

Cambrian Institute of modern
Languages

IELTS orientation Class



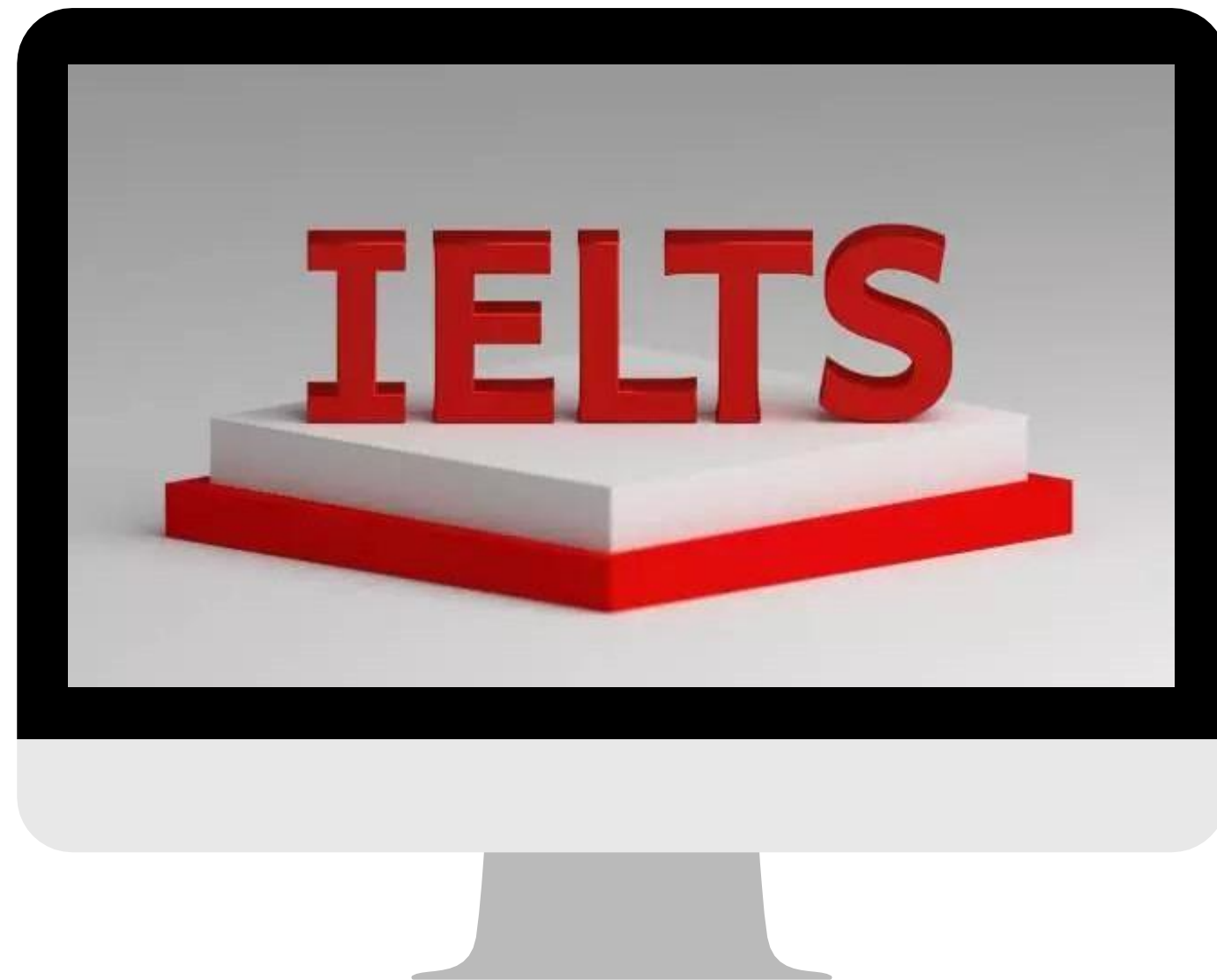


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IELTS

International English Language Testing System

The International English Language Testing System, is an international standardized test of English language proficiency for non-native English language speakers. It is jointly managed by the British Council, IDP.

SLIDE 3



Two types of IELTS

IELTS Academic Test:

Undergraduate, Post graduate and higher degree.

IELTS General Training:

For those wishing to migrate to an English speaking country or study at below degree level.

Academic Test	General Test
<ul style="list-style-type: none">● Educational Advancement● Professional Advancement	<ul style="list-style-type: none">● Secondary Education● Work Experience● Work Training● Migration To English Speaking Countries

4 modules of IELTS

There are 4 modules in an IELTS Exam.

1. Listening
2. Reading
3. Writing
4. Spoken





Receptive Modules

Listening

The candidates will hear recording only once and Ten minutes are allowed at the end to transfer answers.

Reading

The exam duration is one hour and you have to answer 40 questions.





Productive Modules



Writing

The exam duration is 60 minutes and You have to complete two tasks.



Spoken

This is an one to one informal interview which is around 11–14 minutes long.

Listening



Exam Duration: (40 minutes)

- Audio played only once.
- 10 minutes to transfer answer

4 sections

- Section 1: 2 people, Social needs
- Section 2: 1 person, social needs
- Section 3: Up to 4 people, Education/ training
- Section 4: 1 person, Education/ training

Note: BE careful about word limit and The audio will be played only once.



IELTS Reading



Page 2 of 4

Sample Academic Reading A: Questions

The US City and the Natural Environment

A While cities and their metropolitan areas have always interacted with and shaped the natural environment, it is only recently that historians have begun to consider this relationship. During our own time, the tension between natural and urbanized areas has increased, as the spread of metropolitan populations and urban land uses has reshaped and destroyed natural landscapes and environments.

B The relationship between the city and the natural environment has actually been circular, with cities having massive effects on the natural environment, while the natural environment, in turn, has profoundly shaped urban configurations. Urban history is filled with stories about how city dwellers contended with the forces of nature that threatened their lives. Nature not only caused many of the annoyances of daily urban life, such as bad weather and pests, but it also gave rise to natural disasters and catastrophes such as floods, fires, and earthquakes. In order to protect themselves and their settlements against the forces of nature, cities built many defences including flood walls and dams, earthquake-resistant buildings, and storage places for food and water. At times, such protective steps sheltered urbanites against the worst natural furies, but often their own actions – such as building under the shadow of volcanoes, or in earthquake-prone zones – exposed them to danger from natural hazards.

C City populations require food, water, fuel, and construction materials, while urban industries need natural materials for production purposes. In order to fulfill these needs, urbanites increasingly had to reach far beyond their boundaries. In the nineteenth century, for instance, the demands of city dwellers for food produced rings of garden farms around cities. In the twentieth century, as urban populations increased, the demand for food drove the rise of large factory farms. Cities also require fresh water supplies in order to exist – engineers built waterworks, dug wells deeper and deeper into the earth looking for groundwater, and dammed and diverted rivers to obtain water supplies for domestic and industrial uses. In the process of obtaining water from distant locales, cities often transformed them, making deserts where there had been fertile agricultural areas.

D Urbanites had to seek locations to dispose of the wastes they produced. Initially, they placed wastes on sites within the city, polluting the air, land, and water with industrial and domestic effluents. As cities grew larger, they disposed of their wastes by transporting them to more distant locations. Thus, cities constructed sewerage systems for domestic wastes. They usually discharged the sewage into neighbouring waterways, often polluting the water supply of downstream cities.

The air and the land also became dumps for waste disposal. In the late nineteenth century, coal became the preferred fuel for industrial, transportation, and domestic use. But while providing an inexpensive and plentiful energy supply, coal was also very dirty. The cities that used it suffered from air contamination and reduced sunlight, while the cleaning tasks of householders were greatly increased.

IELTS Scores Explained

Ready for IELTS 2nd Edition

READING PASSAGE 2

You should spend about 20 minutes on Questions 14–27 which are based on Reading Passage 2 below.

Ice harvested in Norway

In the days prior to mechanical refrigeration, in many countries with mild climates ice was a prized commodity available only to commercial enterprises and large houses with sufficient facilities for ice production in ponds and for storage. Up to the 1840s, for example, the ice available in London, restricted by the climate, was collected from lakes, and even canals such as the Regent's Canal, which runs through central London. The ice, however, was of questionable quality.

As demand grew, ice was shipped from the United States to supply the needs of merchants. That was the case until a Swiss entrepreneur by the name of Carlo Gatti, working in the London catering trade, brought a shipment of 400 tons of ice to London in 1857 from Norway. Norway then became the dominant provider of ice to London until the end of the century when mechanical refrigeration appeared on the scene. Without fridges, however, Gatti had to ensure the ice would not melt, so he had two ice wells built in Wharf Road near King's Cross.

The ice from Norway started its life in frozen lakes, some of them artificially made for the purpose of harvesting. Ice is produced when water starts freezing at 40 °F, or 5 °C, but in order to be harvested the frozen ice needs to be around a minimum of half a metre thick, both to create large enough blocks for harvesting and to support the weight of workers and horses involved in the process. The ice cutting was typically carried out at night when the ice was thicker.

The optimum harvest time in Norway was between December and February when the ice was sufficiently thick to be cut. Mild winters could result in ice famines, with one such event occurring in Norway in 1898 seriously affecting the UK ice market.

The quality of the ice varied with the hardest and clearest being reserved for table use and the rest for the commercial world. This seasonal work provided useful employment at a quiet time of the year.

Ice harvesting required a range of specialist tools, including chisels, ice saws and grapples, and protective equipment, such as special shoes for both the workers and horses. At the beginning of the ice harvest, the surface of the area on a lake selected for harvesting was cleaned of snow, and the ice thickness

was tested. This cleaned area was marked out by a worker and a horse pulling a cutter, much like a slim plough, with parallel blades that created long grooves in the lake surface. The ice was then cut along these grooves using metal handsaws. The blocks needed to be manageable for workers lifting and dragging them using the grapples.

The size of individual blocks varied according to their final destination with the smallest being about half a metre square. As about a quarter of the ice could be lost from melting during transport and storage, the further away the destination, the larger the individual blocks needed to be.

In Norway, the artificial lakes for ice harvesting were close to the sea for ease of export. Once the ice blocks were floated to the lake shore, they were lifted out of the water using the grapples and slid along the ice to special slides, which formed a wooden railway carrying the ice down to the docks, where they were loaded onto ships bound for London. Once they reached the London docks, the blocks of ice were unloaded onto horse-drawn barges, and taken along the canal to the underground ice wells in Wharf Road at King's Cross. There they could be kept for months until they were needed.

As the demand for ice grew, a host of related industries grew up around the ice trade. Apart from the production of the specialist tools and clothing, manuals were printed on how to create artificial lakes for ice harvesting, and special ships and train wagons for delivery of the ice were built among other new developments. The growth of the ice trade also affected the timber industry, as otherwise useless sawdust became a valuable commodity for packing and storing ice during transport.

The ice itself was much sought after by meat and fish sellers, and by pharmacists for various other purposes, including medicine to alleviate sprains and inflammation. But one particular consequence of the shipping of cheaper ice from Norway to London, for which Carlo Gatti is credited, is the introduction and growth of large-scale ice cream production, which prior to this had been the preserve of a few.

In the end, mechanical refrigeration removed the need to transport ice, but this new process led to the relative ease of the production, storage and distribution of ice cream.

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Practice Test 2

READING PASSAGE 3

You should spend about 20 minutes on Questions 28–41 which are based on Reading Passage 3 below.

TOURISM

A Tourism, holidaymaking and travel are these days more significant social phenomena than most commentators have considered. On the face of it there could not be a more trivial subject for a book. And indeed since social scientists have had considerable difficulty explaining weightier topics such as work or politics it might be thought that they would have great difficulties in accounting for more trivial phenomena such as holidaymaking. However there are interesting parallels with the study of deviance. This involves the investigation of bizarre and idiosyncratic social practices which happen to be defined as deviant in some societies but not necessarily in others. The assumption is that the investigation of deviance can reveal interesting and significant aspects of normal societies. It could be said that a similar analysis can be applied to tourism.

B Tourism is a leisure activity which presupposes its opposite namely regulated and organised work. It is one manifestation of how work and leisure are organised as separate and regulated spheres of social practice in modern societies. Indeed acting as a tourist is one of the defining characteristics of being modern, and the popular concept of tourism is that it is organised within particular places and occurs for regularised periods of time. Tourist relationships arise from a movement of people to and their stay in various destinations. This necessarily involves some movement that is the journey and a period of stay in a new place or places. The journey and the stay are by definition outside the normal places of residence and work and are of a short term and temporary nature and there is a clear intention to return home within a relatively short period of time.

C A substantial proportion of the population of modern societies engages in such tourist

practices. New socialised forms of provision have developed in order to cope with the mass character of the gazes of tourists as opposed to the individual character of travel. Places are chosen to be visited and be gated upon because there is an anticipation especially through daydreaming and fantasy of intense pleasures, either on a different scale or involving different senses from those customarily encountered. Such anticipation is constructed and sustained through a variety of non-tourist practices such as films, TV literature, magazines, records and videos which construct and reinforce this daydreaming.

D Tourists tend to visit features of landscape and townscape which separate them off from everyday experience. Such aspects are viewed because they are taken to be in some sense out of the ordinary. The viewing of these tourist sights often involves different forms of social patterning with a much greater sensitivity to visual elements of landscape or townscape than is normally found in everyday life. People linger over these sights in a way that they would not normally do in their home environment and the vision is objectified or captured through photographs, postcards, films and so on which enable the memory to be endlessly reproduced and recaptured.

E One of the earliest dissertations on the subject of tourism is Boissier's analysis of the pseudo event (1964) where he argues that contemporary Americans cannot experience reality directly but thrive on 'pseudo events'. Isolated from the host environment and the local people, the mass tourist travels in guided groups and finds pleasure in inauthentic, contrived attractions glibly enjoying the pseudo events and disregarding the real world outside. Over time the images generated of different tourist sights come to constitute a closed self-perpetuating system of illusions which provide the tourist with the basis for selecting and

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Passage 1

20 minutes

Passage 2

20 minutes

Passage 3

20 minutes

Slides 09



IELTS reading

- 60 mins
- 3 sections
- 1 question, 1 mark
- No Negative marking

Question types:

- Matching Headings, Paragraphs
- Fill in the gaps (Summary completion, Table completion, Sentence Completion etc)
- True, False, Not given or Yes, No, Not given
- Multiple choice
- Short Answer
- Matching sentence endings and more

Canva Stories template for IELTS Reading practice.

Please write your three digit language code in the boxes and shade the numbers in the grid on the right.

Are you: Female? ☐ Male? ☐

Reading Reading Reading Reading Reading Reading

Module taken (shade one box): Academic ☐ General Training ☐

	Marked only		Marked only
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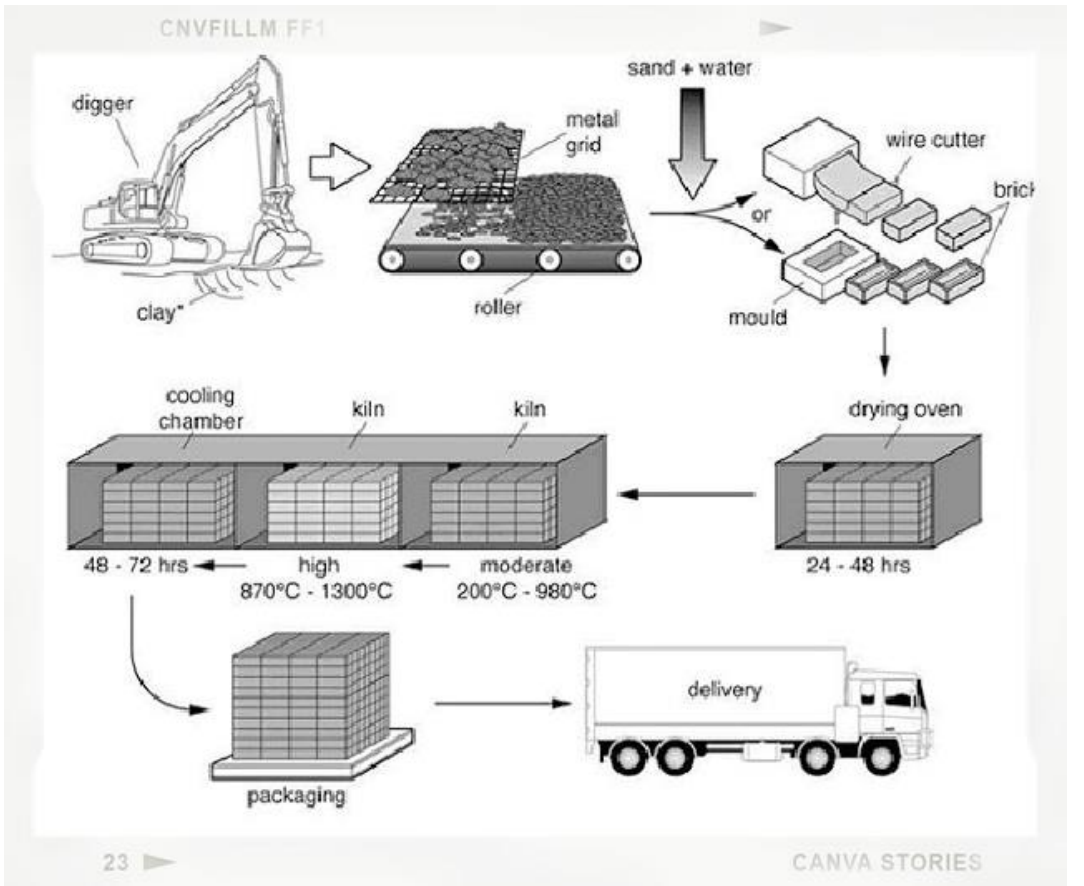
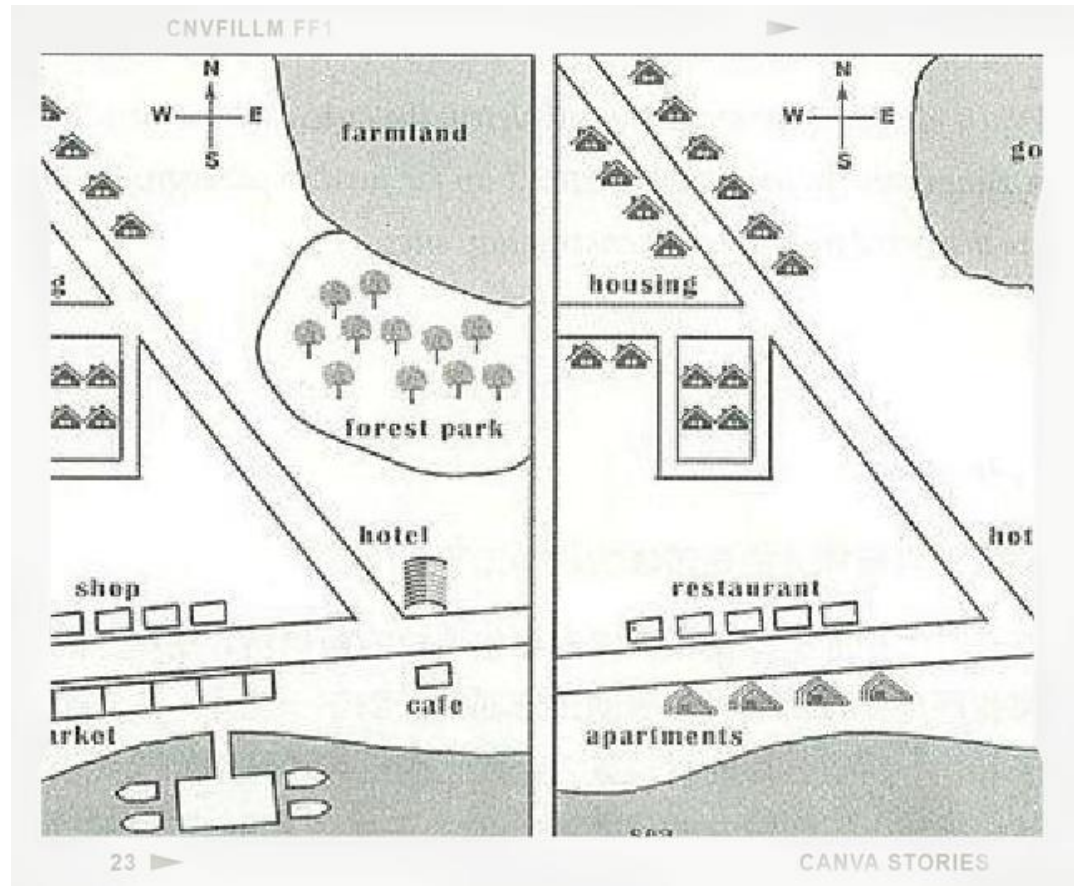
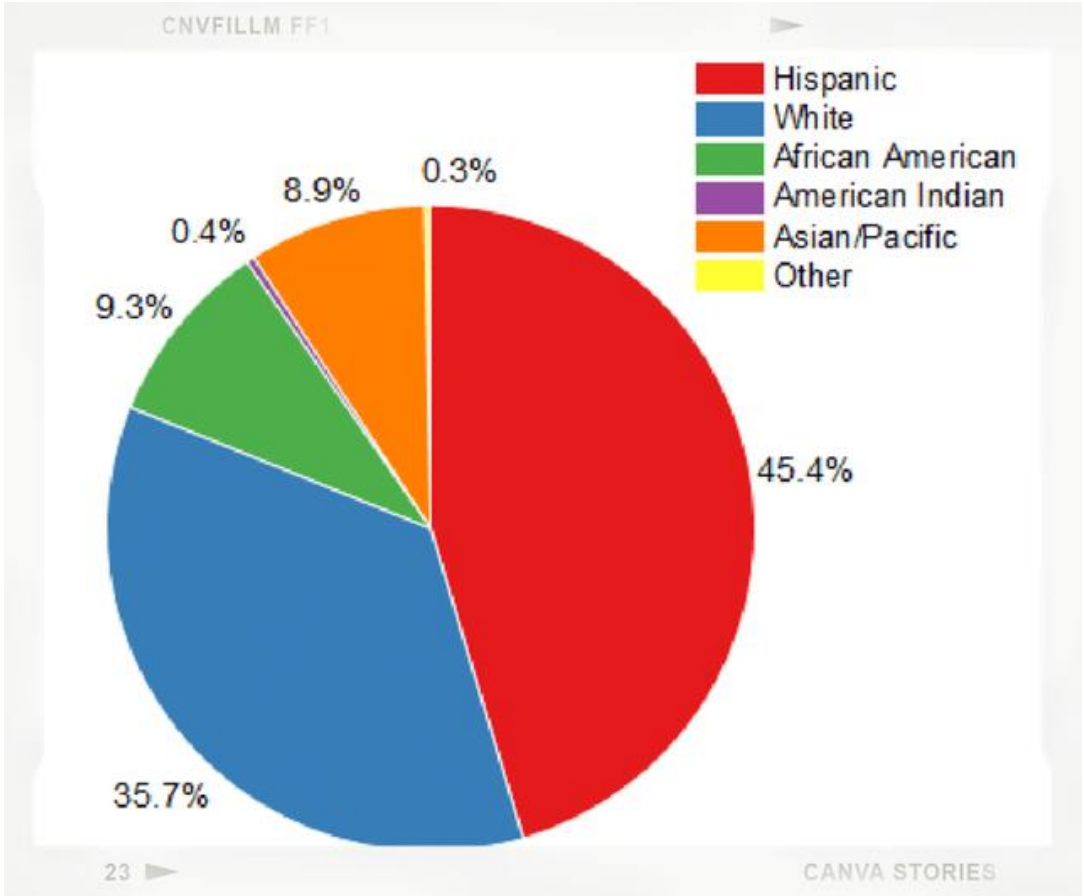
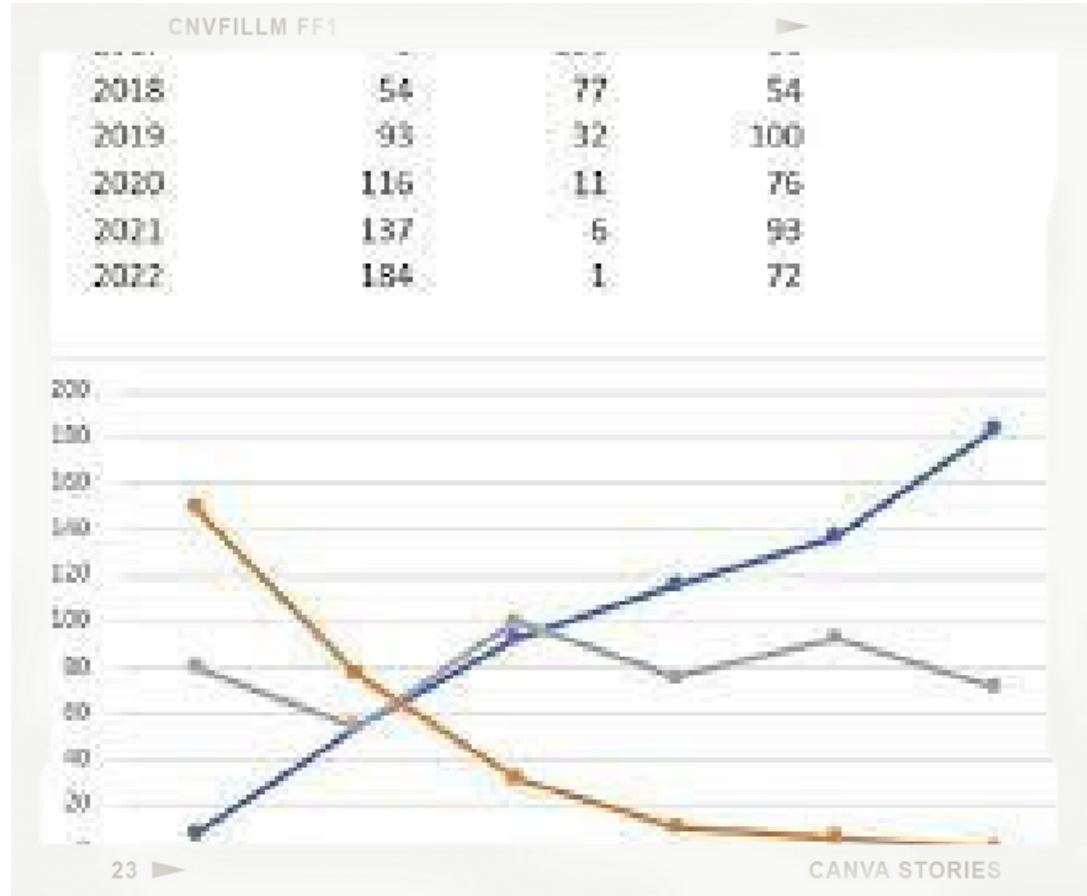
Writing

Task 1

Informative writing (Line graph, Bar graph, Pie chart, Tables) or Letter.

Task 2

Opinion, Discussion, Advantage–Disadvantage, Solution, Direction etc



Band score

IELTS results are reported on a 9-Band scale.

IELTS Band Scores

Academic Reading		General Reading		Listening	
Score	Correct Answers	Score	Correct Answers	Score	Correct Answers
9	39 - 40	9	40	9	39 - 40
8.5	37 - 38	8.5	39	8.5	37 - 38
8	35 - 36	8	37 - 38	8	35 - 36
7.5	33 - 34	7.5	36	7.5	32 - 34
7	30 - 32	7	34 - 35	7	30 - 31
6.5	27 - 29	6.5	32 - 33	6.5	26 - 29
6	23 - 26	6	30 - 31	6	23 - 25
5.5	19 - 22	5.5	27 - 29	5.5	18 - 22
5	15 - 18	5	23 - 26	5	16 - 17
4.5	13 - 14	4.5	19 - 22	4.5	13 - 15
4	10 - 12	4	15 - 18	4	10 - 12

Please note that these scores are approximate



Spoken

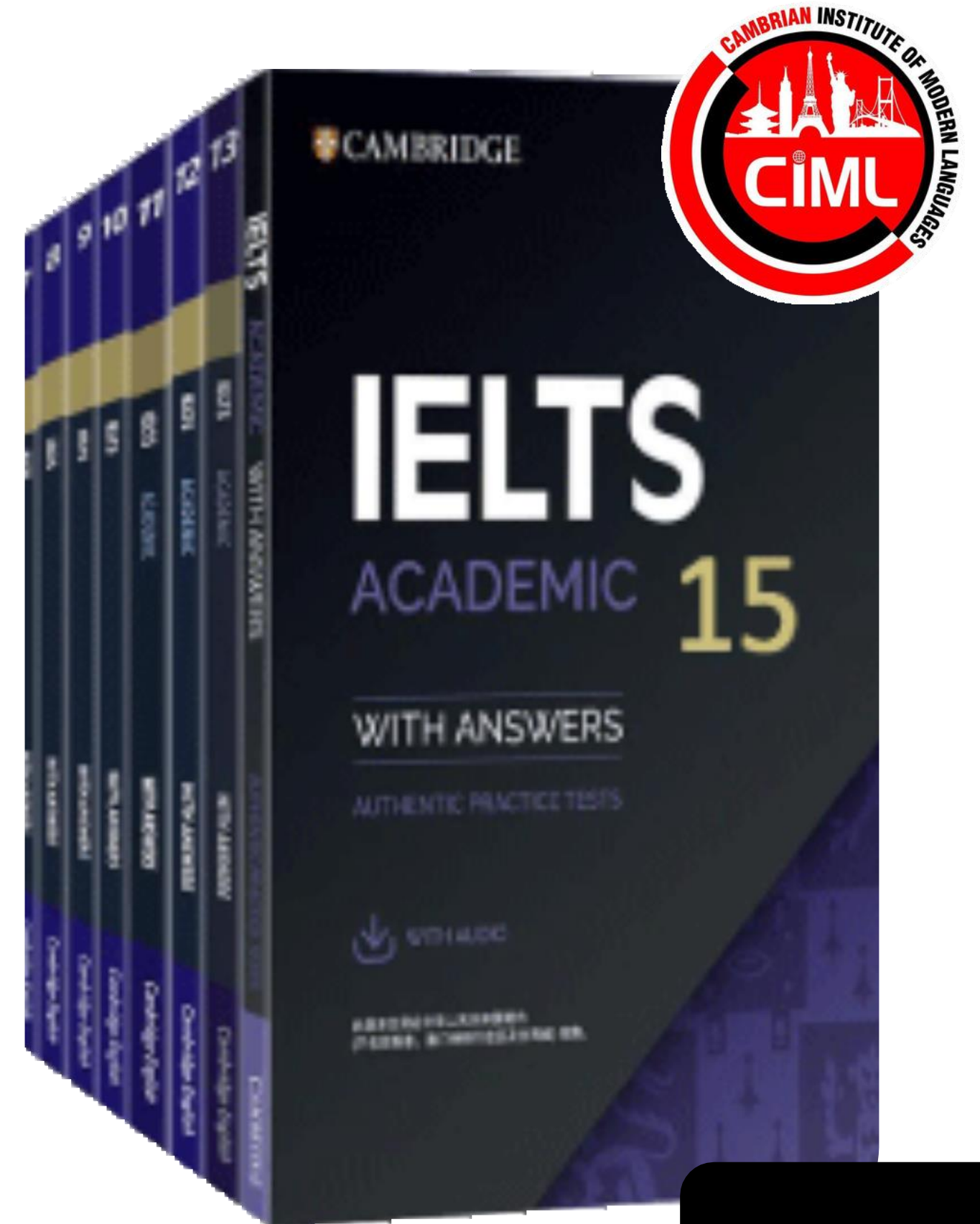
- 11–14 minutes
- informal 1 to one interview
- 3 sections

You will be marked based on:

- fluency and coherence
- lexical resource,
- grammatical range and accuracy,
and
- pronunciation

Books

Cambridge IELTS authentic Practice tests.





**Cambrian Institute of
Modern Languages**

**Thank You For your
Attention. See you in next
class.**

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