

# 國立臺灣師範大學 100 學年度碩士班招生考試試題

科目：英文

適用系所：歐洲文化與觀光研究所

注意：1.本試題共 8 頁，請依序在答案卷上作答，並標明題號，不必抄題。2.答案必須寫在指定作答區內，否則不予計分。

I. 文意字彙：請選出最適當的一個選項。每題二分，共二十分。

1. Guests entering the hotel will find the reception desk in the 1.  
(a) corridor (b) foyer (c) patio (d) scullery
2. The building has fallen into a state of 2 and now it needs a lot of work doing on it.  
(a) despair (b) dispersal (c) disrepair (d) distress
3. Burglar alarms often work as 3 and stop burglars even thinking about breaking in.  
(a) relief (b) observation (c) escalator (d) deterrent
4. Some companies may decide to advertise all over the country in an advertising 4.  
(a) campaign (b) appendix (c) survival (d) enclave
5. Her ideas about tourism are 5 to mine.  
(a) same (b) common (c) exactly (d) identical
6. In order to avoid problems the receptionist should 6 with the other departments of the hotel.  
(a) complain (b) liaise (c) comply (d) lease
7. Sterling silver is very sensitive to air and water, and it can easily get 7 on its surface.  
(a) tarnished (b) declared (c) projected (d) scrambled
8. Some waste, e.g. paper and empty cans, can be sold and, therefore, has a 8 value.  
(a) banquet (b) salvage (c) debris (d) franchise
9. Don't leave wet towels lying in a warm corner because this is how you will 9 germs.  
(a) dispose (b) prevent (c) harbor (d) remain
10. After delivery the supplier sends the 10 of goods giving quantity and price to his client.  
(a) invoice (b) incentive (c) inventory (d) incendiary

II. 綜合測驗：請依文意每題選出最適當的一個選項。每題二分，共二十分。

A hairdryer or an electric shaver are examples of electrical appliances. They have a flex with a plug at the end which 11 into a socket in the wall. If there is a 12, the electricity supply will be cut by a fuse.

The amount of electricity used is measured in kilowatt hours. The electrical 13 in Britain is 240 volts, while in many European countries it is 220 volts. If too many pieces of equipment are connected to one supply, the system may be 14 and there is a danger of fire. When problems arise, a qualified electrician should 15 be called to check the wiring.

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11. (a) fits (b) pats (c) dips (d) sips  
12. (a) dinner (b) stopper (c) fault (d) ticket  
13. (a) charge (b) current (c) safety (d) pardon  
14. (a) overloaded (b) underestimated  
(c) overrated (d) underdeveloped  
15. (a) obviously (b) suspiciously (c) possibly (d) immediately

Modern cargo-handling methods have had a significant effect on trade as the business of moving 16 around the world becomes increasingly streamlined. Manufacturers of computers, for instance, are able to 17 components from overseas, rather than having to rely on a local supplier. The introduction of 18 ships has meant that bulk cargo can be safely and efficiently moved over long distances, with a 19 wear ratio. While international shipping is now efficient, there is still a need for governments to reduce 20, in order to free up the domestic cargo sector.

16. (a) craft (b) house (c) freight (d) profile  
17. (a) depart (b) export (c) report (d) import  
18. (a) container (b) battle (c) yacht (d) motor  
19. (a) low (b) high (c) medium (d) zero  
20. (a) conflicts (b) labors (c) tariffs (d) pressures

III. 閱讀測驗：請依文意每題選出最適當的一個選項。每題二分，共四十分。

**Questions 21-22** are based on the following passage:

In the early nineteenth century, most of the Europeans who immigrated to the United States were from northern and western European countries such as England, Germany, France, and Sweden. However, most of the fifteen million Europeans arriving between 1890 and 1914 came from southern and eastern Europe, with the largest numbers coming from Russia, Italy, Greece, Austria-Hungary, and Armenia.

A similar pattern occurred in Canada, where most immigrants were traditionally from England and the United States. After 1890, an increasing number came from eastern Europe, particularly Russia and Ukraine. Many of these headed for the Prairie Provinces. The Doukhobors, a pacifist sect from the southern Russia, established communal settlements in Saskatchewan. Together with other immigrants, they arrived in such numbers that in the two decades between the completion of the main railroad network and the outbreak of war in 1914, the population of the prairies had increased from about 150,000 to 1.5 million.

21. Which of the following can be inferred from paragraph 1 about European immigration the United States in the nineteenth century?
- (a) The sources of immigrants shifted to different parts of Europe.  
(b) Most of the European immigrants could not speak English.  
(c) More immigrants came from Europe than from other continents.  
(d) Northern and western Europeans did not immigrate after 1890.

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22. It can be inferred from paragraph 2 that the Doukhobors
- (a) were the largest immigrant group in North America.
  - (b) also immigrated to the United States.
  - (c) mainly settled in the Canadian prairies.
  - (d) helped to build Canada's railroad network.

**Questions 23-30** are based on the following passage:

### **Advantages of Public Transport**

A new study conducted for the World Bank by Murdoch University's Institute for Science and Technology Policy (ISTP) has demonstrated that public transport is more efficient than cars. The study compared the proportion of wealth poured into transport by thirty-seven cities around the world. This included both the public and private costs of building, maintaining and using a transport system.

The study found that the Western Australian city of Perth is a good example of a city with minimal public transport. As a result, 17% of its wealth went into transport costs. Some European and Asian cities, on the other hand, spent as little as 5%. Professor Peter Newman, ISTP Director, pointed out that these more efficient cities were able to put the difference into attracting industry and jobs or creating a better place to live.

According to Professor Newman, the larger Australian city of Melbourne is a rather unusual city in this sort of comparison. He describes it as two cities: "A European city surrounded by a car-dependent one". Melbourne's large tram network has made car use in the inner city much lower, but the outer suburbs have the same car-based structure as most other Australian cities. The explosion in demand for accommodation in the inner suburbs of Melbourne suggests a recent change in many people's preferences as to where they live.

Newman says this is a new, broader way of considering public transport issues. In the past, the case for public transport has been made on the basis of environmental and social justice considerations rather than economics. Newman, however, believes the study demonstrates that "the auto-dependent city model is inefficient and grossly inadequate in economic as well as environmental terms".

Bicycle use was not included in the study but Newman noted that the two most "bicycle friendly cities considered—Amsterdam and Copenhagen—were very efficient, even though their public transport systems were "reasonable but not special".

It is common for supporters of road networks to reject the models of cities with good public transport by arguing that such systems would not work in their particular city. One objection is climate. Some people say their city could not make more use of public transport because it is either too hot or too cold. Newman rejects this, pointing out that public transport has been successful in both Toronto and Singapore and, in fact, he has checked the use of cars against climate and found "zero correlation".

When it comes to other physical features, road lobbies are on stronger ground. For example, Newman accepts it would be hard for a city as hilly as Auckland to develop a really good rail network. However, he points out that both Honk Kong and

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Zurich have managed to make a success of their rail systems, heavy and light respectively, though there are few cities in the world as hilly.

In fact Newman believes the main reason for adopting one sort of transport over another is politics. The more democratic the process, the more public transport is favored. He considers Portland Oregon, a perfect example of this. Some years ago federal money was granted to build a new road. However, local pressure groups forced a referendum over whether to spend the money on light rail instead. The rail proposal won and the railway worked spectacularly well. In the years that have followed, more and more rail systems have been put in, dramatically changing the nature of the city. Newman notes that Portland has about the same population as Perth and had a similar population density at the time.

In the UK, travel times to work had been stable for at least six centuries, with people avoiding situations that required them to spend more than half an hour travelling to work. Trains and cars initially allowed people to live at greater distances without taking longer to reach their destination. However, public infrastructure did not keep pace with urban sprawl, causing massive congestion problems which now make commuting times far higher.

There is a widespread belief that increasing wealth encourages people to live farther out where cars are the only viable transport. The example of European cities refutes that. They are often wealthier than their American counterparts but have not generated the same level of car use. In Stockholm, car use has actually fallen in recent years as the city has become larger and wealthier. A new study makes this point even more starkly. Developing cities in Asia, such as Jakarta and Bangkok, make more use of the car than wealthy Asian cities such as Tokyo and Singapore. In cities that developed later, the World Bank and Asian Development Bank discouraged the building of public transport and people have been forced to rely on cars, creating the massive traffic jams that characterize those cities.

Newman believes one of the best studies on how cities built for cars might be converted to rail use is *The Urban Village* report, which used Melbourne as an example. It found that pushing everyone into the city centre was not the best approach. Instead, the proposal advocated the creation of urban villages at hundreds of sites, mostly around railway stations.

It was once assumed that improvements in telecommunications would lead to more dispersal in the population as people were no longer forced into cities. However, the ISTP team's research demonstrates that the population and job density of cities rose or remained constant in the 1980s after decades of decline. The explanation for this seems to be that it is valuable to place people working in related fields together. "The new world will largely depend on human creativity, and creativity flourishes where people come together face-to-face."

Do the following statements (23-27) agree with the information given in the above Passage? Choose **T(rue)**, **F(alse)**, or **NG(Not Given)** for each statement in the following (e.g., if the answer is **True**, write down **T** on your answer sheet in the corresponding box; if the answer is **Not Given**, write down **NG** on your answer

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sheet in the corresponding box):

23. The ISTP study examined public and private systems in every city of the world.
24. Efficient cities can improve the quality of life for their inhabitants.
25. An inner-city tram network is dangerous for car drivers.
26. In Melbourne, people prefer to live in the outer suburbs.
27. Cities with high levels of bicycle use can be efficient even when public transport is only averagely good.

**Questions 28-30:** Look at the following cities (Questions 28-30) and the list of descriptions below.

Match each city with the correct description A-F.

Write the correct answer on your answer sheet.

28. Perth
29. Auckland
30. Portland

## List of Descriptions

- A successfully uses a light rail transport system in hilly environment
- B successful public transport system despite cold winters
- C profitably moved from road to light rail transport system
- D hilly and inappropriate for rail transport system
- E heavily dependent on cars despite widespread poverty
- F inefficient due to a limited public transport system

**Questions 31-40** refer to the following passage:

### The Impact of Wilderness Tourism

The market for tourism in remote areas is booming as never before. Countries all across the world are actively promoting their 'wilderness' regions – such as mountains, Arctic lands, deserts, small islands and wetlands – to high-spending tourists. The attraction of these areas is obvious: by definition, wilderness tourism requires little or no initial investment. But that does not mean that there is no cost. As the 1992 United Nations Conference on Environment and Development recognized, these regions are fragile (i.e. highly vulnerable to abnormal pressures) not just in terms of their ecology, but also in terms of the culture of their inhabitants. The three most significant types of fragile environment in these respects, and also in terms of the proportion of the Earth's surface they cover, are deserts, mountains and Arctic areas. An important characteristic is their marked seasonality, with harsh conditions prevailing for many months each year. Consequently, most human activities, including tourism, are limited to quite clearly defined parts of the year.

Tourists are drawn to these regions by their natural landscape beauty and the unique cultures of their indigenous people. And poor governments in these isolated areas have welcomed the new breed of 'adventure tourist', grateful for the hard currency they bring. For several years now, tourism has been the prime source of foreign exchange in Nepal and Bhutan. Tourism is also a key element in the economies of Arctic zones such as Lapland and Alaska and in desert areas such as

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Ayers Rock in Australia and Arizona's Monument Valley.

Once a location is established as a main tourist destination, the effects on the local community are profound. When hill-farmers, for example, can make more money in a few weeks working as porters for foreign trekkers than they can in a year working in their fields, it is not surprising that many of them give up their farm-work, which is thus left to other members of the family. In some hill-regions, this has led to a serious decline in farm output and a change in the local diet, because there is insufficient labor to maintain terraces and irrigation systems and tend to crops. The result has been that many people in these regions have turned to outside supplies of rice and other foods.

In Arctic and desert societies, year-round survival has traditionally depended on hunting animals and fish and collecting fruit over a relatively short season. However, as some inhabitants become involved in tourism, they no longer have time to collect wild food; this has led to increasing dependence on bought food and stores. Tourism is not always the culprit behind such changes. All kinds of wage labor, or government handouts, tend to undermine traditional survival systems. Whatever the cause, the dilemma is always the same: what happens if these new, external sources of income dry up?

The physical impact of visitors is another serious problem associated with the growth in adventure tourism. Much attention has focused on erosion along major trails, but perhaps more important are deforestation and impacts on water supplies arising from the need to provide tourists with cooked food and hot showers. In both mountains and deserts, slow-growing trees are often the main sources of fuel and water supplies may be limited or vulnerable to degradation through heavy use.

Stories about the problems of tourism have become legion in the last few years. Yet it does not have to be a problem. Although tourism inevitably affects the region in which it takes place, the costs to these fragile environments and their local cultures can be minimized. Indeed, it can even be a vehicle for reinvigorating local cultures, as has happened with the Sherpas of Nepal's Khumbu Valley and in some Alpine villages. And a growing number of adventure tourism operators are trying to ensure that their activities benefit the local population and environment over the long term.

In the Swiss Alps, communities have decided that their future depends on integrating tourism more effectively with the local economy. Local concern about the rising number of second home developments in the Swiss Pays d'Enhaunt resulted in limits being imposed on their growth. There has also been a renaissance in communal cheese production in the area, providing the locals with a reliable source of income that does not depend on outside visitors.

Many of the Arctic tourist destinations have been exploited by outside companies, who employ transient workers and repatriate most of the profits to their home base. But some Arctic communities are now operating tour businesses themselves, thereby ensuring that the benefits accrue locally. For instance, a native corporation in Alaska, employing local people, is running an air tour from Anchorage to Kotzebue, where tourists eat Arctic food, walk on the tundra and watch local musicians and dancers.

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Native people in the desert regions of the American Southwest have followed similar strategies, encouraging tourists to visit their pueblos and reservations to purchase high-quality handicrafts and artwork. The Acoma and San Ildefonso pueblos have established highly profitable pottery businesses, while the Navajo and Hopi groups have been similarly successful with jewellery.

Too many people living fragile environments have lost control over their economies, their culture and their environment when tourism has penetrated their homelands. Merely restricting tourism cannot be the solution to the imbalance, because people's desire to see new places will not just disappear. Instead, communities in fragile environments much achieve greater control over tourism ventures in their regions, in order to balance their needs and aspirations with the demands of tourism. A growing number of communities are demonstrating that, with firm communal decision-making, this is possible. The critical question now is whether this can become the norm, rather than the exception.

Do the following statements (31-36) agree with the information given in the above Passage? Choose **T(rue)**, **F(alse)**, or **NG(Not Given)** for each statement in the following (e.g., if the answer is **True**, write down **T** on your answer sheet in the corresponding box; if the answer is **Not Given**, write down **NG** on your answer sheet in the corresponding box):

31. The low financial cost of setting up wilderness tourism makes it attractive to many countries.
32. Deserts, mountains and Arctic regions are examples of environments that are both ecologically and culturally fragile.
33. Wilderness tourism operates throughout the year in fragile areas.
34. The spread of tourism in certain hill-regions has resulted in a fall in the amount of food produced locally.
35. Traditional food-gathering in desert societies was distributed evenly over the year.
36. Government handouts do more damage than tourism to traditional patterns of food-gathering.

**Questions 37-40:** Complete the table. Choose **ONE WORD** from the above passage for each answer.

Write your answers on your answer sheet:

| The positive ways in which some local communities have responded to tourism |                                     |
|---|-------------------------------------|
| People/location   | activity                            |
| Swiss Pays d'Enhaut   | Revived production of <u>  37  </u> |
| Arctic communities  | Operate <u>  38  </u> business      |
| Acoma and San Ildefonso   | Produce and sell <u>  39  </u>      |
| Navajo and Hopi   | Produce and sell <u>  40  </u>      |

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IV. 英文作文：二十分。

Read the following passage:

The major difference between cultural and sustainable tourism is that cultural tourism is conceived of as a dichotomy between culture and tourism, but sustainable tourism is posited as a triad—tourist, community, environment (English Tourist Board, 1991). Whereas cultural processes can be seen as belonging to the community, the placing of environment as external to the community in sustainable tourism defuses the power of the community—the environment remains as capital outside the community which can be exploited by everyone. This underlines the potential impotence of the concept of sustainable tourism as well as its power (Bramwell *et al.*, 1998). In cultural tourism the culture–tourism dichotomy can add power, if the community can gain or retain control of the cultural resource that is desired by the tourist. This feature of cultural tourism perhaps explains the positive view of it adopted by many local groups. But in order to ensure that the local community benefits from cultural tourism without suffering the worst excesses of commodification and commercialization, careful distinction needs to be made between internal (largely ‘way of life’) aspects and external (often product-related) aspects of culture. The former must be viewed as inalienable elements of the culture itself, whereas the products of that culture can be represented, displayed and sold to tourists (Macdonald, 1997).

What is the author’s main argument in the passage above? Do you agree with him? Why? or why not? You are required to specify (1) the difference(s), according to the author, between cultural tourism and sustainable tourism, (2) the reason(s) why the author favors one of them, and (3) your critique of the author’s argument. Please write down your response (no less than 300 words) in English on the answer sheet.