**1.1. Theme 1: Remembering and forgetting
Lesson 1.1 Vocabulary for listening: Types of memory**

Exercise B. Listen to a text. Number the words and phrases below in the order you hear them.

Lecturer: Have you got a good memory? Some people are good at remembering names. Other people have a good memory for faces, or telephone numbers or events from their own lives. Some people seem to be able to memorize facts easily, for example, the date of a battle, or the capital of a country. For centuries, teachers used rote learning, or 'learning by heart', for information such as the times tables; for example, 7 times 8 is 56.

According to some researchers, there are two main kinds of memory. First, there is short-term memory. This helps us remember a telephone number, for example, just long enough to write it down. Secondly, there is long-term memory. In theory, we can remember things in long-term memory for ever.

Psychologists say there are three main kinds of long-term memory.

Firstly, we remember how to do things. This means we can perform skills, such as driving or playing a sport.

Secondly, we remember facts. We remember the dates of famous battles, for example, the name of the first President of the United States, or the population of our country.

Finally, we remember autobiographical events. In other words, we can recall personal experiences and recognize familiar faces, for example. We remember going to interesting places when we were younger.

Neuroscientists point out that memory has three stages. Firstly, the information must be encoded or taken in. Secondly, the information must be stored. Thirdly, the information must be correctly retrieved. Memory can fail in any of the three stages. In other words, we can forget the information if we don't regularly remind ourselves about it.

🎧 1.2 DVD 1.A

Presenter: **1.2. Lesson 1.2. Real-time listening: Memory models**

Lecturer: Hello! Now, in this lecture, we are going to look at a very important process. It's the process of getting new information into long-term memory. There are several memory models that different researchers have discussed. But we're only going to look at one model today. It is the Multi-store memory model. Firstly, we'll look at the components of the model. Then we'll see how information moves through the different parts of the brain, according to the model.

So first, let's look at the components of the Multi-store memory model. It was proposed by two researchers called Atkinson and Shiffrin, and they wrote an article in 1968. It was entitled 'The psychology of learning and motivation'. In the article, Atkinson and Shiffrin say that there are three parts to memory. Firstly, there is sensory memory. The word *sensory* is the adjective from *sense*. It means 'related to sight, hearing' and so on. Now sensory memory lasts from one to three seconds. The second part of the Multi-store model is short-term memory. Short-term memory lasts from 15 to 30 seconds. Finally, we have long-term memory. Now long-term memory can last a lifetime.

OK, now let's consider how information moves through the three parts of the memory. First, sensory memory. All five senses can lead to memories. For example, we use sight for recognizing people. We use hearing for recognizing a piece of music. Atkinson and Shiffrin say that we must pay attention to a piece of sensory information to move it into short-term memory. So, for example, our eyes see a telephone number. Now, we only put it into short-term memory when we actually look at it.

OK. So the first stage of memory is paying attention. When we pay attention, we move information. It goes from sensory memory to short-term memory. But short-term memory doesn't last for long. We must do something with the information in short-term memory. If we don't, new information from sensory memory pushes out old information. The best-known research in this area was conducted by Miller. In 1956, he wrote an article which was called 'The Magical Number Seven, Plus or Minus Two'. In the article, Miller says that short-term memory can only hold about seven pieces of meaningless information. For example, it can hold a telephone number. When an eighth piece comes along, one of the seven pieces is pushed out.

Long-term memory is the final stage in this model. According to Atkinson and Shiffrin, we need rehearsal to move information from short-term memory. So, in other words, we need to repeat information in our heads. We, we need to say it again, and again, and perhaps again! Then it will be moved from short-term to long-term memory.

So that's the Multi-store model. In the next lecture, we'll look at the idea of rehearsal in more detail. Is it just repetition, or is there more involved? That's next time.

1.3. Lesson 1.3. Learning new listening skills: Recording sources. Exercise A. Listen to part of the lecture from Lesson 1.2. Number the sentence endings in the correct order.

Lecturer:
1. The model was proposed by …
2. They wrote an article in …
3. It was entitled …
4. In the article, …
5. Firstly, …
6. Sensory is …
7. Sensory means …
8. Sensory memory lasts …
9. The second part of the Multi-store model is …
10. Finally, we have …

🎧 1.4

Presenter: **1.4. Exercise C. Listen to some extracts from a lecture on memory.**

Presenter: One.

Lecturer: Short-term memory was originally called *primary memory*. The first real investigation of primary memory was in 1887. That's 1887, not 1987, so well over one hundred years ago. A man called Joseph Jacobs conducted an experiment. He gave people sets of numbers to remember. The sets got longer and longer. Jacobs found the average is around six or seven.

Presenter: Two.

Lecturer: Let's see how we encode sensory information. A man called Conrad did some experiments in 1964. In an article entitled 'Acoustic confusions in immediate memory', Conrad said that we encode sensory information as sound. But only six years later, in 1970, another researcher called Shulman did some more experiments. He reported his findings in the *Journal of Verbal Learning & Verbal Behavior*. Shulman found that some information is encoded for meaning, not sound.

Presenter: Three.

Lecturer: Peterson and Peterson published a study in 1959. It was called *Short-term retention of individual verbal items*. They looked at the length of short-term memory if there was no rehearsal. Peterson and Peterson found people can remember meaningless shapes without rehearsal for about three seconds. But after 18 seconds, nearly everything is forgotten. Did I say the date? It was 1959.

Presenter: Four.

Lecturer: A group of researchers looked at long-term memory in 1975, I think it was. Let me check my notes. Yes, 1975. Bahrick *et al* wanted to test the length of long-term memory. They showed people photographs of school classmates and asked them to recognize the people. Bahrick and his team found that long-term memory declines over long periods of time.

Presenter: Five.

Lecturer: Another model of memory is called the Working memory model. This was proposed by Baddeley and Hitch in 1975. So that's the same year as Bahrick *et al*'s research. Baddeley and Hitch looked mostly at short-term memory. There is one main difference between this model and the Multi-store model. The Working memory model suggests that short-term memory has several different parts, and each part has its own function.

🎧 1.5

Presenter: **1.5. Exercise D. Listen to the stressed syllable of some words from this theme. Number the correct word in each case.**

Voice:
1. [in]volve
2. mem[ory]
3. [con]sid[er]
4. rec[ognize]
5. [at]ten[tion]
6. [re]search
7. in[formation]
8. [repe]ti[tion]
9. [per]form
10. [en]code
11. [re]trieve
12. [re]call

🎧 **1.6**

Presenter: **1.6. Skills Check. Listen to extracts from the lecture in 1.1 again.**

One.

Lecturer: So, first, let's look at the components of the Multi-store memory model. It was proposed by two researchers called Atkinson and Shiffrin. They wrote an article in 1968. It was entitled 'The psychology of learning and motivation'.

Presenter: Two.

Lecturer: We must do something with the information in short-term memory. The best-known research in this area was conducted by Miller. In 1956, he wrote an article. It was called 'The Magical Number Seven, Plus or Minus Two.'

🎧 **1.7**

Presenter: **1.7. Lesson 1.4. Grammar for listening: Indirect questions; verb patterns. Exercise B. Listen to some more indirect questions. Make a heading for the notes in each case.**

Voice: 1. I'm going to discuss how we encode sensory information.
2. We'll see what the researchers discovered.
3. I'm going to explain why this research is important.
4. Let's consider how this happens.
5. We'll find out who the famous people are in this area.
6. Let's consider how many pieces of information we can remember in short-term memory.
7. I'll explain why this research is important for learners.
8. We'll look at how information moves through the brain.

🎧 **1.8**

Presenter: **1.8. Exercise C. Listen to the beginning of some sentences. Choose the best way to complete each sentence.**

1. At school, we learnt about …
2. Don't forget …
3. I remember …
4. I'd like to learn how …
5. My tutor is very nice. She reminds me of …
6. My tutor usually reminds me about …

🎧 **1.9** DVD **1.B**

Presenter: **1.9. Lesson 1.5. Applying new listening skills: Moving information into long-term memory**

Lecturer: In the last lecture, I described how the Multi-store memory model works. We saw what the components are, and I explained how memory is moved through the system. At the end, I also mentioned repetition. According to Atkinson and Shiffrin, you need rehearsal to move the information to long-term memory. Atkinson and Shiffrin said that rehearsal is simply repetition. But other researchers disagree. And in this lecture, we're going to look at how you can rehearse information. In other words, we'll consider what you can do to move information into long-term memory. We'll also consider how teachers can help students with this process.

🎧 **1.10** DVD **1.C**

Lecturer: Firstly, rehearsal involves frequency. Repetition of new information ensures frequency. So, for example, when you hear a new word, you can say it to yourself ten times. But other researchers say repetition is not enough to move information into long-term memory. You need variety as well. A man called Thurgood wrote an article about learning in 1989. I think that's correct, let me check! – yes, 1989. It's entitled 'The Integrated Memory and the Integrated Syllabus'. Thurgood agreed that you need frequency. But he said you also need variety. For example, you need to read a new word in several different situations. Then you need to hear it in some more situations. Then, perhaps, you need to use it yourself. So, yes, rehearsal involves frequency, but according to Thurgood and to others, it also involves variety. It involves doing different things with new information.

Alright? Now the second idea is activity. More than 2,000 years ago, Aristotle wrote a book in around 325 BCE. It's called *Ethics*. Aristotle said in this book that we learn by doing. So he believed in activity. In fact, he believed that it's the only way to learn. So Aristotle was writing about memory and learning in 325 BCE. I find that incredible.

Association is the third idea. A little more recently than Aristotle, less than 20 years ago in fact, a man called Tony Buzan wrote a well-known book in 1993. It's called *The Mind Map Book*. In this book, Buzan says that it is very important to make associations between pieces of information. His main method is the mind map. Now a mind map looks like a spidergram. You draw lines to link information. Buzan says this will help you remember new information. Since 1993, Buzan has written several other books on this subject.

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Finally, we have the idea of mnemonics. A mnemonic is a very clever way of remembering something. For example, perhaps you want to remember the planets in our Solar System. There is a well-known mnemonic for this in English: My Very Efficient Memory Just Stores Up Nine Planets.

Frances Yates wrote a book in 1966. It's called *The Art of Memory*. In the book, Yates says that mnemonics were first proposed by a Greek man. This was before Aristotle's time, in around 487 BCE. Sorry, that should be 477 BCE. He was called Simonides. So we can thank Simonides for this useful way of remembering information.

So, according to different researchers in this field, there are at least five ways to rehearse information. They are: frequency, activity, variety, association and mnemonics. You should try all of these methods during your course and see which ones work for you.

1.11

Presenter:	**1.11. Lesson 1.6. Vocabulary for speaking: Types of learner. Exercise B1. Cover the text at the bottom of the page. Look at Figure 1. Listen.**
Lecturer:	How do you learn? If you like pictures, graphs and charts, you're probably a visual learner. *Visual* means 'of the eyes'.
	If you like talking about new information with your friends, you're probably an aural learner. *Aural* means 'of the ears'.
	If you like using the library and the Internet to find new information, you're probably a read/write learner. In other words, you need to read things or write them to remember them.
	If you like to move around when you are studying, you're probably a kinaesthetic learner. *Kinaesthetic* means 'of feeling and movement'.
	Finally, if you like to do two or more of these things, you are probably a multi-mode learner. *Mode* means 'method or way or doing something', and *multi* means 'many'. Sixty to seventy per cent of learners are multi-mode.

1.12

Presenter:	**1.12. Exercise C2. Listen again to the first paragraph.**
Lecturer:	How do you learn? If you like pictures, graphs and charts, you're probably a visual learner. *Visual* means 'of the eyes'.

1.13 DVD **1.D**

Presenter:	**1.13. Lesson 1.7. Real-time speaking: The visual learner**
Student:	According to the Institute for Learning Styles Research, there are seven types of learning style. Today, I'm going talk about one of the seven types, the visual learner. How does the visual learner prefer to learn? How can the visual learner improve learning efficiency? I'll mention some learning preferences and make some recommendations in each case.
	Firstly, visual learners need to see written text, so they should make notes of lectures. They could draw diagrams and make flow charts from the notes.
	Secondly, they remember visual information. Therefore they should make flashcards of words. They could test themselves or put the flashcards on the walls of their bedroom.
	Thirdly, visual learners like colour so therefore, they should use colour for their notes. They could use colour pens during the lecture or they could mark the text later, with circles, underlining and highlighting.
	Finally, visual learners don't like noise. Therefore, they should not listen to music while they are studying. They should work in a quiet place.
	So, to sum up, I have explained some of the learning preferences of visual learners, and I have also made you some recommendations to improve learning efficiency. If you are a visual learner, try some of the ideas which I have suggested.

1.14

Presenter:	**1.14. Everyday English: Making friends. Exercise B2. Listen and complete the conversations.**
	One.
Student A:	What course are you doing?
Student B:	Environmental Science.
Student A:	Is that a BSc?
Student B:	Yes. It's three years, full time.

Presenter:	Two.
Student A:	Are you staying on campus?
Student B:	Yes. I'm in the halls of residence. It's really good.
Student A:	Are the rooms shared or single?
Student B:	They're all single study bedrooms.
Presenter:	Three.
Student A:	Have you been into town yet?
Student B:	No, not yet. Have you?
Student A:	I'm going today. I've got a map here.
Student B:	Oh great. Can I come with you?
Presenter:	Four.
Student A:	Have you met your tutor?
Student B:	Yes, I went to her office yesterday.
Student A:	What's her name?
Student B:	I've forgotten. But she seems really nice.
Presenter:	Five.
Student A:	How long have you been here?
Student B:	I arrived on Sunday by train. You?
Student A:	I've been here for a week.
Student B:	So you know your way around then?
Presenter:	Six.
Student A:	When are your lectures?
Student B:	I've got five hours a week, on three days.
Student A:	My lectures are on Monday and Friday.
Student B:	Oh, that means no long weekends for you then?
Student A:	Yes, it's a bit annoying.

🎧 1.15

Presenter: **1.15. Lesson 1.8. Learning new speaking skills: Giving a short talk. Pronunciation Check.**

Voice: pat, part; pet, pert; pit, Pete; pot, port; putt, put; pout, pate

🎧 1.16

Presenter: **1.16. Lesson 1.9. Grammar for speaking: *should / could; so / because*. Grammar box 3.**

Voice: Visual learners should make notes of all lectures.
They could draw diagrams.
They could make flow charts.

🎧 1.17

Presenter: **1.17. Grammar box 4.**

Voice: Visual learners need to see written text so they should make notes of lectures.
Because visual learners need to see written text, they should make notes of lectures.
Visual learners should make notes of lectures because they need to see written text.

🎧 1.18

Presenter: **1.18. Portfolio: Memories. Exercise B1. Listen to information about some research into memory.**

Lecturer: In 1977, two researchers conducted an experiment into memory. They were interested in memories of shocking events, like 9/11, but, of course, this was many years before that event. The researchers were called Roger Brown and James Kulik.

They wanted to see if memory is culturally determined – in other words: Do people remember important events differently, depending on their ethnic group?

Brown and Kulik asked 40 black Americans and 40 white Americans to fill out a questionnaire. The questionnaire contained a list of ten national events, including the death of President Kennedy 14 years earlier. Participants were asked to recall the circumstances surrounding the event.

Brown and Kulik found that white Americans had better recall for events involving white people whereas black Americans had better recall for events involving black people. They also found that people remembered many facts about important events. They remembered where they were, what they were doing, what other people were doing, who told them about the event, and the effect the news had on them and on other people. But, and this is the important point, they could not remember events on the day before or the day after.

Brown and Kulik concluded that there is a special kind of memory. They called it *flashbulb memory*. The name comes from the flash on a camera. The researchers thought that some memories are like photographs. They also concluded that people have flashbulb memories for things that are personally important to them, hence white Americans remembering events with white people.

2.1

Presenter: **2.1. Theme 2: Friends and family**
Lesson 2.1 Vocabulary for listening: Describing personality

Exercise A. Listen to some statements about the Internet. Do you agree or disagree with each one?

Voices: 1. Websites like Facebook waste a lot of time.
2. Twitter is just silly. Why do you want to know about every second of another person's life?
3. Friends Reunited is a marvellous site. It brings people back together, sometimes after years and years.
4. Social networking sites are dangerous. They have replaced real communication between people.
5. You cannot be friends with someone you have only met on a website. You must meet them face to face.

2.2

Presenter: **2.2. Exercise B2. Listen to some people. Each person is talking about his/her best friend. Number the adjectives in the order you hear them.**

Voices: 1. I love her because she is so independent. She just lives her own life. She doesn't ask you for help all the time.

2. He's a very positive guy. I mean, he is always optimistic about situations, even when they are very bad. He makes me feel positive when I am with him.

3. She's totally reliable. If she promises to do something, she does it. Every time. I really like that.

4. He's extremely considerate. You know, he always asks me how I am feeling. He asks me if I need any help with anything. I believe he thinks about other people more than he thinks about himself.

5. She's very supportive. I have had a lot of problems, but she is always there for me. She doesn't criticize.

6. She always tells you the truth, even if you don't really want to hear it. She is too honest at times, but I admire that, really.

7. He's available. That's what I like about him. Do you know what I mean? He's always there when you need someone.

8. She's very communicative. You know, some people don't give you any information, about themselves, their work, their feelings. But she tells me everything – and she listens, too.

2.3

Presenter: **2.3. Exercise B3. Listen again and make a note of the meaning of each adjective.**

[REPEAT OF SCRIPT FROM 2.2]

2.4 DVD **2.A**

Presenter: **2.4. Lesson 2.2. Real-time listening: Making friends**

Lecturer: Today, I'm going to talk about a basic idea which links psychology and sociology. Psychology, as you know, is all about the individual. Sociology is about people in groups. One part of everyday life links individuals and makes them into groups. It is friendship. Research has shown that people with a number of close friends are generally healthier, in mind and body, than people without. For example, there is research from 2004. It is by Koji Ueno from Florida State University. Now Ueno studied adolescents – that is, teenagers. He questioned over 11,000 teenagers, and found that people with more friends were happier.

2.5 DVD **2.B**

Lecturer: Today, I'm going to talk about friendship. First, I will discuss two words which are often used together – friends and acquaintances. I will identify the key differences between the two words. After that, I'm going to talk about how an acquaintance can become a friend. Next, I will list the characteristics of people with a lot of friends. We'll see the view of psychologists. Finally, you're going to do a personal survey. You'll find out if you can make a lot of friends.