

Reading Passage 1

You are advised to spend about 20 minutes on Questions 1 – 15 which are based on Reading Passage 1, “The Nature of Disputes.”

Questions 1 – 5

Reading Passage 1, “The Nature of Disputes” has 6 sections.

Choose the most suitable heading for each section from the list of headings (i–xii) below. Write the appropriate numbers (i–xii) in boxes 1 – 5 on your answer sheet.

N. B. There are more headings than sections so you will not use all of them.

List of Headings

- i The cost of adjudication
- ii Handling rightsbased disputes
- iii Punishing acts of aggression
- iv The role of dependence in disputes
- v The role of arbitrators
- vi Methods of settling conflicting interests
- vii Ensuring choice for consumers
- viii Fulfilling employee’s needs
- ix The use of negotiation for different dispute types
- x Advantages of negotiation over mediation
- xi The role of power in settling disagreements
- xii Disagreement of interests

1. Section A

2. Section B

Answer

Example Section C

ix

3. Section D

4. Section E

5. Section F

The Nature of Disputes

To resolve a dispute means to turn opposing positions into a single outcome. The two parties may choose to focus their attention on one or more of three basic factors. They may seek to (1) reconcile their interests, (2) determine who is right, and/or (3) determine who is more powerful.

Interests are needs, desires, concerns, fears – the things one cares about or wants. They provide the foundation for a person's or an organization's position in a dispute. In a dispute, not only do the interests of one party not coincide with those of the other party, but they are in conflict. For example, the director of sales for an electronics company gets into a dispute with the director of manufacturing over the number of TV models to produce. The director of sales wants to produce more models because her interest is in selling TV sets; more models mean more choice for consumers and hence increased sales. The director of manufacturing, however, wants to produce fewer models. His interest is in decreasing manufacturing costs and more models mean higher costs.

Section B

Reconciling such interests is not easy. It involves probing for deeply rooted concerns, devising creative solutions, and making tradeoffs and compromises where interests are opposed. The most common procedure for doing this is negotiation, the act of communication intended to reach agreement. Another interests-based procedure is mediation, in which a third party assists the disputants, the two sides in the dispute, in reaching agreement.

Section C

By no means do all negotiations (or mediations) focus on reconciling interests. Some negotiations focus on determining who is right, such as when two lawyers argue about whose case has the greater merit. Other negotiations focus on determining who is more powerful, such as when quarrelling neighbours or nations exchange threats and counter threats. Often negotiations involve a mix of all three: attempts to satisfy interests, some discussion of rights, and some references to relative power.

Section D

It is often complicated to attempt to determine who is right in a dispute. Although it is usually straightforward where rights are formalised in law, other rights take the form of unwritten but socially accepted standards of behaviour, such as reciprocity, precedent, equality, and seniority.

There are often different—and sometimes contradictory standards that apply to rights. Reaching agreement on rights, where the outcome will determine who gets what, can often be so difficult that the parties frequently turn to a third party to determine who is right. The most typical rights procedure is adjudication, in which disputants

present evidence and arguments to a neutral third party who has the power to make a decision that must be followed by both disputants. (In mediation, by contrast, the third party does not have the power to decide the dispute.) Public adjudication is provided by courts and administrative agencies. Private adjudication is provided by arbitrators.

Section E

A third way to resolve a dispute is on the basis of power. We define power, somewhat narrowly, as the ability to pressure someone to do something he would not otherwise do. Exercising power typically means imposing costs on the other side or threatening to do so. The exercise of power takes two common forms: acts of aggression, such as physical attack, and withholding the benefits that derive from a relationship, as when employees stop working in a strike.

Section F

In relationships of mutual dependence, such as between labour and management or within an organisation or a family, the question of who is more powerful turns on who is less dependent on the other. If a company needs the employees' work more than employees need the company's pay, the company is more dependent and hence less powerful. How dependent one is turns on how satisfactory the alternatives are for satisfying one's interests. The better the alternative, the less dependent one is. If it is easier for the company to replace striking employees than it is for striking employees to find new jobs, the company is less dependent and thereby more powerful. Determining who is the more powerful party without a decisive and potentially destructive power contest is difficult because power is ultimately a matter of perceptions.

Glossary

Disputant: one of the parties in a dispute

Questions 6 – 11

Below are summaries of specific disputes. Classify their resolutions as based on:

A reconciliation of interests

B determination of rights

C determination of who is more powerful

Write the appropriate letters (A, B or C) in boxes 6 – 11 on your answer sheet.

Example

A group of employees threaten to go on strike unless their manager gives them a

pay rise. The manager eventually agrees on the rise

Answer C

6. A mother disapproves of her son's fiancée and threatens to disown her son if he marries her. The marriage goes ahead, but after some years the mother accepts it because she wants to reestablish a good relationship with her son.
7. A large company decides to buy a new computer system. The accounting department wants System X. The marketing department insists on System Y. A settlement is reached after a series of meetings between the disputants.
8. Island C is claimed by both Country A and Country B. The decision to determine whose land it is given to the United Nations, which concludes that Country A may have Island C because of stronger social and historical ties.
9. A married couple can afford only one car. The wife wants a simple transportation vehicle. The husband wants a sports car to impress his friends. A mutual friend helps them reach agreement.
10. A divorcing couple disagreeing about who will get custody of their children go to a court of law. The court determines the mother should have custody.
11. An employer refuses to pay an employee because of poor job performance. The employee promises to improve his work.

Questions 12 – 15

Complete the sentences below with words taken from Reading Passage

Use **NO MORE THAN THREE WORDS** for each answer.

Write your answers in boxes 12 – 15 on your answer sheet.

12. Two common procedures used in the resolution of interest-based disputes are . . . AND . . .
13. When rights are . . . , coming to a resolution is a relatively simple process.
14. Determining who is right becomes more complicated when behavioural issues such as . . . and . . . must be taken into consideration.
15. Arbitrators and adjudicators must receive . . . and . . . from the disputing parties before they can help resolve the dispute.

Reading Passage 2

You are advised to spend about 20 minutes on Questions 16 – 27 which are based on Reading Passage 2 below.

Automobiles vs. Public Transport

Public transport plays a central role in any efficient urban transport system. In developing countries, where at least 16 cities are expected to have more than 12 million

people each by the end of this decade, failing to give priority to public transport would be disastrous.

The term “public transport” covers many different types of vehicles, but most commonly refers to buses and trains. Rail services fall into four major categories: rapid rail (also called the underground, tube, metro, or subway), which operates on exclusive rights of way in tunnels or on elevated tracks; trams, which move with other traffic on regular streets; light rail, which is a quieter, more modern version of trams that can run either on exclusive rights of way or with other traffic; and suburban or regional trains, which connect a city with surrounding areas.

The recent trend in many cities is toward light rail over “heavy” rapidrail systems. Whereas metros require exclusive rights of way, which often means building costly elevated or underground lines and stations, light rail can be built on regular city streets. The concept of public transport also includes organized car pools, in which several people share the cost of riding together in the same private automobile. For U. S. commuters in areas with inadequate bus and train services, this is the only “public” transport option. But even where other systems are comprehensive, there is vast potential for car pooling; recent research shows that in cities the world over, private cars during commuting hours on average carry just 1.2 – 1.3 persons per vehicle. Public transport modes vary in fuel use and emissions and in the space they require, but if carrying reasonable numbers of passengers, they all perform better than singleoccupant private cars on each of these counts.

Although energy requirements vary according to the size and design of the vehicle and how many people are on board, buses and trains require far less fuel per passenger for each kilometre of travel. In the United States, for example, a light rail vehicle needs an estimated 640 BTUs of energy per passenger per kilometre; a city bus would use some 690 BTUs per passengerkilometre and a car pool with four occupants 1,140 BTUs. A singleoccupant automobile, by contrast, burns nearly 4,580 BTUs per passengerkilometre.

The pollution savings from public transport are even more dramatic. Since both rapid and light rail have electric engines, pollution is measured not from the motor exhaust, but from the power plant generating electricity, which is usually located outside the city, where air quality problems are less serious. For typical U. S. commuter routes, rapid rail emits 30 grams of nitrogen oxides for every 100 kilometres each rail passenger travels, compared with 43 grams for light rail, 95 grams for transit buses, and 128 grams for singleoccupant automobiles. Public transport’s potential for reducing hydrocarbon and carbon monoxide emissions is even greater.

Although diesel buses, especially in developing countries, can be heavy polluters, existing technologies, such as filters, can control their exhaust. Buses can also run on less polluting fuels such as propane (used in parts of Europe) and natural gas (used in Brazil and China). Test buses in the Netherlands that run on natural gas are estimated to emit 90 percent less nitrogen oxide and 25 percent less carbon monoxide than diesel engines do.

In addition to reducing fuel consumption and pollution, public transport saves valuable city space. Buses and trains carry more people in each vehicle and, if they operate on their own rights of way, can safely run at much higher speeds. In other words, they not only take up less space but also occupy it for a shorter time. Thus, comparing ideal conditions for each mode in one lane of traffic, an underground metro can carry 70,000 passengers past a certain point in one hour, light rail can carry up to 35,000 people, and a bus, just over 30,000. By contrast, a lane of private cars with four occupants each can move only about 8,000 people an hour, and without such carpooling the figure is, of course, far lower.

The availability and use of public transport vary widely in cities around the globe. Since variations in distances and city densities affect the total kilometres of travel, the annual number of trips each person takes by public transport provides a better standard for comparing its importance in various cities. The range of frequency of public transport use is shown in Table 1.

Urban public transport has long been a government priority in Western Europe. All major cities there have high car ownership, but welldeveloped bus and rail systems are available, and overall public transport typically accounts for between 20 and 30 percent of passengerkilometres. In recent years, several large cities have stepped up their commitment to public transportation, combining further investments with complementary policies to restrict auto use.

Public transport also plays an important role in urban areas of the Third World. In many cities in Asia, Latin America, and Africa, buses make 50 – 80 percent of all motorised trips. Buses are sometimes hopelessly overcrowded; it is not uncommon to see several riders clinging to the outside. Yet most Third World cities have lower public transport use per person than those in Western Europe, reflecting the inability of small bus fleets to keep up with population growth.

Among the world's major cities, those in Australia and the United States make the least use of alternatives to the private car. Indeed, less than 5 percent of U. S. trips are by public transport, but in some cities such as New York City and Chicago, where service is provided extensively, it is used heavily. Indeed, nearly one quarter of the entire country's public transport trips are in New York City.

* BTUs: British Thermal Units (a measure of energy consumed)

Table 1. Dependence on public transport in selected cities, 1989

City	Population	Mode	Trips *
Tokyo	11.6 m	bus, tram, metro, rail	650
Buenos Aires	9.0 m	bus, metro	248
Beijing	8.7 m	bus, metro	107
Seoul	8.7 m	bus, metro	457
Moscow	8.0 m	bus, tram, metro	713
Chicago	6.8 m	bus, metro, rail	101

Berlin	3.1 m	bus, tram, metro, rail	356
Toronto	2.8 m	bus, tram, metro	200
Melbourne	2.7 m	bus, tram, rail	95
Abidjan	1.8 m	bus, boat	132
Dallas	1.4 m	bus	22

* trips per person per year

Questions 16 – 20

Below is a summary of some of the main points of 'Automobiles vs Public Transport'. Read the summary and select a word or phrase from the box below to fill each gap according to the information in the Reading Passage.

Write the corresponding letter (A, B, . . . N) in boxes 16 – 20 on your answer sheet. N. B. There are more words and phrases than you will need to fill the gaps. You may use a word or phrase more than once if you wish.

Key Points : Automobiles vs. Public Transport

The obvious advantages of public transport include lowering. . . (16) . . . and reducing exhaust emissions. Another important benefit is the amount of space that is taken up. This is measured by determining the number of . . . (17) . . . that pass a particular point under ideal conditions. As would be expected, public transport vehicles perform very well under these criteria. However, the success of public transport depends more importantly on its. . . (18) . . . A 1989 survey revealed that. . . (19) . . . was the city in which the greatest number of trips per person were made on an annual basis. Interestingly, there is no clear correlation between acceptance of public transport and the degree of. . . (20) . . . of a country or city.

- | | |
|------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| A. passengers | H. singleoccupant automobiles |
| B. Moscow | I. energy policies |
| C. fuel efficiency | J. economic development |
| D. availability of transport | K. fuel consumption |
| E. vehicles per hour | L. decentralisation |
| F. Tokyo | M. frequency of use |
| G. passengers per hour | N. Third World cities |

Questions 21 – 25

Answer the following questions using **NO MORE THAN THREE WORDS** and according to the information in Reading Passage 2. Write your answers in boxes 21 – 25 on your answer sheet.

21. What is one factor that makes light rail preferable to rapid rail?
22. What is one way in which rapid rail outperforms light rail?
23. Where is pollution from rail transport measured?

24. What is the average number of people you would expect to find in automobiles during commuting hours?

25. What proportion of passenger kilometres is undertaken by private automobile in Western Europe?

Questions 26 – 27

The table below ranks different forms of transport according to their fuel efficiency and the amount of pollution they produce. One ranking has been given in each case. Complete the sequence of numbers (1, 2, 3, 4) for each column and write the two sequences of numbers (from top to bottom) in boxes 26 and 27 on your answer sheet.

Transport type	Fuel Efficiency Ranking (26)	nitrogen oxides emissions (27)
citybuses		-
light rail		-
single occupant car	4	-
rapid rail	n/aa	1
carpooling		n/aa

1 Ranked from 1 (= highest fuel efficiency) down to 4

2 Ranked from 1 (= lowest nitrogen oxides) down to 4

n/aa Information not available from the passage.

Reading Passage 3

You are advised to spend about 20 minutes on Questions 28 – 39 which are based on Reading Passage 3 below.

Pupil Size And Communication

It has already been well established that changes in pupil size are clearly associated with changes in attitude. In a typical example, when viewing photographs of food, hungry subjects experience a much greater increase in pupil diameter than do sated subjects (see figure 1). However it now appears that enlarged or constricted pupils can also affect the response of the person who observed them.

Studies of the pupil as an indicator of attitude point to the possibility that one person uses another person's pupil size as a source of information about that person's feelings or attitudes. In one experiment two photographs of an attractive young woman were shown to a group of men. The photographs were identical except that in one the

woman's pupils had been retouched to make them larger and in the other they had been retouched to make them smaller. None of the men reported noticing the difference in pupil size, but when they were asked to describe the woman, they said that the woman in the picture with the large pupils was "soft", "more feminine" or "pretty". The same woman in the picture with the small pupils was described as being "hard", "selfish" or "cold". There could be little doubt that the large pupils made the woman more attractive to the men.

It seems that what is appealing about large pupils in a woman is that they are an indicator of interest, which can be interpreted as sexual interest. However, when men view a picture of a woman with large pupils, their own pupils dilate. In other words, seeing large pupils gives rise to larger pupils. Interestingly, men and women showed almost no increase in pupil size when viewing photographs of members of the same sex with dilated pupils.

That the dilation response is in fact learned rather than innate is supported by experiments with children. In one experiment, subjects aged 6 to 22 were shown drawings of female faces that had different sized pupils, and asked to choose the one which was "happier". The results showed that, up to the age of 14, a person does not necessarily perceive larger pupils as being happier than smaller pupils (see figure 2). Of particular interest was another finding by McLean: blue-eyed subjects were more likely to judge large pupils as being happy and than brown-eyed subjects. This finding was confirmed when another group of subjects were asked to fill in the pupils on drawings of happy faces and angry ones: the blue-eyed subjects drew larger "happy" pupils and smaller "angry" pupils than the brown-eyed subjects (see figure 3). Blue-eyed people have also been found to have a stronger pupil response than brown-eyed people when they view a picture that causes pupil dilation or constriction. To be more precise, with respect to the total range of response from the smallest pupil size to the largest, the range is greater for blue-eyed people than it is for brown-eyed people.

FIGURE 1

DIFFERENCES IN PUPIL RESPONSE of hungry subjects and of sated subjects to colour slides of various foods are shown. The subjects first viewed a slide of a food and the change in pupil size was measured

KEY

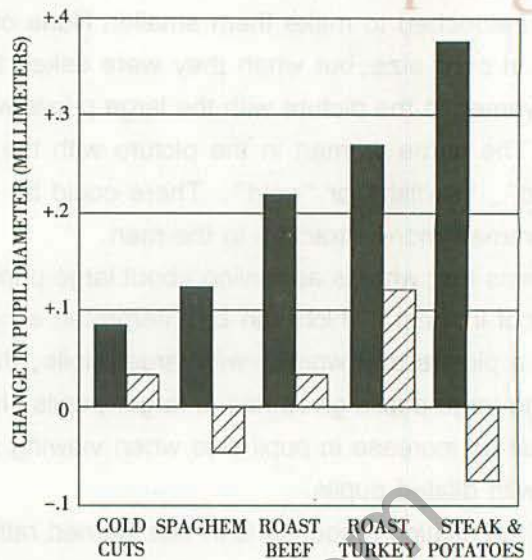


FIGURE 2

Age differences in perceiving a face with large pupils as being happier than a face with small pupils

KEY

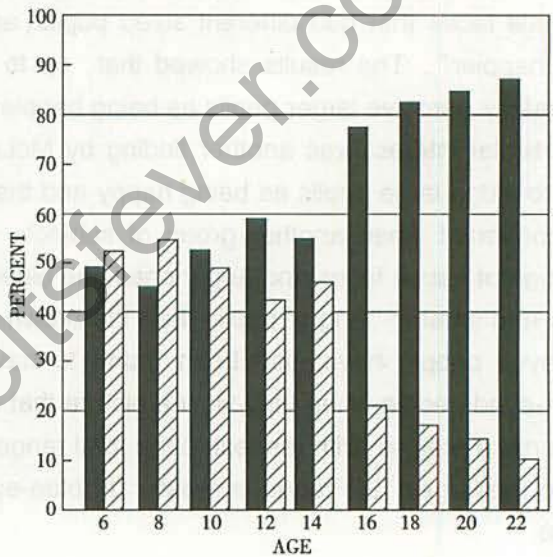
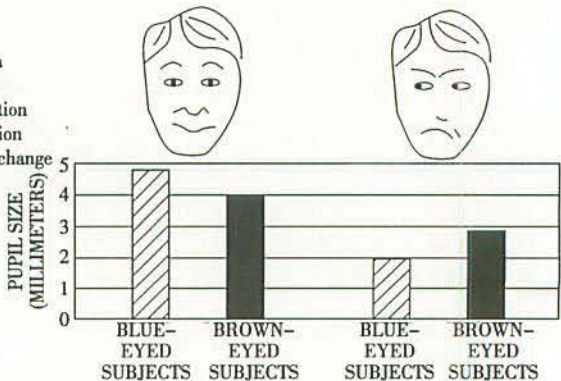
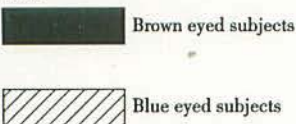


FIGURE 3

BLUE-EYED SUBJECTS drew larger pupils on a sketch of a happy face and smaller pupils on a scowling face than brown-eyed subjects. In addition when viewing a picture that normally causes dilation or constriction, blue-eyed people show a greater change in pupil size.

KEY



Based on the information in Reading Passage 3, “Pupil Size and Communication”, indicate the relationship between each of the two measures listed below in terms of:

PC if there is a positive correlation

L/N if there is little or no correlation

NI if there is no information

Write your answers (PC, L/N, NI) in boxes 28 – 34 on your answer sheet.

	Measure 1	Measure 2
Example	Changes in pupil size	Changes in attitude

Answer PC

Measure 1	Measure 2
28. Images of food	Pupil dilation in hungry subjects
29. Pupil dilation in picture of woman	Pupil dilation in male subject
30. Pupil dilation in picture of woman	Pupil dilation in female subject
31. Small pupil size in picture of woman	Negative response in male subject
32. Small pupil size in picture of woman	Negative response in female subject
33. Subjects under 14 years of age	Positive response to large pupils
34. Darkness of eye colour in photograph	Subject's estimate of “happiness”

Questions 35 – 39

Write a word or short phrase of NOT MORE THAN THREE WORDS to answer the following questions, according to the information in Reading Passage 3.

Write your answers in boxes 35 – 39 on your answer sheet.

Example What can change in pupil size indicate?

Answer Changes in attitude

- According to the data, what kind of food do hungry people respond to most readily?
- According to the data, what kinds of food do people who are not hungry find particularly unattractive?
- What interpretation is given for men's attraction to women with large pupils?
- What reason is suggested for children under 14 not reacting to pupil size in other people?
- How did blueeyed subjects compare with browneyed subjects in terms of range of response?