高等院校特色课程英语系列教材

总主编　傅广生　张树德　梁正宇

英语泛读教程

主　编　于兴亨　杨新宇　杨　泓

4

Extensive Reading

苏州大学出版社
Soochow University Press

高等院校特色课程英语系列教材

● 总主编　傅广生　张树德　梁正宇 ●

● 主　编　于兴亭　杨新宇　杨　泓

● 副主编　（按拼音顺序排列）

戴锋慧　丁爱群　丁后银

沈　斌　王　刚　王静姝

张丽华

英语泛读教程

4

Extensive Reading

苏州大学出版社
Soochow University Press

图书在版编目(CIP)数据

英语泛读教程. 4/于兴亭,杨新宇,杨泓主编. —苏州:苏州大学出版社,2009.8
(高等院校特色课程英语系列教材)
ISBN 978-7-81137-343-1

Ⅰ. 英… Ⅱ. ①于…②杨…③杨… Ⅲ. 英语—阅读教学—高等学校—教材 Ⅳ. H319.4

中国版本图书馆 CIP 数据核字(2009)第 152722 号

英语泛读教程 4
于兴亭　杨新宇　杨　泓　主编
责任编辑　杨　华

苏州大学出版社出版发行
(地址:苏州市干将东路 200 号　邮编:215021)
丹阳市兴华印刷厂印装
(地址:丹阳市胡桥镇　邮编:212313)

开本 787mm×1 092mm　1/16　印张 72.5(共四册)　字数 1 610 千
2009 年 8 月第 1 版　2009 年 8 月第 1 次印刷
ISBN 978-7-81137-343-1　定价:140.00 元
(共四册)

苏州大学版图书若有印装错误,本社负责调换
苏州大学出版社营销部　电话:0512-67258835
苏州大学出版社网址　http://www.sudapress.com

前　言

根据教育部2006年颁布的《高等学校英语专业英语教学大纲》，我们编写了这套《英语泛读教程》系列教材，本教材适用于高等学校英语专业一、二年级泛读(阅读)课教学，也适用于同等程度的英语自学者。

本教材编写的目的在于传授学生有关的阅读理论与技巧，提升学生的英语阅读水平与理解能力，扩大词汇量，增加英语国家文化背景知识，为参加英语专业四、八级考试及其他形式英语考试奠定良好的基础。

本教材编写有如下几个主要特点。

第一，题材广泛，内容丰富，体裁多样。本系列教材的题材既关注了大学生活的有关方面，也涵盖了英语国家社会与文化的方方面面；既有人文知识方面的文献，也不乏科普常识方面的文章。教材选材注重时代感，集思想性、知识性、实用性和趣味性为一体，涉及历史、地理、政治、军事、法律、经济、科技、金融、宗教、体育、环保、能源、医药、食品、艺术、娱乐、休闲、旅游、风俗等各方面的内容。

第二，文章注重长度与难度的适切性，阅读量较适中。本系列教材的编写注重学习的规律性，所选文章由易到难，由浅入深，由短到长。而在阅读量的安排方面，遵循适中的原则，既不因太少而让学生感到吃不饱，也不因过量而使得学生产生厌烦情绪。文章长度从第1册的550至600词(每分钟阅读量为60词至80词)逐渐增加到第四册的1,500词左右(每分钟阅读量为180词)。

第三，读与写结合，读与说结合。每个单元的Text A与Text D部分除了安排阅读理解的练习之外，还适当地融入了写与说的训练，以期达到充分利用所学材料进行写与说等综合技能训练的目的。

第四，借助技巧指导阅读，通过实践强化理论。每册安排4个阅读技巧，每4个单元呈现1个阅读技巧，使得学生在理论与技巧的指导下进行实践。每4个单元话题与技巧的呈现顺序为：感性认识(非呈现技巧)→理性认识(呈现技巧)→训练与巩固(运用技巧进行训练与巩固)。第1册、第2册及第3册前半部分安排的是关于阅

读方面的基本技巧，第3册以训练英语专业四、八级考试的应试技巧为主，第4册前半部分也以综合技巧的训练为主，后半部分安排了大学英语六级考试仔细阅读与快速阅读题型的训练，可为参加大学英语六级考试的学生提供强化训练。

《英语泛读教程》全套共4册，每册16单元，每单元由Text A，Text B，Text C与Text D组成。其中Text A为主课文，Text B，Text C与Text D用于快速阅读训练。

本系列教材的编写与出版得到了苏州大学出版社的大力支持，苏州科技学院外国语学院宋更宇副教授、苏州大学外国语学院莫俊华博士等为此教材付出了辛劳，在此，我们谨致以诚挚的谢意！

由于编者水平与经验有限，书中一定会有许多不足之处，欢迎同行与广大读者批评指正。

编　者

2009年7月

Contents 目录

Unit One Exploration

Unit Two Advertisement

Unit Three Anti-terrorism

Unit Four War and Peace

Unit Five Modern Technology

Unit Six Journalism

Unit Seven Religion

Unit Eight Philosophy

Unit Nine War and War Strategy

Unit Ten Economy and Development

Unit Eleven Culture

Unit Twelve Life and Style

Unit Thirteen The Geographic

Unit Fourteen Health

Unit Fifteen Animals

Unit Sixteen Language and Linguistics

Unit One

Exploration

Text A

Jupiter[1] and Its Moons

Jupiter is the fifth planet from the sun and the largest planet within the solar system. It is two and a half times as massive as all of the other planets in our solar system combined. Jupiter is classified as a gas giant, along with Saturn, Uranus and Neptune. Together, these four planets are sometimes referred to as the Jovian planets, where *Jovian* is the adjectival form of Jupiter.

The planet was known by astronomers of ancient times and was associated with the mythology and religious beliefs of many cultures. The Romans named the planet after the Roman god Jupiter. When viewed from the earth, Jupiter can reach such an apparent magnitude that it is considered the third brightest object in the night sky after the Moon and Venus. (However, at certain points in its orbit, Mars can briefly exceed Jupiter's brightness.)

The planet Jupiter is primarily composed of hydrogen with a small proportion of helium[2]; it may also have a rocky core of heavier elements under high pressure. Because of its rapid rotation, Jupiter's shape is that of an oblate spheroid (it possesses a slight but noticeable bulge around the equator). The outer atmosphere is visibly segregated into several bands at different latitudes, resulting in turbulence and storms along their interacting boundaries. A prominent result is the Great Red Spot, a giant storm that is known to have existed since at least the 17th century. Surrounding the planet are a faint planetary ring system and a powerful magnetosphere[3].

Jupiter has been explored into on several occasions by robotic spacecraft, most notably during the early Pioneer and Voyager flyby[4] missions and later by the Galileo orbiter. The latest probe to visit Jupiter was the Pluto-bound New Horizon Spacecraft in late February 2007. The probe used the gravity from Jupiter to increase its speed and adjust its trajectory toward Pluto[5], thereby saving years of travel.

The planet Jupiter's four largest moons are called the Galilean satellites, after Italian astronomer Galileo Galilei, who observed them in 1610. The German astronomer Simon Marius claimed to have seen the moons around the same time, but he did not publish his observations and so Galileo is given the credit for their discovery. These large moons, named Io, Europa, Ganymede, and Callisto, are distinctive worlds each.

Io is the most volcanically active body in the solar system. Its surface is covered by sulfur in different colorful forms. As Io travels in its slightly elliptical orbit, Jupiter's immense gravity causes "tides" in the solid surface 100 meters (300 feet) high on Io, generating enough heat to give rise to the volcanic activity and drive off any water. Io's volcanoes are driven by hot silicate magma.

Europa's surface is mostly water ice, and there is evidence that it may be covering an ocean of water or slushy ice. Europa is thought to have twice as much water as does the earth. This moon intrigues astrobiologists because of its potential for having a "habitable zone". Life forms have been found thriving near subterranean volcanoes on the earth and in other extreme locations that may be analogues to what may exist on Europa.

Ganymede is the largest moon in the solar system (larger than the planet Mercury[6]), and is the only moon known to have its own internally generated magnetic field.

Callisto's surface is extremely heavily cratered and ancient—a record of events from the early history of the solar system. However, the very few small craters on Callisto indicate a small degree of current surface activity.

The interiors of Io, Europa, and Ganymede have a layered structure (as does the earth). Io has a core, and a mantle of at least partially molten rock, topped by a crust of solid rock coated with sulfur compounds. Europa and Ganymede both have a core; a rock envelope around the core; a thick, soft ice layer; and a thin crust of impure water ice. In the case of Europa, a global subsurface water layer probably lies just below the icy crust. Layering at Callisto is less well defined and appears to be mainly a mixture of ice and rock.

Three of the moons influence each other in an interesting way. Io is in a tug-of-war[7] with Ganymede and Europa, and Europa's orbital period (time to go around Jupiter once) is twice Io's period, and Ganymede's period is twice that of Europa. In other words, every time Ganymede goes around Jupiter once, Europa makes two orbits, and Io makes four orbits. The moons all keep the same face towards Jupiter as they orbit, meaning that each moon turns once on its axis for every orbit around Jupiter.

Pioneers 10 and 11 (1973 to 1974) and Voyager 1 and Voyager 2 (1979) offered striking color views and global perspectives from their flybys of the Jupiter system. From 1995 to 2003, the Galileo spacecraft made observations from repeated elliptical orbits around Jupiter, passing as low as 261 kilometers (about 162 miles) over the surfaces of the Galilean moons. These close approaches resulted in images with unprecedented detail of selected portions of the surfaces.

Close-up images taken by the Galileo spacecraft of portions of Europa's surface show places where ice has broken up and moved apart, and where liquid may have come from below and frozen smoothly on the surface. The low number of craters on Europa leads scientists to believe that a subsurface ocean has been present in recent geologic history and may still exist today. The heat needed to melt the ice in a place so far from the sun is thought to come from inside Europa, resulting primarily from the same type of tidal forces that drive Io's volcanoes.

(950 words)

From: http://www.smartcode.com/solar-system-uranus-3d-screensaver.html

Notes

[1] Jupiter:[天]木星。

[2] helium:氦。

[3] magnetosphere:(围绕地球或其他行星等天体的)磁层。

[4] flyby:经某点或某目标的飞行。

[5] Pluto:[天] 冥王星。

[6] Mercury:[天]水星。

[7] tug-of-war:拔河。

Exercises

I. Understanding of the man idea of the text.

What is the main idea of the text?

II. Comprehension of the text.

Directions: Check whether the following statements are true(T) or false(F).

1. The planet Jupiter was named after the Roman god by the astronomers of ancient times. ( )
2. The Great Red Spot results from the outer atmosphere being segregated into several bands at different latitudes. ( )
3. Galileo is given the credit for the discovery of Jupiter's four largest moons for he was the first person who observed them. ( )
4. Callisto is thought to have twice as much water as the earth does. ( )
5. The moons are all independent from each other. ( )

Text B

Astronomy

Astronomy is the scientific study of celestial objects (such as stars, planets, comets, and galaxies) and phenomena that originate outside the earth's atmosphere (such as the cosmic background radiation). It is concerned with the evolution, physics, chemistry, meteorology, and motion of celestial objects, as well as the formation and development of the universe.

Astronomy is one of the oldest sciences. Astronomers of early civilizations performed methodical observations of the night sky, and astronomical artifacts have been found from much earlier periods. However, the invention of the telescope was required before astronomy was able to develop into a modern science. Historically, astronomy has included disciplines as diverse as astrometry, celestial navigation, observational astronomy, the making of calendars, and even astrology, but professional astronomy is nowadays often considered to be synonymous with astrophysics[2]. Since the 20th century, the field of professional astronomy split into observational and theoretical branches. Observational astronomy is focused on acquiring and analyzing data, mainly using basic principles of physics. Theoretical astronomy is oriented towards the development of computer or analytical models to describe astronomical objects and phenomena. The two fields complement each other, with theoretical astronomy seeking to explain the observational results, and observations being used to confirm theoretical results.

Amateur astronomers have contributed to many important astronomical discoveries, and astronomy is one of the few sciences where amateurs can still play an active role, especially in the discovery and observation of transient phenomena.

Old or even ancient astronomy is not to be confused with astrology, the belief system which claims that human affairs are correlated with the positions of celestial objects. Although the two fields share a common origin and a part of their methods, they are distinct.

In early times, astronomy only comprised the observation and predictions of the motions of objects visible to the naked eye. In some locations, such as Stonehenge, early cultures assembled massive artifacts that likely had some astronomical purposes. In addition to their ceremonial uses, these observatories could be employed to determine the seasons, an important factor in knowing when to plant crops, as well as in understanding the length of the year.

Before tools such as the telescope were invented early study of the stars had to be conducted from the only vantage points available, namely tall buildings and high ground using the bare eye.

As civilizations developed, most notably in Mesopotamia[3], Greece, Egypt, Persia, Maya, India, China, and the Islamic world, astronomical observatories were assembled, and ideas on the nature of the universe began to be explored. Most of early astronomy actually consisted of mapping the positions of the stars and planets, a science now referred to as astrometry. From these observations, early ideas about the motions of the planets were formed, and the nature of the sun, the moon and the earth in the universe were explored philosophically. The earth was believed to be the center of the universe with the sun, the moon and the stars rotating around it. This is known as the geocentric model of the universe.

A few notable astronomical discoveries were made prior to the application of the telescope. For example, the obliquity of the ecliptic was estimated as early as 1000 BC by the Chinese. The Chaldeans[4] discovered that lunar eclipses recurred in a repeating cycle known as a saros. In the 2nd century BC, the size and distance of the Moon were estimated by Hipparchus.

During the Middle Ages, observational astronomy was mostly stagnant in medieval Europe, at least until the 13th century. However, observational astronomy flourished in the Islamic world and other parts of the world. Some of the prominent Arab astronomers, who made significant contributions to the science were Al-Battani and Thebit. Astronomers during that time introduced many Arabic names that are now used for individual stars.

During the Renaissance, Nicolaus Copernicus proposed a heliocentric model of the solar system. His work was defended, expanded upon, and corrected by Galileo Galilei and Johannes Kepler. Galileo innovated by using telescopes to enhance his observations.

Kepler was the first to devise a system that described correctly the details of the motion of the planets with the sun at the center. However, Kepler did not succeed in formulating a theory behind the laws he wrote down. It was left to Newton's invention of celestial dynamics and his law of gravitation to finally explain the motions of the planets. Newton also developed the reflecting telescope.

Further discoveries paralleled the improvements in the size and quality of the telescopes. More extensive star catalogues were produced by Lacaille. The astronomer William Herschel made a detailed catalog of nebulosity and clusters, and in 1781 discovered the planet Uranus, the first new planet found. The distance to a star was first announced in 1838 when the parallax of 61 Cygni[5] was measured by Friedrich Bessel[6].

During the 19th century, attention to the three body problem by Euler, Clairaut, and D'Alembert led to more accurate predictions about the motions of the moon and planets. This work was further refined by Lagrange and Laplace, allowing the masses of the planets and moons to be estimated from their perturbations[7].

Significant advances in astronomy came about with the introduction of new technology, including the spectroscope and photography. Fraunhofer[8] discovered about 600 bands in the spectrum of the sun in 1814 - 1815, which, in 1859, Kirchhoff[9] ascribed to the presence of different elements. Stars were proven to be similar to the earth's own sun, but with a wide range of temperatures, masses, and sizes.

The existence of the earth's galaxy, the Milky Way, as a separate group of stars, was only proved in the 20th century, along with the existence of "external" galaxies, and soon after, the expansion of the universe, seen in the recession of most galaxies from us. Modern astronomy has also discovered many exotic objects such as quasars, pulsars, blazars, and radio galaxies, and has used these observations to develop physical theories which describe some of these objects in terms of equally exotic objects such as black holes and neutron stars. Physical cosmology made huge advances during the 20th century, with the model of the Big Bang[10] heavily supported by the evidence provided by astronomy and physics, such as the cosmic microwave background radiation, Hubble's law, and cosmological abundances of elements.

(1,040 words)

From: http://www.sciencedaily.com/articles/a/astronomy.htm

Notes

[1] celestial: 天的,天空的,天上的。

[2] astrophysics: 天体物理学。

[3] Mesopotamia: 美索不达米亚(西南亚地区),亦称两河流域,即底格里斯和幼发拉底两河流域平原。

[4] Chaldean: 迦勒底人(与巴比伦人血缘相近的闪米特人)。

[5] Cygni: Cygnns(天鹅号座)的所有格。

[6] Friedrich Bessel: 贝塞尔(1784—1846),德国天文学家和数学家,测出天鹅座 61 号星的距离。

[7] perturbation: [天]摄动。

[8] Fraunhofer: Joseph von, 夫琅和费(1787—1826),德国物理学家,天体分光学创始人,改进了消色差望远镜,发明衍射光栅,率先研究太阳光谱中的暗线,奠定了光谱学的基础。

[9] Kitchhoff: Gustav Robert, 基尔霍夫(1824—1887),德国物理学家,与 R.W.Bunsen 一起确立光谱分析理论,发现基尔霍夫定律,解释光谱中的夫琅和费线。

[10] the Big Bang: 创世大爆炸。

Exercises

Ⅰ. Understanding of the main idea of the text.

The main idea of the text is ______________________________.

II. Comprehension of the text.

Directions: Answer the following questions.

1. What made astronomy be able to develop into a modern science?
2. What are the two branches of professional astronomy?
3. How did people study stars before tools such as the telescope were invented?
4. Was Kepler the first one to explain the motions of the planets?
5. List some significant advances in astronomy with the introduction of new technology.

Text C

Egyptian Pyramids

By the time of the early dynastic period of Egyptian history, those with sufficient means were buried in bench-like structures known as mastabas[1]. The first historically documented Egyptian pyramid is attributed to the architect Imhotep, who planned what Egyptologists believe to be a tomb for the pharaoh Djozer. Imhotep may have been the first to conceive the notion of stacking mastabas on top of each other—creating an edifice composed of a number of "steps" that decreased in size towards its apex. The result was the Step Pyramid of Djozer—which was designed to serve as a gigantic stairway by which the soul of the deceased pharaoh could ascend to the heavens. Such was the importance of Imhotep's achievement that he was deified by later Egyptians.

The most prolific pyramid-building phase coincided with the greatest degree of absolutist pharaonic rule. It was during this time that the most famous pyramids, those near Giza, were built. Over time, as authority became less centralized, the ability and willingness to harness the resources required for construction on a massive scale decreased, and later pyramids were smaller, less well-built and often hastily constructed.

Long after the end of Egypt's own pyramid-building period, a burst of pyramid-building occurred in what is present-day Sudan, after much of Egypt came under the rule of the Kings of Napata. While Napatan rule was brief and ceased in 661 BC, the Egyptian influence made an indelible[2] impression, and during the later Sudanese Kingdom of Meroe (approximately in the period between 300 BC – 300 AD) this flowered into a full-blown pyramid-building revival, which saw more