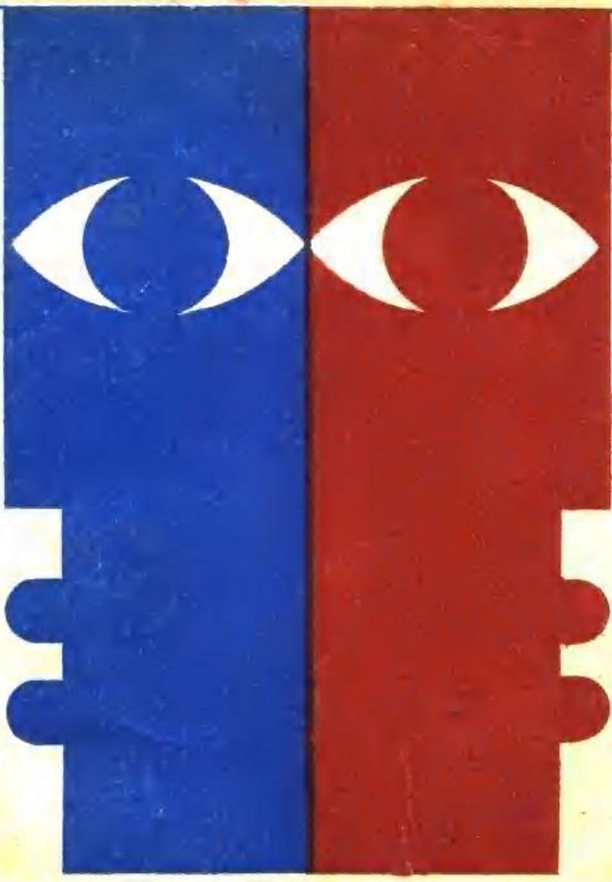
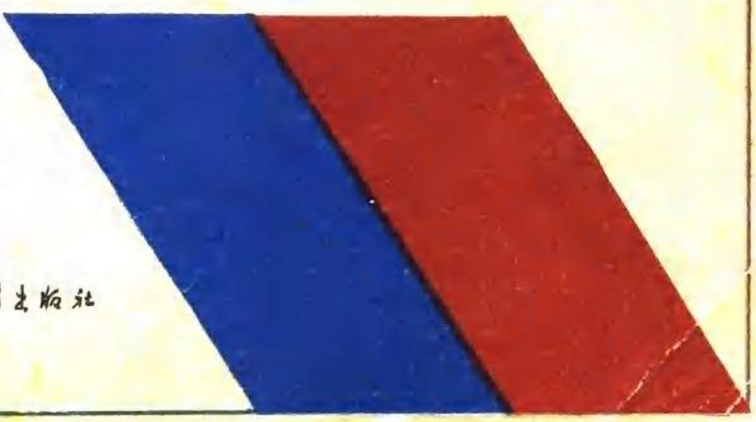


英语快速阅读教程



上海外语教育出版社

英语快速阅读教程

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前　　言

《英语快速阅读教程》是为培养我国大学高年级学生速读技能而编写的一本教材，既可供课堂讲授，作正式教材或辅助教材，也适宜于广大读者，为了需要与兴趣，选取书中课文钻研，完成各章节的练习，作自学英语的参考书来使用。

快速阅读是一种技能，所以本书除介绍一些基本理论知识外，还附有大量练习，与每一个单元的学习紧密地联系在一起。同时，由于快速阅读必须是在正确理解原文的前提下的阅读，而正确的理解，对我国学生来说，常常是遇到的生词较多，如果是翻检词典，查不胜查，如果是参加考试或处于某种场合，根本没有词典好查，所以本书分出几个单元，着重地介绍了猜词义法，并结合课文的需要，为此编写了相当一部分练习。这类练习形式多种多样，力求带有启发性，书后附有参考答案，读者尽可加以充分利用，进行边学边练，这是很重要的，也可以说，快速阅读技能的培养，在很大程度上，取决于对这类练习的纯熟操作。

本书曾在湖南大学外语系试用一年，时间短促，一定会有不少疏漏，希望读者指正。

编者

1985年9月

湖南大学的林汝昌教授对本书提出了宝贵的意见，周佩君老师提供了有用的资料，还有宋禄之老师也出过主意，谨此致谢。

目　录

引　　论

一、快速阅读是时代的要求

当今世界正处在知识爆炸的时代。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急待我们去阅读、翻译、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：

(1) GRE (Graduate Record Examination) 考试。这是许多美国大学研究生院对申请入学者所提出的英语考试项目之一。其第一部份 Verbal Ability (语言能力)的主要目的就是测试考生的阅读能力。这一部份要求考生在 50 分钟内阅读完 21,000 个印刷符号 (约4,100 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 106 WPM (words per minute)。

(2) 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。其中有一部份是 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。这一部份要求考生在 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。*

(3) 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。其中第三部份 Reading Comprehension and Vocabulary(阅读理解与词汇)要求考生在 55 分钟内阅读完约15,000个印刷符号(约 2,800 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作完全部试题。

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，是我们理工科外语教学的重任。

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。离开较好的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—600 WPM。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。

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* 按：1985 年 5 月在上海还试行了 VST (Visiting Scholar Test) 考试，其中阅读要求大致与 EPT 同。

三、快速阅读的条件

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5,000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。因此速读训练，作为一门系统的课程，不宜过早开设。

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，有些书浅尝即可，另一些书要大口吞下，而少数则必需细细咀嚼和消化。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、如何使用本书

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，不易为学生接受。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，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，那末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。

第四单元到第十二单元不直接讨论如何提高视读速度，但有助于迅速理解所读内容。在作提高理解力训练时，阅读速度可能暂时下降。为了遏制这种下降的趋势，教师应布置学生在课外按一至三单元中提出的速读技巧，每天训练视读 30—50 分钟，继续提高成组视读能力，使目光一瞥之下所捕捉到的词数不断增加。

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。再隔两年，这个速度指标还可定得更高些。

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 $\frac{W}{M}$ 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：

$$\begin{array}{r} 200\ \text{WPM} \\ \times\ 80\ \ (\%) \\ \hline 160\ \text{WPM}(\%) \end{array}$$

低阅读效率： 100 WPM

× 50 (%)

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50 WPM(%)

读速测试之一

The Methods of Science

Observation and experiment

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 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 quantity 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 full-scale 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 experi ments 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 instuments, 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 micro-manipulators, 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 interpretation, 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 roundabout 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 unlearn, 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

答完题后，对照书后答案，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×答对问题%

(阅读效率：阅读速度WPM×答对问题%)