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雅思源文阅读95篇

主编：檀琦　编著：杨春　李箐
审定：郭婷　Richard Bishop（英）

IELTS
EXAMINERS RECOMMEND READING
THE SOURCE TEXT 95

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前言 Preface

雅思阅读采用的是题库制，在实战考试中阅读都考新文章的概率极低，A类中通常新老文章比例是2新+1老或者是1新+2老和3老。G类考试中的三个部分也有同样的规律。根据笔者在澳大利亚和中国大陆12年来教授雅思A、G类阅读，以及十多次亲身参加实战考试的经验，越是重复考过的老文章越容易再出现。

针对未来几年的雅思阅读考试，实战中出现的文章依然会延续它十几年的风格，即：以老为主，以老带新。

本书精选了近三年在中国大陆重复率较高和多次在欧洲考场出现（根据规律，这些文章近期必然也会在中国大陆考场再现）的A/G类真题源文，共27套（A类20套，G类7套），比如：选择和幸福，孩子阅读方法，美国肥胖，寻找种子，南极与气候，海洋能源发电，龙涎香，海獭，考拉，人类的感觉，厄尔尼诺现象，计时器发展史，香蕉进化，空间与权利，机器模拟人和深海热沟等95篇。

近两年共计有3 700多名参加培训的考生在课下按照老师的要求，对真题源文进行了熟悉文章背景和掌握核心词汇的练习，效果喜人：几年来已经有近百名学员取得了8分以上的成绩并领取了环球单科（阅读）奖学金，其中彭智等多名学员获得了满分9分的优异成绩。

我相信，“强者恒强”，越是重复考过的老文章越容易再出现。这些精选真题源文在今后一定还会层出不穷，真正让熟读过这些真题源文的考生受益。

同时，本书还收录了各单元的重点词汇，便于考生更便捷、更快速、更有针对性地备战，从而提高阅读速度和做题准确率，轻松攻克雅思阅读。

最后，感谢资深策划人檀琦女士和她的同伴们为本书的出版所付出的辛勤努力！

祝：大家心想事成，考试成功！

编者

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TEST PAPER 1

Passage 1 口译：同传和交传

2007年12月1日中国大陆、澳大利亚考场中出现
2008年4月19日中国大陆、澳大利亚考场中再现

背景知识

同传是同声传译的简称，指译员在不打断讲话者演讲的情况下，不停地将其讲话内容传译给听众的一种口译方式。其最大优点在于效率高，已发展成为会议口译中最常用的模式，并通用于各种国际场合。

交传则是交替传译的简称，是指译员听取讲话，一般要求能听取长达五至十分钟连续不断的讲话。当演讲者发言结束或停下来等候传译的时候，口译员运用良好的演讲技巧，将信息完整、准确地译出并表达给听众。交传一般用于规模较小且只涉及两种工作语言的场合。

真题题源

Language interpreting or interpretation is the intellectual activity of facilitating oral and sign language communication, either simultaneously or consecutively, between two or more users of different languages. Functionally, interpreting and interpretation are the descriptive words for the activity. In professional practice interpreting denotes the act of facilitating communication from one language form into its equivalent, or approximate equivalent, in another language form. Interpretation denotes the actual product of this work, that is, the message as thus rendered into speech, sign language, writing, non-manual signals, or other language form. This important distinction is observed to avoid confusion.

Functionally, an interpreter is a person who converts a source language to a target language. The interpreter's function is conveying every semantic element (tone and register) and every intention and feeling of the message that the source-language speaker is directing to the targetlanguage listeners.

In consecutive interpreting, the interpreter speaks after the source-language speaker has finished speaking. The speech is divided into segments, and CI interpreter sits or stands beside the source-language speaker, listening and taking notes as the speaker progresses through the message. When the speaker pauses or finishes speaking, the interpreter then renders the entire message in the target language.

Consecutively-interpreted speeches, or segments of them, tend to be short. Fifty years ago, the CI interpreter would render speeches of 20 or 30 minutes, today, 10 or 15 minutes is considered long. Often, the source-language speaker is unaware that he or she may speak at length before the CI interpretation is rendered, and might stop after each sentence to await its target-language rendering. Often, the interpreter asks the speaker to pause after each sentence; sentence-by-sentence interpreting requires less memorisation, yet, its disadvantage is in the interpreter's not having heard the entire speech or its gist, therefore making more difficult establishing the accurate register by not knowing the exact vocabulary and terms to use. This method is usual in rendering speeches, depositions, recorded statements, court witness testimony, and medical and job interviews.

Consecutive interpreting allows for the source-language message's full meaning to be understood before the interpreter renders it to the target language. This affords a truer, accurate, and accessible interpretation than does simultaneous interpretation.

In simultaneous interpretation, the interpreter renders the message in the target-language as quickly as he or she can formulate it from the source language, while the source-language speaker continuously speaks; sitting in a soundproof booth, the SI interpreter speaks into a microphone, while clearly seeing and hearing the source-language speaker via earphones. The simultaneous interpretation is rendered to the target-language listeners via their earphones. Moreover, SI is the common mode used by sign language interpreters. NOTE: Laymen often incorrectly describe SI and the SI interpreter as "simultaneous translation" and as the "simultaneous translator", ignoring the definite distinction between interpretation and translation.

Conference interpreting is the interpretation of a conference, either simultaneously or consecutively, although the advent of multi-lingual meetings has consequently reduced the consecutive interpretation in the last 20 years.

Conference interpretation is divided between two markets: the institutional and private. International institutions (EU, UN, EPO, et cetera), holding multi-lingual

重点词汇

accessible *adj.* 易接近的，可到达的，易受影响的，可理解的	consecutively *adv.* 连续地
convert *n.* 皈依者 *vt.* 使转变，转换……，使……改变信仰	cue *n.* 暗示，提示，球杆
equivalent *adj.* 相等的，相当的，同意义的 *n.* 等价物，相等物	facilitate *vt.* （不以人作主语的）使容易，使便利，推动，帮助，促进
fluctuate *vi.* 变动，波动，涨落，上下，动摇	intellectual *adj.* 智力的，有智力的，显示智力的
interpret *v.* 解释，说明，口译，通译，认为是……的意思	multilingual *adj.* 使用多种语言的
mutually exclusive *adj.* 互斥的	predictable pattern 实验模型，试验样品
render into 译成（某种语言）	rhythm *n.* 节奏，韵律
segment *n.* 段，节，片断 *v.* 分割	semantic element 语义成分
simultaneously *adv.* 同时地	soundproof *adj.* 隔音的
source language *n.* [计] 源语言	target language *n.* 被翻译的语言
testimony *n.* 证词（尤指在法庭所作的），宣言，陈述	

Passage 2 生物治虫

2008年2月23日中国大陆、澳大利亚考场中出现
2008年5月31日中国大陆、澳大利亚考场中再现

背景知识

生物治虫是指用一种生物控制另一种生物的治虫方法。它是利用生物间的关系，应用各种有益的生物（天敌）或生物的代谢产物来防治病虫害。有益生物种类很多，包括益虫、益鸟、益兽和有益微生物等。生物防治法通过有益生物直接消灭害虫，改变生物种群的组成部分。跟传统的农药治虫相比，其优点在于对人、畜、植物安全，没有

naturally occurring biological controls are often susceptible to the same pesticides used to target their hosts. Preventing the accidental eradication of natural enemies is termed simple conservation.

Classical biological control is the introduction of natural enemies to a new locale where they did not originate or do not occur naturally. This is usually done by government authorities. In many instances the complex of natural enemies associated with an insect pest may be inadequate. This is especially evident when an insect pest is accidentally introduced into a new geographic area without its associated natural enemies. These introduced pests are referred to as exotic pests and comprise about 40% of the insect pests in the United States. Examples of introduced vegetable pests include the European corn borer, one of the most destructive insects in North America. To obtain the needed natural enemies, scientists turned to classical biological control. This is the practice of importing, and releasing for establishment, natural enemies to control an introduced (exotic) pest, although it is also practiced against native insect pests. The first step in the process is to determine the origin of the introduced pest and then collect appropriate natural enemies associated with the pest or closely related species. The natural enemy is then passed through a rigorous quarantine process, to ensure that no unwanted organisms (such as hyperparasitoids) are introduced, then they are mass produced, and released. Follow-up studies are conducted to determine if the natural enemy becomes successfully established at the site of release, and to assess the long-term benefit of its presence.

There are many examples of successful classical biological control programs. One of the earliest successes was with the cottony cushion scale, a pest that was devastating the California citrus industry in the late 1800s. A predatory insect, the vedalia beetle, and a parasitoid fly were introduced from Australia. Within a few years the cottony cushion scale was completely controlled by these introduced natural enemies.

Damage from the alfalfa weevil, a serious introduced pest of forage, was substantially reduced by the introduction of several natural enemies. About 20 years after their introduction, the population of weevils, in the alfalfa area treated for alfalfa weevil in the northeastern United States, was reduced by 75 percent. A small wasp, Trichogramma ostriniae, introduced from China to help control the European corn borer, is a recent example of a long history of classical biological control efforts for this major pest. Many classical biological control programs for insect pests and weeds are under way across the United States and Canada. The population of

Levuana Moth, a serious coconut pest in Fiji was brought under control by a classical biological control program in the 1920s.

Classical biological control is long lasting and inexpensive. Other than the initial costs of collection, importation, and rearing, little expense is incurred. When a natural enemy is successfully established it rarely requires additional input and it continues to kill the pest with no direct help from humans and at no cost. Unfortunately, classical biological control does not always work. It is usually most effective against exotic pests and less so against native insect pests. The reasons for failure are often not known, but may include the release of too few individuals, poor adaptation of the natural enemy to environmental conditions at the release location, and lack of synchrony between the life cycle of the natural enemy and host pest.

Biological control proves to be very successful economically, and even when the method has been less successful, it still produces a benefit-to-cost ratio of 11:1. One study has estimated that a successful biocontrol program returns £32 in benefits for each £1 invested in developing and implementing the program, i. e. , a 32:1 benefit-to-cost ratio. The same study had shown that an average chemical pesticide program only returned profits in the ratio of 13:1.

In some cases, biological pest control can have unforeseen negative results that could outweigh all benefits. For example, when the mongoose was introduced to Hawaii in order to control the rat population, it preyed on the endemic birds of Hawaii, especially their eggs, more often than it ate the rats.

Cane toads (Bufo marinus) were introduced to Australia in the 1930s in a failed attempt to control the cane beetle, a pest of sugar cane crops. 102 toads were obtained from Hawaii and bred in captivity to increase their numbers until they were released into the sugar cane fields of the tropic north in 1935. It was later discovered that the toads can't jump very high so they did not eat the cane beetles which stayed up on the upper stalks of the cane plants. The toads soon became very numerous and out-competed native species and became very harmful to the Australian environment, including being very toxic to would-be predators such as native snakes.

译文摘要

生物防治是一种人类利用害虫天敌减少害虫数量的有效方法。害虫的天敌，也被称作生物控制剂，包括食肉动物、拟寄生物和病原体。目前有三种生物防治的基本方法：保护害虫天敌、传统生物防治和增加害虫天敌。

保护害虫的天敌也许是居家生活和园艺工作中最重要和最常用的生物防治方法。害虫的天敌无处不在，它们适应着周围环境和捕食目标，所以对它们的保护工作既简单便捷又行之有效。但这些自然形成的生物防治往往很容易受到农药使用的影响，所以防止害虫天敌的意外灭绝就简称保护。

传统生物防治是人为地把害虫天敌引入到一个新的地区，这通常是政府部门应用的生物防治方法。由于害虫与其天敌之间的复杂关系，当一种外来害虫来到一个新的地域，科学家们就要采用传统生物防治方法来抵御外来害虫。首先科学家们要弄清外来害虫的来源，然后确认其天敌，天敌要经过严格的检疫，接着被大量繁殖后释放。传统生物防治收效时间长而且很经济，除了初期收集、引进、繁殖外来害虫天敌以外不需要任何其他费用。当一个害虫天敌种群被成功建立后，就不需要再投入资本和人力。但是，传统生物防治只对外来害虫发挥作用，而对本地害虫收效甚微。其中的原因可能包括释放种群有限，天敌对环境的适应性差以及害虫和天敌生命周期不一致，等等。

虽然生物防治还有其缺陷性，但实践证明它的收益比率还是比使用化学农药高得多。一项研究预测每投入 1 英镑来发展实施生物治虫工程，可以获得 32 英镑收益，即生物治虫的收益与成本比率是 32 比 1。

当然也有些使用不当的例子，在这种情况下生物治虫就会产生不可预见的消极作用。

重点词汇

alfalfa *n.* ［植］紫花苜蓿	antagonist *n.* 敌手，对手
aphid *n.* ［动］蚜虫	augmentation *n.* 增加
be susceptible to *v.* 对……敏感，可被……	biocontrol 生物防除
citrus *n.* 柑橘类的植物	cushion *n.* 垫子，软垫，衬垫 *v.* 加衬垫
debilitate *vt.* 使衰弱，使虚弱	eradication *n.* 连根拔除，根除
exotic *adj.* 异国情调的，外来的，奇异的	fungi 真菌类（包括霉菌，食用伞菌，酵母菌等）
herbivore *n.* 草食动物	hover *v.* 盘旋
lacewing *n.* 草蜻蛉	locale *n.* 现场，场所
mongoose *n.* ［动］猫鼬	parasitoid *n.* 拟寄生物（尤指胡蜂）*adj.* 拟寄生物的
pathogens *n.* ［物］病原体	pesticide *n.* 杀虫剂
predator *n.* 掠夺者，食肉动物	prey *n.* 被掠食者，牺牲者，掠食 *vi.* 捕食，掠夺，折磨

quarantine *n.* 检疫，隔离；（政治或商业上的）封锁；检疫期间	synchrony [物] 同步（性）
toad *n.* [动] 蟾蜍，癞蛤蟆；讨厌的家伙	wasp *n.* 黄蜂

Passage 3 香蕉进化

2008年5月22日中国大陆、澳大利亚考场中出现

背景知识

香蕉出现的时间很早，并历经了较复杂的进化过程。原来的香蕉因为种子太多几乎不能吃，后来某一种香蕉逐渐变成了普遍种植的物种。但科学家认为种类单一化对香蕉不利，于是杂交香蕉出现了。早期的香蕉比现在普遍种植的香蕉甜，但容易染上某种疾病。这种疾病影响土地，并且持续时间很长，所以那种香蕉基本被淘汰了。经过基因改造后，现在普遍种植的香蕉有抵抗某种病虫害的基因。如今，香蕉在很多国家是一种普遍流行的水果，而对某些贫穷的原产国来说，香蕉就是他们的粮食。

真题题源

Bananas are the world's favorite fruit and many nations depend on banana trees to supply its citizens with this delicious food product to save them from famines. Bananas are available on markets year round and are rich in vitamins, minerals, and fiber, containing only small hollow seed that are infertile. Ornamental bananas, "Musa ensete" and "Musa nana" are inedible but in high demand for landscaping.

India is the world's largest producer of bananas and Alexander the Great found them growing there in 327 BC, when he conquered India. Soldiers of Alexander the Great returned to Greece and Persia with bulbs from banana plants, "Musa accuminata," where they were distributed and planted.

Antonius Musa, the personal physician of Augustus Caesar, imported the first banana trees, "Musa accuminata", to Rome from Africa in 63 BC. Later, slaves from Portugal brought bananas to Europe from Africa in the early 1400's. Even though the banana is believed to have originated in India (Eastern Asia), it was established in Africa and Europe as a staple food product many centuries ago and came into North America through Spanish missionaries. Those first bananas that people knew in antiquity were not sweet like the bananas we know today, but were cooking bananas or plantain bananas with a starchy taste and composition. The bright yellow bananas that we know today were discovered as a mutation from the plantain banana by a Jamaican, Jean Francois Poujot, in the year 1836. He found this hybrid mutation growing in his banana tree plantation with a sweet flavor and a yellow color instead of green or red, and not requiring cooking like the plantain banana. The rapid establishment of this new exotic fruit was welcomed worldwide, and it was massively grown for world markets.

Bananas are the world's best selling fruit, outselling both apples and citrus; each American is estimated to eat 25 pounds of fruit every day. The "Cavendish" banana is the most popular banana in the United States and over 400 cultivars of bananas are available on world markets. The leaves of banana trees are used as wrappers for steaming other foods inside, and the banana flower is also edible.

Each banana comes from a flower maturing into groups of 10-20 bananas called "hands" that circle the stalk, which collectively is called a "bunch". The bananas can require one year to mature after flowering in the field, and then the mother banana plant dies. The plant is restored the following season by offshoots from the mother plant. An original cluster of banana trees can grow continuously for 100 years, but are generally replaced in banana tree plantations after 25 years. Bananas ripen best and develop more sweetness, if the bunch is removed from the tree, allowing the fruit to ripen off the tree in a shady place to slowly ripen.

The banana tree can grow up to 30 feet tall, and the trunk of the tree grows to a width at the base of over 1 foot. The trunk of the banana plant is made of overlapping sheaths and stems with new growth emerging from the center of the trunk. The size of bananas can range from a fruit the size of a football to one as small as a child's finger. Some bananas taste sweet, some starchy and some ornamental bananas are loaded with large seed and are considered inedible. The color of ripe bananas can range from green, orange, brown, yellow, or variegated with white stripes.

Most banana trees available today are grown from "mother" bulbs by taking offsets that form shoots. Those can be replanted to multiply and increase a banana tree plantation. These banana sprouts that form at the base of the "mother" bulb can be shipped around the world to many countries, being almost genetically identical to the original banana plant parent of 10,000 years ago that mutated and stopped making seed and became the first naturally evolved hybrid.

Bananas are the largest exported fruit in the world, registering sales of 12 billion dollars a year for Chiquita and Dole. These bananas are imported into the United States from companies and plantations growing banana trees in India, South America and Africa. Many third-world countries depend on the production of bananas to feed them as a major food staple, where they eat bananas 3 meals a day. Bananas are rich in sugars such as sucrose, glucose, and fructose, as well as fiber and special minerals containing potassium, phosphorus, magnesium and iron. Bananas contain tryptophan, a body protein that is converted to serotonin, a mood enhancer. They also are high in Vitamin A, Vitamin B_6, Vitamin B_{12}, and Vitamin C. Doctors claim that eating bananas can cut the risk of sudden stroke by 40%, as published in *the New England Journal of Medicine*.

译文摘要

香蕉富含维他命、矿物质和纤维素，是一种广受世界人民喜爱的水果。

印度是世界香蕉的最大产区。公元前 327 年，亚历山大大帝攻克印度后在那里发现了香蕉，他的士兵将香蕉球茎带回希腊和波斯。

公元前 63 年，凯撒大帝的私人医生穆萨把香蕉从非洲引入罗马。15 世纪早期，葡萄牙的奴隶将香蕉从非洲带回欧洲。随后，西班牙的传教士又将它带到北美。虽然香蕉起源于印度，但是几个世纪以前香蕉已经成为非洲和欧洲的主要农产品。

古代的香蕉没有今天的香蕉甜，是有生淀粉味道和成分的煮食蕉或车前草。现在鲜黄的香蕉是一个牙买加人（Jean Francois Poujiot）在 1836 年发现的车前草的变种香蕉。他发现这种变种香蕉有甜甜的味道，颜色由原来的绿色或红色变成了黄色，而且不需要像车前草那样煮食。他的这一新品种很受欢迎并被广泛种植。

香蕉一跃超过苹果和柑橘，成为世界上最畅销的水果。在世界市场上 400 多个香蕉品种中 Cavendish 香蕉是最受美国人欢迎的。

香蕉树开花以后需要一年的时间长成成熟的香蕉，接着母体枯萎。在下一个生长周期，新的枝条从母体中长出新的香蕉树。香蕉树一般能生长 100 年，但是，种植者一般 25 年就重新种植香蕉树。

香蕉树能长到 30 英尺高，它的树干宽度能超过一英尺。香蕉的个头可以大到像橄榄球，小到像婴儿的手指。一些香蕉吃起来是甜的，一些有生淀粉味，还有一些能生成大种子的装饰性香蕉是不能吃的。在香蕉成熟过程中，它的颜色由绿色变到橙色、棕色，最后到黄色或带有白条纹的杂色。

今天大多数的香蕉树都是从母体的球茎中长出，这利于扩大香蕉的种植。这些来自于母体的香蕉芽可以被运到许多国家，它们和 1 万年前首次变异成的没有种子的杂