大学英语阅读 官能训练

快速阅读篇

大学英语阅读 官能训练丛书

COLLEGE ENGLISH READING ORGANIC **FUNCTION TRAINING** SERIES liu Ying Guo Jing Sun Wenlong 刘 荣 郭 婧 孙文龙

中国书籍出版社

另辟蹊径话阅读

大学英语阅读官能训练丛书之

快速阅读篇

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前 言

在任何一种语言的教学过程中,阅读能力是诸多语用能力之中 最重要的因素之一,大学英语也是如此。这一点,从大学英语四、六 级考试中阅读占分数比重最多中可见一斑。

阅读是一种获取信息的过程,它是人的心智、语言认知能力、整体知识结构相互综合作用的过程。以往的阅读训练书籍总是单纯地从语言的角度出发,就语言现象本身的分析来谈论阅读技巧,且往往谈的过于笼统,这未免给学生以抽象之感。本书从教育心理学的角度出发,结合语言认知的特点,提出了"官能训练"的理念。所谓的"官能训练",即通过语言手段训练人的感官对语言的认知能力,亦即训练人的第二信号系统对英语的适应能力,从而达到训练阅读能力的目的。同时,本套丛书也综合了许多具体可行的阅读技巧及应试技巧,且在讨论这些技巧时避免了以往阅读指导书籍的过于笼统或支离破碎的缺点。我们有理由相信本套丛书对于提高读者的阅读能力及阅读应试能力都会有很大的帮助。

本丛书的编著者都是多年从事大学英语教学的教师,他们对于英语阅读教学都有着独到的见解,而且在实际的教学中取得了很大的成就。同时,他们都是对英语测试有较深的研究,对英语阅读测试有深入的了解。相信他们的建议一定会使读者受益匪浅。

"一目十行,过目不忘"恐怕是人人都向往的本领;"我能'一目十行、过目不忘'吗?",这也是每个人常问自己的问题。答案就在《快速阅读篇》,人人都能够"一目十行,过目不忘",从人的生理角度来看,每个人都能达到这种境界,我们所缺少的只是本书将要介绍的一些技巧。快速阅读篇——本丛书的第二本,主要介绍快速阅读的一些

基本技能和技巧,结合人的生理基础及一些成功经验,目的是使读者了解一些快速阅读的基本知识,掌握快速阅读的基本技能,并着重介绍了这些技能的实际运用,以期使读者的快速阅读能力有较大的提高。

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引论

一、时代要求

当今世界是一个知识爆炸的时代。现代科学技术正在以惊人的速度向前发展,知识的更新也越来越快,我们同世界各国的科学文化交流也日趋频繁,浩如烟海的科技情报资料亟待我们去阅读、翻译和介绍。新形势要求我们用有限的时间,以尽可能快的速度,阅读尽可能多的外文书刊。因此在英语教学中培养学生速读技能是一项不容忽视的任务。

由于客观形势的要求,近年来我国选派了大批大学生、研究生和 科技人员出国留学进修,他们都必须通过某种形式的英语考试。各 种英语水平测试都要求考生具有较快的阅读理解能力。如:

- (一) GRE (Graduate Record Examination)考试。这是许多美国大学研究生院对申请人学者所提出的英语考试项目之一。其第一部分 Verbal Ability(语言能力)的主要目的就是测试考生的阅读能力。这一部分要求考生在 50 分钟内阅读完 21000 个印刷符号 (约 4100 个单词)的材料,并从供选择的答案中选答 40 个问题。如果每个问题(包括 4 到 5 个供选择的答案)有 30 个词左右,则考生的阅读速度应达到 106WPM(words per minute)。
- (二) EPT (English Proficiency Test)考试。这是我国教育部试行的一种用以选拔出国进修生(visiting scholars)的英语水平测试。其中有一部分是 Vocabulary and Reading Comprehension(词汇与阅读理解),用于测试考生掌握的词汇量和阅读非专业性材料的能力。这一部分要求考生在 60 分钟内阅读完 7,500 个印刷符号(约 1,500 单词)的材料,并从供选择的答案中选答 60 个问题。如果平均每个问题(包括供选择的 4 个答案)有 30 个词,则考生的阅读速度应达到

55 WPM_o

(三)TOEFL(Test of English as a Foreign Language)考试。这是我国学生报考美国大学大多要经过的一种英语水平测试。其中第三部分 Reading Comprehension and Vocabulary(阅读理解与词汇)要求考生在 55 分钟内阅读完约 15000 个印刷符号(约 2800 个单词)的材料,并从供选择的答案中选答 60 个问题,对考生的阅读速度要求比EPT 略高。

以上几种考试的共同点是对时间要求比较严格,不达到每分钟 100 个词(100WPM~110WPM),就无法在规定的时间里做完全部 试题。

即使不参加上述出国留学生英语考试,国内一些英语考试也要求达到一定的阅读理解速度,所以提高阅读理解速度,是我们外语教学的重任。

二、奋斗目标

我们说的阅读速度,是指在较好的理解基础上的阅读速度,一般 应答对 70%以上的问题。离开较好地理解原文去谈速度是没有意 义的。

资料表明,经过训练的以英语为母语的美国人的阅读速度可以达到 350~600WPM。我国理工科大学生的英语阅读速度训练目前似乎应以 150~200WPM 为奋斗目标(现教学大纲要求 80WPM)。教学中的阅读速度一般高于实际阅读速度,因为实际阅读材料中生词多一些,难度也大一些。如果只作略读,将理解要求降低至 50%,阅读速度还可提高 40%左右。

三、前提条件

要实现速读,必须首先有较好的语言基础,有足够的词汇量。如果生词太多,是无法进行速读的。因此在作教学性快速阅读时,阅读材料难度应适宜。读者在作实际快速阅读时,应有 5000 词汇量,否

则即使学会了一些速读技巧,也无法达到速读要求。

四、精读与泛读

英国哲学家培根说: "Some books are to be tasted, others to be swallowed, and some few to be chewed and digested."意思是说,书有可浅尝者,有可吞食者,而少数则必须细细咀嚼和消化。前两种读书法可理解为泛读,最后一种属于精读。精读要求对原文从语音、语法、词汇、中心思想和写作特点等作全面的分析,可谓面面俱到,阅读速度就只能放慢。泛读则不必作全面要求,只要把意思看懂就行,一般要求理解70%以上,阅读速度则要尽可能快一些。

对我国学生来说,无论是精读还是泛读,都存在一个如何提高速度的问题。速读训练当然要全力抓高速这一头,因为有了很高的泛读速度,再放慢一点作精读,就容易办到了。

五、内容导读

速读作为一种理论来说并不深奥,但有些介绍速读的册子只把 道理方法交代了一番之后,就向读者推出大量的阅读材料,往往理论 无法用于实践,不易接受。本书目的在于既提供系统的速读理论,又 用大量的例证和练习,力图循序渐进地引导读者进入一个崭新的境界,从而达到掌握速读技巧的目的。

为了达到理想的训练效果,最好从第一章起顺次进行。经过每一章的学习和训练,收到一定的效果,那么最后总的效果也会是使人满意的。在训练的过程中,应自始至终计时。只有这样才能突出速读的"速"字。"速"字是本书的主旨。

我们期望,通过本书的学习和在本书指导下的实践,学生的阅读速度,能从原来的低于 80WPM 的水平,提高到 150WPM 以上,无生词(或生词不超过 1%)的阅读速度达 200WPM 以上。

六、读速测试

提高学生的有效阅读速度,或者说阅读效率,取决于两个变量:阅读速度和理解程度(即答对问题的百分比)。为了便于学生和自学者检查自己的阅读效率是否提高,我们在本书中准备了一些读速测试,并设计了一个测试格式供读者使用。

在进行读速测试时,首先要知道全篇词数(符号为W)以及阅读时间(符号为M)。然后用W/M这个公式算出阅读速度,即每分钟所读词数(符号为WPM)。在回答测试中所附的问题之后,根据书后的参考答案,核算出答对问题的百分比。最后计算阅读效率。

阅读速度和答对问题的百分比相乘,可以大致推算出阅读效率:

高阅读效率: 200 WPM

× 80 (%)

160 WPM(%)

低阅读速度: 100WPM

× 50 (%)

50 WPM (%)

读速测试之一 The Methods of Science

Observation and experiment

. 4 .

The methods used by working scientists have evolved from a separation of methods used in ordinary life, particularly in the manual trades. First you have a look at the job and then you try something and see if it will work. In more learned language, we begin with observations and follow with experiments. Now everyone, whether he is a scientist or not, observes; but the important things are what to observe

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and how to observe them. It is in this sense that the scientist differs from the artist. The artist observes in order to transform what he sees through his own experience and feeling into some new and evocative creation. The scientist observes in order to find things and relations that are as far as possible independent of his own sentiments. This does not mean that he should have no conscious aim. Far from it: as the history of science shows, some objective, often a practical one, is almost an essential requirement for the discovery of new things. What it does mean is that in order to achieve its goal in the nonhuman world, deaf to the most emotional appeal, desire must be subordinated to fact and law.

Classification and measurement

Two techniques have in time grown out of naive observation: classification and measurement. Both are, of course, much older than conscious science, but they are now used in quite a special way. Classification has become in itself the first step towards understanding new groups of phenomena. They have to be put in order before anything can be done with them. Measurement is only one further stage of that putting in order. Counting is the ordering of one collection against another in the last resort against the fingers. Measuring is counting the number of a standard collection that balances or lines up with the quality that is to be weighed or measured. It is measurement that links science with mathematics on the one hand, and with commercial and mechanical practice on the other. It is by measurement that numbers and forms enter science, and it is also by measurement that it is possible to indicate precisely what has to be done to reproduce given conditions and obtain a desired result.

It is here that the active aspect of science comes into the picture

— that characterized by the word "experiment". After all, as the word indicates, it is only a trial, and early experiments indeed were fullscale trials. Once measurement was introduced it was possible not only to reproduce trials accurately, but also to take the somewhat daring step of carrying them out on a small scale. It is that small-scale or model experiment that is the essential feature of modern science. By working on a small scale far more trials can be carried out at the same time and far more cheaply. Moreover, by the use of mathematics, far more valuable results can be obtained from the many small-scale experiments than from one or two elaborate and costly full-scale trials. All experiments boil down to two very simple operations: taking apart and putting together again; or in scientific language, analysis and synthesis. Unless you can take a thing or a process to bits you can do nothing with it but observe it as an undivided whole. Unless you can put the pieces together again and make the whole thing work there is no way of knowing whether you have introduced something new or left something out in your analysis.

Apparatus

In order to carry out these operations, scientists have, over the course of centuries, evolved a complete set of material tools of their own—the apparatus of science. Now apparatus is not anything mysterious. It is simply the tools of ordinary life turned to very special purposes. The crucible is just a pot, the forceps a pair of tongs. In turn, the apparatus of the scientist often comes back into practical life in the form of useful instruments or implements. It is not very long, for instance, since the modern television set was the cathode-ray tube, a purely scientific piece of apparatus devised to measure the mass of the electron. Scientific apparatus fulfills either of two major functions: as

scientific instrument, such as telescopes or microscopes, it can be used to extend and make more precise our sensory perception of the world; as scientific tools, such as micromanipulators, stills, or incubators, it can be used to extend in a controlled way, our motor manipulation of the things around us.

Laws, hypotheses, and theories

From the results of experiments, or rather from the mixture of operation and observation that constitutes experiments, comes the whole body of scientific knowledge. But the body is not simply a list of such results. If it were, science would soon become as unwieldy and as difficult to understand as the Nature from which it started. Before these results, can be of any use and in many cases before they can even be obtained, it is necessary to tie them together, so to speak, in bundles, to group them and to relate them to each other, and this is the function of the logical part of science. The arguments of science, the use of mathematical symbols and formulas, in earlier stages merely the use of names, lead to the continuous creation of the more or less coherent edifice of scientific laws, principles, hypotheses, and theories. And that is not the end; it is here that science is continually beginning, for, arising from such hypotheses and theories, there come the practical applications of science. These in turn, if they work, and even more often if they do not, give rise to new observations, new experiments, and new theories. Experiment, interpretation, application, all march on together and between them make up the effective, live, and social body of science

The language of science

In the process of observation, experiment, and logical Interpreta-

tion there has grown up the language, or rather, the languages, of science that have become in the course of time as essential to it as the material apparatus. Like the apparatus, these languages are not intrinsically strange; they derive from common usage and often come back to it again. A cycle was once kuklos, a wheel, but it lived many centuries as an abstract term for recurring phenomena before it came back to earth as a bicycle. The enormous convenience of making use of quite ordinary words in the forgotten languages of Greece and Rome was to avoid confusion with common meanings. The Greek scientists were under the great disadvantage of not having a word - in Greek - for it. They had to express themselves in a round about way in plain language - to talk about the submaxillary gland as "the acorn - like lumps under the jaw." But these practices, though they helped the scientists to discuss more clearly and briefly, had the disadvantage of building up a series of special languages or jargons that effectively; and sometimes deliberately, kept science away from the ordinary man. This barrier, however, is by no means necessary. Scientific language is too useful to unclear but it can and will infiltrate into common speech once scientific ideas become as familiar adjuncts of everyday life as scientific gadgets.

读完全文之后,将所花的阅读时间填入问答题后面的阅读速度 计算表中。然后回答下面的问题。

Questions

Decide whether the following statements are true or false according to the text:

1. Scientific methods were largely based on the observation of manual trades.

True False

2. The scientist observes and uses his own sentiments in order to find

relationships.	True False
3. Observation has become in itself the	
first step toward understanding new	
groups of phenomena.	True False
4. Science and mathematics are linked	
by order, not by measurement.	True False
5. Early experiments were done as full -	
scale trials.	True False
6. The small-scale experiment is the	
essential feature of modern science.	True False
7. All experiments boiled down to three	
simple operations,	True False
8. The one basis for all experiments is	
synthesis.	True False
9. Scientific apparatus is derived from	
and is based upon the needs of science.	True False
10. The body of scientific knowledge is	
the product of operation and observation.	True False
11. Scientific laws and theories are claimed	
to be the end or goal of science.	True False
12. Scientific hypotheses, but not the	
applications of science, give rise to	
new observations and experiments.	True False
13. The language of science derives from	
common usage.	True False
14. The word kuklos has been applied to	
nonrecurring phenomena.	True False
15. Scientific language has kept science	
away from the ordinary man.	True False
	. 0 .

答完题后,对照书后的答案,将答对的百分数填入下表,并按引 论中提到的方法计算阅读效率。

全文词数: 1140 W

阅读时间: M

阅读速度: WPM

答对问题: %

阅读效率: WPM×%

(阅读效率:阅读速度 WPM×答对问题%)