randy Gardner's experience is typical, missing a few hours' sleep does not cause many problems, but many hours of deprivation produce major problems in functioning.

16. Some of the results from research on sleep deprivation are not at all surprising, but other results point to how drastically even minor sleep deprivation of only a few hours can affect performance. The obvious result is that the longer people go without sleep, the sleepier they get and the worse their performance becomes (Devoto et al., 1999). One night of total sleep deprivation affects motor performance and memory (Forest & Godbout, 2000). But even a few hours of missed sleep can affect performance. A study that made this point in a dramatic way compared driving performance for people who were deprived of various amounts of sleep compared to those who had drunk various amounts of alcohol (Arnedt et al., 2001). The results showed that even low levels of alcohol impair driving ability, and sleep deprivation is comparable to drinking in its effects on driving. Indeed, driving skills worsen after staying awake only 3 hours longer than usual.

17. Drivers are not the only people who may become deprived of sleep and engage in activities that can be dangerous. Airline and ship pilots, health-care workers, police, and those who monitor nuclear facilities can endanger the lives of others by their sleepiness. But millions of people endanger their own and others' lives by driving while drowsy (Harvey, 2000). Pioneering sleep researcher William Dement (1999) argues that the modern world experiences massive sleep deprivation and that we suffer because of our sleepiness. He describes this problem as *sleep debt*, where the body is 'owed' sleep time after a period of sleep deprivation. If the debt is not paid, people pay the price in terms of sleepiness, trouble with concentration and attentiveness, poor mood, and lack of judgment which may put themselves and others in danger.

18. As for complete sleep deprivation, when people do not sleep at all, little is known about this topic, for obvious reasons of ethics. Researchers cannot completely deprive people of sleep to see what happens, but it is known what happens to rats and to humans with fatal familial insomnia, an extremely rare disease that leaves them totally unable to sleep: they die. Rats completely deprived of sleep die after two to three weeks of complete sleep derivation (Rechtschaffen, 1998). Some of the symptoms in sleep-deprived rats are similar to those experienced by humans with fatal familial insomnia —they show signs of terrible exhaustion,

they lose the ability to regulate body temperature, and they lose weight. Sleep is obviously vital, but what does it do?

**Why Do We Sleep?**

19. Researchers have established what happens during sleep but not why we sleep. Several theories attempt this task, but none is completely satisfactory (Rechtschaffel, 1998). The most obvious approach is to say that we sleep because we are tired—sleep provides some type of restorative function. If so, researchers have not identified what sleep restores. And fatigue does not relate directly to the need for sleep. Bedridden hospital patients, for example, sleep about the same amount of time as people who are on their feet all day. Heavy exercise seems to increase the need for sleep on any particular day, but these variations are not large (Youngstedt, O'Connor, & Dishman, 1997).

20. The evolutionary approach is not very successful in explaining sleep. The adaptive advantage of spending hours per day unconscious is difficult to explain. The argument that forced unconsciousness keeps creatures out of danger can be countered with the point that being unconscious increases vulnerability. In addition, while we are asleep, we are not able to do other things that would increase our survival advantage, such as gather food, care for children, or have sex (Rechtschaffen, 1998). Therefore, considering the evolutionary cost of sleep raises, rather than answers, questions about why we sleep.

21. Some theories of sleep concentrate on the stages of sleep, especially on REM sleep. One theory within this group holds that REM activity is important to memory formation, but two opposing camps disagree over what involvement REM has in memory. One version proposes that REM sleep is necessary to eliminate unnecessary and mistaken neural connections formed during waking (Crick & Mitchison, 1983), whereas another version hypothesizes that REM activity is memory formation (Stickgold et al., 2000). Yet another theory holds that REM plays an essential role in neural maturation, pointing to the finding that infants and babies spend more time in REM sleep than adults and older people do (Dement, 1999). This theory of sleep shows promise but leaves a great deal about sleep and its other stages unexplained. No single theory has yet explained why we sleep, and perhaps none ever will. Perhaps one theory alone would be inadequate for this task anyway. Sleep serves multiple functions, and thus, several theories may be necessary to explain those various functions (Rechtschaffen, 1998).

**Is There a Sleep Switch?**

22. What makes people go to sleep, and what wakes them? If they lead busy lives, they probably feel that "exhaustion" is the clear answer to the first part of that question, and "the alarm clock" answers the second. Obviously, these answers do not tell the whole story. If people could sleep whenever they wanted and as much as they needed, they would still go to sleep and wake up. Indeed, the research on circadian rhythms shows that people maintain a rhythmic cycle of sleeping and waking, even when they are removed from their normal lives and deprived of cues about day and night. Is there a physiological structure that regulates and initiates sleep and wakefulness? Researchers suggest that there may be a certain brain structure that "turns on" sleep and another that "turns on" waking. Like cells in the visual

system, which are activated when exposed to certain stimuli, these specialized brain cells may be selectively active.

23. Sherin and colleagues (1996) found that cells in the brains of sleeping rats seemed to turn on or off, depending on the stage of sleep. The specific area of the brain in which these cells are located is the front region of the hypothalamus, called the ventrolateral preoptic area, or the VLPO. In rats that were deprived of sleep for 9 to 12 hours, the researchers found that a key protein was present throughout most of the brain but not in the VLPO; in contrast, in rats that were not sleep-deprived, the protein was found in the VLPO but not in the rest of the brain. Further research has confirmed the importance of the VLPO in promoting sleep and has added information about how this area might work (Gallopin et al., 2000). The neurons in the VLPO produce GABA, an inhibitory neurotransmitter. In addition, cells in the VLPO have connections to other locations in the brain and may be related to not only the control of sleep but also wakefulness.

24. Researchers have known for years that a collection of neurons in the *suprachiasmic nucleus* (SCN) (an area just above where the optic nerves meet and cross) is essential to the regulation of circadian rhythms. Dement (1999) argues that the biological clock actually promotes waking, which he calls clock-dependent alerting. The function of this internal clock helps us wake at two times during the 24-hour day; once in the early morning and again in the evening. Its effect is weak during the afternoon. Dement says that these effects explain why we are drowsy in the afternoon, feeling as if we just cannot stay awake until bedtime, but start to feel more alert as the evening progresses. The longer we stay awake, the sleepier we get, so the effects of alerting are overtaken by sleepiness, so we sleep. Connections between the VLPO and the SCN are likely to be part of this regulation, but research must establish this connection and identify the neurotransmitters that allow it to occur.

25. When the biological clock or other sleep-related functions break down, sleep disorders can be the result; some are not dangerous, but others are life threatening. People who fall asleep suddenly and unexpectedly have a disorder known as *narcolepsy*. In addition to daytime sleepiness, people with narcolepsy experience muscle weakness as they fall uncontrollably into sleep, and their sleep stages do not follow the normal cycle (Dement, 1999). Another sleep disorder, *sleep apnea*, is even more serious. This sleep disorder causes airflow to stop for at least 15 seconds; the sleeper stops breathing and chokes, and then wakens briefly. People with this disorder often have as many as 100 apnea episodes in a night. Rather than waking, they may choke and die, making this disorder life threatening. Because their sleep is interrupted so often, people with apnea are exceedingly sleepy. They may have memory losses, severe headaches, and work-related accidents. *Insomnia*, problems in going to sleep or maintaining sleep, is a very common sleep disorder. As many as 1 in 10 people reports insomnia at some time in their lives, often caused by anxiety or depression (Dement, 1999).

26. Despite the universal human need for sleep, it is only in the last fifty years that researchers have made significant steps in understanding its physiological characteristics. With modern research tools and equipment, it has been possible to examine brain activity during the different stages of sleep and record the effects of sleep deprivation. However, still little is known about the psychological purpose of sleep or the physical processes that control circadian rhythms. What is clear is that although sleep deprivation and sleep disorders are more widespread than is often thought, their significance is often overlooked, with serious implications for health and well-being.

Part 2 Detailed Reading (25%) Duration: 65 minutes

- **This part of the exam aims to test:**
  - **your ability to identify the main ideas and important details of two texts with a similar theme,**
  - **your understanding of the relationship between the two texts.**
- **There are three tasks:**

  **Task 1 – Answer questions 1–5 about Text A (1 point each unless stated).**
  **Task 2 – Answer questions 1–5 about Text B (1 point each).**
  **Task 3 – Complete a short paragraph based on some of the important information from Text A and Text B (0.5 point each).**
- **For tasks 1 and 2, the questions are in the same order as the answers appear in the text. For task 3, answers may be from any part of the texts.**
- **You will lose points if you include irrelevant information in your answer.**

**Task 1** (5 points)

1. Write <u>one</u> reason why the United States had been opposed to an imperialist strategy.

   _____

2. How did the United States encourage the British to remove its military presence from the Caribbean?

   _____

   _____

3. What was the aim of the United States in adopting the Roosevelt Corollory?

   _____

   _____

4. What was the negative consequence for America of its military domination of the Caribbean?

   _____

   _____

5. Why did the U.S. work with undemocratic governments in Latin American countries?

   _____

   _____

_____ /5

(15)

**Task 2** (5 points)

1. Why were the United States able to invade the Philippines easily?

2. Why did European countries not object to the start of trade between China and the United States?

3. Why was Japan able to copy the economic and social practices of western countries?

4. Write <u>one</u> strategic advantage that allowed Japan to extend its influence into Asia.

5. What was the effect of the Russia-Japan war on perceptions of Japan round the world?

____ /5

Task 3 (3 points)

- **Use information from one, or both, of the texts to complete the paragraph which compares the reasons for imperialism in the Americas and east Asia.**
- **For some answers, you may need to write short phrases. For others, you will need to write only one word.**
- **You can use your own words or words from the texts.**
- **The answers may be from any part of the texts (0.5 points each answer)**
- **The first question (0) is given as an example.**

## Imperialism in the Americas and East Asia

There were various reasons for the imperial ambitions of emerging non-European powers such as the United States and Japan. Like the Europeans, they were sometimes motivated by the need for (0) ___*raw materials*___ to supply their domestic industries. However, they were also motivated by their own particular national interests. In terms of economic interests, America pursued an aggressive policy to increase (1) _____ with China, Canada, and the countries of Latin America. Japan, on the other hand, in addition to its industrial needs, had to guarantee its (2) _____, which it needed to bring in from abroad. In terms of strategic interests, America acquired territories in order to set up (3) _____, which would allow it to dominate the Caribbean and extend its influence to Asia. It also had one very specific objective, which was its plan to finish work on (4) _____ and gain greater control of vital shipping routes. Japan's success in Asia provided an example to neighbouring China. Both China and Japan had been forced to agree to (5) _____ which had been imposed on them by other nations, and they both underwent a programme of western-style modernization in order to be able to (6) _____ from their countries.

____ / 3

**TOTAL** ____ / 13

(13)

Text A

# The Rise of the United States

In the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, after more than four hundred years of expanding across the globe, European nations for the first time faced competition from nations outside Europe. One was another western nation, the United States of America, and the other was the partly westernized nation of Japan. Although it was not evident at the time, European preeminence around the globe was about to decline, both inside western civilization and around the world.

## The United States becomes an imperial power

By the end of the nineteenth century the United States had arrived on the threshold of great power status. Its population, the world's fourth largest, was the most literate and longest-lived in the world. The standard of living of Americans equaled or exceeded that of the citizens of the major powers of Western Europe. It provided the basis for a stable republic characterized by--for white males—representative government and constitution that protected individual rights and liberties. The United States was virtually self-sufficient in food and in industrial raw materials, and it led the world in agricultural exports, iron ore and coal output, in iron and steel production, and in railroad mileage. Its manufacturing output had increased so markedly that it was rapidly catching up to the leading European imperial powers in the value of manufactured product sold abroad.

The United States obviously possessed the economic basis for becoming a major imperial power, but it did not summon the will to expand overseas until the end of the nineteenth century. However, it had already compiled a record of imperialism in North America, expanding with a sense of "Manifest Destiny" at the expense of the British, Spanish, Mexicans, and the Amerindians. Despite these actions U.S. national policy was shaped by a long tradition of noninvolvement in other countries' affairs, and there was widespread sympathy for self-determination for colonial peoples. Because the country seemed secure beyond the protective barriers of two oceans, the United States maintained only a small standing army. Its navy as late as 1880 was ranked far behind other nations in the western world. At the end of the century, however, expansionists armed with the standard economic, strategic, cultural, and nationalistic arguments for imperialism had won the day.

Although the United States was influenced by the imperialist era, it avoided the European inclination to acquire a list of colonial possessions. It had no surplus population to dispose of and no need to dominate large territories in order to secure access to raw materials. Instead, the United States acquired control of small land areas, often islands, that provided bases to enhance its security and to protect trade routes to foreign markets. It also launched a ship-building program to protect its growing overseas interests that by 1914 had given it the third largest navy in the world; only the British and German fleets were larger.

## The Caribbean Becomes a U.S. Lake

As an imperialist power, the United States was primarily interested in dominating the Western Hemisphere. In doing so the U.S. brought forth a new expression of overseas imperialism, because the target was not nonwestern areas but weaker western states. In particular, the United States intended to pursue three goals: to prevent European states from mounting a threat from the Caribbean, to obtain a canal across Central America, and to dominate trade with Latin America and Canada. No Latin American state was strong enough to successfully

oppose the United States, and most European states were too immersed in Asian, African, and European affairs to exert sufficient power across the Atlantic.

In five years, 1898-1903, led by presidents William McKinley and Theodore Roosevelt, the United States attained its objective of controlling the Caribbean. In a "splendid little war" brought on by tensions over Cuba, the United States totally defeated Spain and forced it to surrender Cuba and Puerto Rico, Spain's last two possessions in the New World. The United States kept Puerto Rico as a possession and built naval bases there. It allowed Cuba to gain nominal dependence but made that nation an economic and political protectorate. The United States leased strategic Guantanamo Bay in perpetuity and built a naval base there. With its new bases, the United States was now in a dominating naval position in the Caribbean, and this act was ratified by the 1901 Hay-Pauncefote Agreement. Great Britain, distracted by the Boer War, agreed to withdraw its naval forces from the region, in return for a U.S. pledge that the British would have unrestricted rights to use a future canal across Central America.

In 1903 the United States set about accomplishing its second goal. It supported a separatist movement in the Colombian province of Panama, and the new nation became a U.S. protectorate. Panama promptly granted the United States the right to complete a canal project abandoned by a French company and the right to control in perpetuity a thirteen-mile territorial strip, the Canal Zone. The new Panama Canal, opened to international traffic in 1914, was an impressive project cut through mountainous terrain. Meanwhile, U.S. medical authorities eliminated the threat of yellow fever throughout much of the Caribbean, a major public health breakthrough. For the United States, the Caribbean was becoming *mare nostrum*, "our sea".

The United States was not completely secure in the Caribbean, however. When a combined European fleet led by Germany bombarded Venezuela in 1902 for violating its treaty and loan obligations, the United States jumped into action. Fearing that European nations would establish themselves in Latin America after intervention and become a threat to U.S. interests, Washington announced an expansion of the scope of its 1823 Monroe Doctrine, which justified its intervention in foreign countries' affairs. The Roosevelt Corollary (as this expansion became known) to the doctrine concerned Latin American nations that exhibited what Washington termed "chronic wrongdoing" toward European governments and their citizens, such as nonpayment of debts and inability to suppress outlaws. In such instances the United States would exercise a regional police power and intervene in that nation, reordering its finances and restoring order. European nations would thus have no legitimate reason to intervene in the Caribbean. The Roosevelt Corollary was successful; European nations sent no more expeditions to the Caribbean, and the United States was left in military control of the area.

In the long run the Roosevelt Corollary brought problems as well as opportunities. Up to 1934, the United States sent armed forces one or more times to six nations in the Caribbean, occupying three of them for more than a decade. This constant military presence created increasing hostility among many Latin Americans of the policies of "Yankee imperialism" conducted by the "Colossus of the North", as the U.S. was perceived.

The United States restricted its military intervention to the Caribbean, but its economic penetration expanded throughout Latin America. European nations, particularly Great Britain, were initially well ahead of the United States in investment, but aggressive diplomacy steadily increased the U.S. share. U.S. businessmen made extensive capital investments in Latin

American petroleum, copper, coffee, fruit, rubber, tin, sugar, and other products. By 1913 the United States had taken the lead in exports to Latin America.

With many valuable investments and markets in Latin America, U.S. citizens were interested in Latin American governments that could both guarantee law and order and offer economic incentives, and were not choosy about the form of government that provided them. This meant that the United States and U.S. business firms often worked with dictators such as Porfirio Diaz in Mexico, and as a consequence became a partner to the exploitation of the Latin American masses. Later, many Latin American reformers and revolutionaries would look upon the United States and its citizens as their enemies.

**The United States and Canada**

Americans were also interested in expansion north of the border. Ever since the War for Independence many Americans had wished to bring Canada into the Union. The British government, learning from experience, responded, between 1867 and 1871, by uniting several colonies and the possessions of the Hudson's Bay Company into a federation called the Dominion of Canada, giving the new dominion control over its internal affairs. Early in the twentieth century, Canada also gained control over its external affairs. This was the first instance of devolution, the process in which an imperial power peacefully surrendered its hold over a former colony. In the meantime, Americans shifted their interests in Canada to economic penetration. By 1914 almost one quarter of U.S. foreign investments were in Canada, although the British still dominated trade there by a wide margin.

Text B

## U.S. and Japanese Imperialism in Asia

The United States had been interested in the China trade from early in its history, and had built the fastest sailing ships in the nineteenth century, called the China Clippers, to make the long voyage as efficient as possible. By 1900 through a variety of circumstances the United States had assumed a major presence in the Pacific, with possessions extending from Alaska to Samoa. Its main accomplishment, however, was to accumulate a string of islands linking the west coast of the United States through the Hawaiian Islands (annexed in 1898) to the Philippines on the threshold of China. Like the Cubans, the Filipinos' strength to resist had been reduced while fighting a guerrilla war for independence from Spain at the time the United States conquered the Philippines during the Spanish-American War. The United States, for a mixture of strategic, economic, and racist reasons, refused to allow the Filipinos independence and held the Philippines as a possession, President McKinley informing the public that God supported the move. The Filipinos in 1899 revolted and began a prolonged guerrilla war that dwarfed the war with Spain in terms of forces, expense, and casualties before the insurgents were finally defeated. During the struggle, Americans resorted to the same anti-guerrilla tactics of internment camps and slaughter of civilians that they had condemned elsewhere. Meanwhile, the United States created naval bases at Pearl Harbor in Hawaii and at Subic Bay in the Philippines.

With a base established in the heart of east Asia, the United States pursued its goals of obtaining a share of Chinese raw materials and marketing its manufactured products in China. Although the United States had major ambitions in east Asia, its strategic and military position was the weakest of the imperial powers. It was easy for the United States to play an imperialist role in the Caribbean region, which was nearby and contained no formidable

rivals. In comparison, the United States found it difficult to apply significant power six thousand miles away in east Asia in the face of established imperial powers. Considering these circumstances, the United States was fortunate, through its traditional diplomatic policy of taking advantage of European quarrels, to attain part of its goals. In 1899 and 1900, Secretary of State John Hay announced that the European monopoly powers had agreed to an "Open Door" policy, allowing all nations to trade freely in China. Actually, the European powers had not uniformly consented to Hay's proposition, but fear of adding the United States to their long list of imperialist enemies kept European powers from rejecting the principle.

As the "Open Door" gained acceptance, U.S. businessmen, engineers, and missionaries became increasingly active in China, and U.S. gunboats cruised the major rivers of China to protect them. Unequal treaties imposed on China allowed Americans to enjoy the same extraterritorial immunity from Chinese justice as did the Europeans. In contradiction to its Open Door policy, the United States tried to establish monopoly zones in Korea, Manchuria, and Fukien, but was discouraged in all three by Japan, the other rising imperial power.

**The Rise of Japan**

The emergence of Japan as a world power was more disturbing to the European sense of economic, military, and cultural superiority than the rise of the United States. In one generation, Japan performed one of the most remarkable feats in modern history. By adopting western technology and some aspects of western social organization, Japan transformed itself from an isolated and technologically backward state into one of the world's major imperialist powers, expanding in east Asia at the expense of both the European powers and the United States.

Confronted in the 1850s by U.S. naval power and forced to sign unequal treaties, the Japanese leaders quickly saw that they would follow the rest of Asia unless they built up an industrialized base and modern military power. Unlike the Chinese, who had scorned outside ideas and systems, Japanese cultural dynamics permitted borrowing and adapting from other societies. Previously Japan had incorporated many aspects of Chinese culture; it now took the best from the west. Missions went to Europe and the United States to study western industrial technology, military weaponry, education, bureaucracy, and government. By the end of the nineteenth century Japan had built a powerful industry, a modern transportation network, and a large merchant navy. The Japanese eliminated illiteracy and provided a broad technological and vocational education to support their industrialization. Japan also constructed a large fleet of modern warships and organized a large, well-equipped and efficient army. No longer having to fear for its safety, Japan forced outside powers to give up the unequal treaties.

Despite its impressive accomplishments, Japan suffered from many severe problems. The Japanese people were subjected to a grinding discipline of long hours, low pay, heavy taxes, and a standard of living well below the more affluent nations of the west. The structure of the Japanese government was an unstable mixture, with western-style political parties and a parliament coexisting uncomfortably with the role of the emperor and the power and respect accorded to military men.

In common with the western imperial powers, Japan's growing industrial output pressured the Japanese government to seek overseas markets for its manufactured goods. It was the peculiar two-fold economic vulnerability of Japan, however, that drew the nation into the imperial struggle. Like Great Britain, Japan had become dependent on importing foodstuffs from abroad and therefore vulnerable to rival states cutting off their food. In addition the increased

demands of Japanese factories for coal and iron ore forced a vulnerable Japan to look abroad for these supplies as well. The Japanese government therefore determined that for its national survival it was necessary to go outside of Japan and take control of the vital sources of food and industrial raw materials.

By the turn of the century, Japan's economic problems were severe enough to drive the Japanese government to plan to take over northern China, which held all the food, raw materials, and markets the Japanese needed. In command of formidable military forces operating close to home, facing an impotent China and western powers operating far from their homeland, the Japanese were in a good position to expand.

The Japanese warmed up for their confrontation with the western powers by attacking their Asian neighbours. They defeated China in 1895 and annexed the strategic island of Formosa (Taiwan). At the same time, the Japanese began to enter Korea, both to control its supply of iron ore and coal and to counter Russian penetration. In 1900 Japan joined an international expedition sent to Peking to put down the Boxer Rebellion, which was a protest against foreign influence in areas such as trade, politics, religion and technology

Japan's ambitions in East Asia brought it into immediate conflict with Russia. In addition to their presence in Korea, the Russians held control of the iron ore and coal of Manchuria and had constructed two naval bases threatening Japan. The Japanese government had less to fear from the Russians after 1902 when Japan signed a military alliance with Britain. The Japanese received reasonable assurance that if they went to war against Russia, the British navy would inhibit other powers from intervening. In 1904 Japan launched a surprise attack. They seized the Russian naval base at Port Arthur and drove the Russian army out of Korea and southern Manchuria. Meanwhile, when the Russian Baltic fleet arrived in Japanese waters, the Japanese navy sent it to the bottom of the sea. This battle, the Battle of Tsushima Straits, astonished western observers, but more important, Japan's defeat of a major western power alarmed the nonwest and gained the Japanese great respect. With Russia defeated and Japan exhausted, both sides agreed to end the war in 1905. Japan gained full control of Korea and southern Manchuria. Now admired and feared in Asia and respected in the west, the Japanese intended to expand further.

Meanwhile, many educated Chinese were coming to the same conclusion the Japanese had come to a generation earlier: China would have to develop western technology, bureaucracy, government, and military techniques if the "foreign devils" were ever to be driven out. More and more individuals from the Chinese elite went to the west and to Japan to study, and some of them began to work toward bringing down the Manchu dynasty, now widely regarded as incapable of organizing the Chinese people to expel the foreigners.

In 1911, the Manchu dynasty collapsed and a republic was proclaimed under the leadership of U.S.-educated Sun Yat-sen and his Nationalist party. Sun's program called for the development of modern nationalist consciousness among the Chinese, a representative government to mobilize the national will, a socialist program to immediately modernize Chinese industry, and land reform to boost agricultural output. Most of the traditional family, social, and cultural values of China were to remain intact. In effect Sun, like many Asians and Africans who followed him, hoped to emulate the Japanese: westernize enough to drive out the west.

Writing Section (30%)

- You are going to an essay of between 300-350 words in response to the following question.

> What are two main effects of rapid population growth on a nation's development?

- Before writing your essay, you have **15 minutes** to write a plan on the opposite page.
- The box below lists some main effects that rapid population growth may have on a nation's development. It is provided to help you generate and develop ideas for your essay. You may use some of the ideas in the box in your essay, but this is **optional**. Your essay will be graded according to:

  - how clearly you explain your ideas,
  - how fully you develop your ideas,
  - your use of language.

- Your notes will **not** be graded.
- You can refer to Turkey or any other country in your answer.

**Effects of rapid population growth on a nation's development**

- economy - unemployment, need for new jobs, living standards, economic growth
- education - cost of education, number of schools, quality of education
- environment - housing, deforestation, soil erosion, waste production etc.
- health-care resources