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雅思阅读预测和机经(第36册)

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阅读高分的秘密?

什么才是阅读最重要的考前需要记忆理解的内容,显然不仅仅是阅读机经的答案,除了填空 题和问答题单词答案,阅读真题答案都是符号,根本记不住? 那是什么,秘密就是:

[1] 你的真题预测系列书上用荧光笔标记的 原文出题点句子

[2] 根据出题点原文和考题题干之间的替换词(列表)

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(1)对照预测真题,做完考题,然后自学(或听课)对原文的理解找到原文中出考题的英文的原句,进行荧光笔标注(适合考前复习)
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如图所示: 荧光笔部分就是全文精髓(就是出考题的句子,一篇文 章大概 8-9 个地方), 8+选手应该在这个部分中圈出 哪些单词在# 题干被替换了, 替换词是什么?#。如果长期积累, 阅读满分就来了。 考前只浏览需要复习荧光部分。

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步骤【3】:做完全部预测中重点文章套题。

每天计时 做 1-2 套题(控制每三篇约 1 小时内完成);然后对答案(答案见书籍 末页),在论坛看答案解析和老师互动留言提问,休息 10 分钟。仔细阅读 这三篇 的中文翻译和出题点,把错题和文章大意理解清楚(这再花 30 分钟)。考前 30-15 天 坚持做以上步骤【3】的工作。

步骤【4】:复习和标记原文出题点(用荧光笔标记)

考前 15-8 天, 原文出题点用荧光笔标记, 不做题, 把重点预测文章的(中文翻译 和英文原文出题点)全部仔细浏览一遍,同时画出英文原文中的出题的英文句子仔 细阅读。

步骤【5】:考前8-3天,不做题,登录考试预测系统 http://www.iyuce.com 记忆【电子目录】中文的阅读机经考题补丁,回忆对应的出题点和参考答案。

步骤【6】:反复理解记忆原文出题点(用荧光笔标记)

考前3天,每晚1-2小时,坚持全部范围的原文中的出题的英文句子大概位置和原 句子,仔细阅读(记住句子中关键词替换)

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Content 目录

第1篇	36101 打哈欠	•••••• 1
第2篇	36102 冷冻运输的历史	
第3篇	36103 蒙戈人	•••••• 11
第4篇	36106 环保塑料 PLA	
第5篇	36113 海底运动	21
第6篇	36300 艾费雷德·诺贝尔	26
第7篇	36301 托马斯 • 杨	31
第8篇	36302 珊瑚礁	••••• 36
第9篇	36303 远程工作	•••••• 41
第10 篇	36308 新手和专家	46
第 11 篇	36409 遗传对孩子的影响	••••• 51
第12 篇	36410 青少年的青春期	56
第13 篇	36502 树冠研究	61
第14 篇	36505 岛上的雀鸟	66
第 15 篇	36601 鸟的迁徙	•••••• 71



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SECTION 3

You should spend about 20 minutes on Questions 28-40, which are based on Reading Passage 3 on the following pages.

The secret of the Yawn

When a scientist began to study yawning in the 1980s, it was difficult to convince some of his research students of the merits of "yawning science."

Although it may appear quirky(诡异), his decision to study yawning was a logical extension to human beings of my research in developmental neuroscience, reported in such papers as "Wing-flapping during Development and Evolution." As a neurobehavioral problem, there is not much difference between the wing-flapping of birds and the face- and body-flapping of human yawners.



B Yawning is an ancient, primitive act. Humans do it even before they are born, opening wide in the womb (子宮). Some snakes unhinge their jaws to do it. One species of penguins yawns as part of mating. Only now are researchers

beginning to understand why we yawn, when we yawn and why we yawn back. A professor of cognitive neuroscience at Drexel University in Philadelphia, Steven Platek, studies the act of contagious yawning, something done only by people and other primates.



In his first experiment, he used a psychological test to rank people on their **empathic** (感情嵌入的) feelings. He found that participants who did not score high on compassion did not yawn back. "We literally had people saying, 'Why am I looking at people yawning?" Professor Platek said. "It just had no effect."



For his second experiment, he put 10 students in an magnetic resonance imaging machine as they watched video tapes of people yawning. When the students watched the videos, the part of the brain which reacted was the part scientists believe controls empathy - the posterior cingulate (皮层), in the brain's middle rear." I don't know if it's necessarily



that nice people yawn more, but I think it's a good indicator of a state of mind," said Professor Platek. "It's also a good indicator if you're empathizing with me and paying attention."

His third experiment is studying yawning in those with brain disorders, such as



autism and schizophrenia, in which victims have difficulty connecting emotionally with others. A psychology professor at the University of Maryland, Robert Provine, is one of the few other researchers into yawning. He found the basic yawn lasts about six seconds and they come in bouts with an interval of about 68 seconds. Men and women yawn or half-yawn equally often, but men are significantly less likely to cover their mouths which may indicate complex distinction in genders." A watched yawner never

yawns," Professor Provine said. However, the physical root of yawning remains a mystery. Some researchers say it's coordinated within the hypothalamus(下 丘脑) of the brain, the area that also controls breathing.

Yawning and stretching also share properties and may be performed together as parts of a global motor complex. But they do not always co-occur—people usually yawn when we stretch, but we don't always stretch when we yawn,



especially before bedtime. Studies by J. I. P, G. H. A. Visser and H. F. Prechtl in the early 1980s, charting movement in the developing fetus using ultrasound, observed not just yawning but a link between yawning and stretching as early as the end of the first prenatal trimester (预产期).

The most extraordinary demonstration of the yawn-stretch linkage occurs in many people paralyzed on one side of their body because of brain damage caused by a stroke. The prominent British neurologist Sir Francis Walshe noted in 1923 that when these hemiplegics yawn, they are startled and mystified to observe that their otherwise paralyzed arm rises and flexes automatically in what neurologists term an "associated response." Yawning apparently activates

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undamaged, unconsciously controlled connections between the brain and the cord motor system innervating the **paralyzed**(擁痪的) limb. It is not known whether the associated response is a positive prognosis for recovery, nor whether yawning is therapeutic for **reinnervation**(再生) or prevention of muscular atrophy.

Clinical neurology offers other surprises. Some patients with "locked-in" syndrome, who are almost totally deprived of the ability to move voluntarily, can yawn normally. The neural circuits for spontaneous yawning must exist in the brain stem near other respiratory and vasomotor centers, because yawning is performed by anencephalic (无脑畸形) who possess only the medulla

oblongata (脊髓延髓). The multiplicity of stimuli of contagious yawning, by contrast, implicates many higher brain regions.

【我拉阿 体系が predicting

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Summary

Complete the Summary paragraph described below. In boxes 28-32 on your answer sheet, write the correct answer with *No MORE THAN THREE WORDS*.

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A psychology professor drew a conclusion after observation that it takes about six seconds to complete www.iyuce.com an average yawning which needs28......before a following yawning comes. It is almost at the same frequency that male and female yawn or half, yet behavior accompanied with yawning showing a29......in genders. Some parts within the brain may affect the movement which also have something to do with30...... another finding also finds there is a link between yawn and31..... before a baby was born, which two can be automatically co-operating even among people whose32..... is damaged.

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Read paragraph A-H.Which paragraph contains the following information? Write the correct letter A-H for question 33-37

NB You may use any letter more than once.

- 33 The rate for yawning shows some regular pattern.
- 34 Yawning is an inherent ability that appears in both animals and humans.
- 35 Stretching and yawning are not always going together.
- 36 Yawning may suggest people are having positive notice or response in communicating.
- 37 Some superior areas in brain may deal with the infectious feature of yawning

在题库预测期间内,不是每一篇文章考题都是近期考试的范围 重点,如需查看重点:请手机(app,电脑)登录在线预测电子系统 http://www.iyuce.com (我预测)

Questions 38-40

Do the following statements agree with the information given in Reading Passage 3? In boxes 38-40 on your answer sheet, write

TRUE	if the statement is true
FALSE	if the statement is false
NOT GIVEN	if the information is not given in the passage

- **38** Several students in Platek's experiment did not comprehend why their tutor ask them to yawn back.
- **39** Some results from certain experiment indicate the link between yawning and compassion.
- **40** Yawning can show an affirmative impact on the recovery from brain damage brought by a stroke.

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SECTION 1

History of Refrigeration

A The term refrigeration refers to cooling an area or substance below the environmental temperature, the process of removing heat. Mechanical refrigeration uses the evaporation of a liquid refrigerant to absorb heat. The refrigerant goes through a cycle so that it can be reused, the main cycles are; vapour-compression, absorption, steam-jet or steam-ejector, and air. Maryland farmer Thomas Moore first introduced the term Refrigerator in 1803, the appliance we know today first appeared in the 20th century.

B Prior to mechanical refrigeration systems, people found different ways of preserving their food. Some people preferred to use cooling systems of ice or snow found either locally or brought down from mountains and sometimes stored in cellars. Using those techniques meant that diets would have consisted of very little fresh food or fruits and vegetables, but mostly of bread, cheese and salted meats. Milk and cheeses were difficult to keep fresh, they were usually stored in a cellar or window box, but despite those methods, they could not prevent rapid spoilage. People were more than ready for a better system of preserving food.Later on, it was discovered that adding chemicals like sodium nitrate or potassium nitrate to water caused the temperature to fall. Cooling wine with this technique was first

recorded in 1550, as was the term "to refrigerate". Cooling drinks became very popular by 1600 in Europe, especially in Spain, Italy and France. Instead of cooling water at night, people used a new technique; rotating long necked bottles in water which held dissolved saltpeter. The solution was used to create very low temperatures and even to make ice. By the end of the 17th century, iced drinks including frozen juices and liquors were very popular in French society.



C A demand for ice soon became very strong. Consumer demand for fresh food, especially produce, led to diet reform between 1830 and the Civil War, fueled by the dramatic growth of cities and the improvement in economic status of the general populace. And as cities grew, so did the distance between the consumer and the source of the food. In 1799, ice was

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first shipped commercially out of Canal Street in New York City to Charleston, South Carolina. The attempt was a failure as there was very little ice left when the shipment arrived. Frederick Tudor and Nathaniel Wyeth of New England saw the great potential that existed for the ice business and revolutionized the industry with their efforts in the first half of

the 1800s. Tudor, who was known as the "Ice King", was more focused on shipping ice to tropical climates. To ensure his product would arrive safely, he experimented with different insulating materials and built icehouses that decreased melting losses from 66 percent to less than 8 percent. Wyeth developed a method of cheaply and quickly cutting uniform blocks of ice that transformed the ice industry. He made speed handling techniques in storage, transportation and distribution possible, with less waste.



Eventually it became clear that the ice being scraped was not all clean and was causing health problems. It was becoming an increasingly difficult task to find clean sources of natural ice and by the 1890's, pollution and sewage dumping had made the job seem even more impossible. The first signs were noticed in the brewing industry, and then the meat packing and dairy industries became seriously affected. Some sort of clean, mechanical refrigeration was desperately needed.

E Many inventive men were involved in the eventual creation of the refrigerator, through different discoveries that each built on the next. Dr. William Cullen, a Scotsman, was the first to study the evaporation of liquids in a vacuum in 1720. He later demonstrated the first known artificial refrigeration at the University of Glasgow in 1748 by letting ethyl ether boil into a partial



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vacuum.Olvier Evans, an American inventor, designed the first refrigeration machine to use vapor instead of liquid in 1805. Although he did not actually build it, an American physician named John Gorrie, produced one very similar to Evans' in 1842 to cool the patients with yellow fever in a Florida hospital. His basic principle is still the most often used in refrigerators today. He found the best way to cool the air was by compressing a gas, then cooling it by sending it through radiating coils, and then expanding it to lower the temperature even more. Evans was granted the first U.S. patent for <u>mechanical refrigeration</u> in 1851 after giving up his medical practice to focus on his experimentation with ice making.In 1820 Michael Faraday, a Londoner, first liquefied ammonia to cause cooling. Ferdinand Carre of France developed the first ammonia/water refrigeration

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machine in 1859. Carl von Linde was also very influential in the creation of refrigeration. In 1873 he designed the first practical and portable compressor refrigeration machine in Munich and in 1876 he began using an ammonia cycle rather than the methyl ether he used in his earlier models. Linde later developed a new method (Linde technique) for the liquefaction of large quantities of air in1894. The meat packing industry in Chicago was the next to adopt mechanical refrigeration nearly a decade later.

F Beginning in the 1840s, refrigerated cars were used to transport milk and butter. By 1860, refrigerated transport was limited to mostly seafood and dairy products. The refrigerated railroad car was patented by J.B. Sutherland of Detroit, Michigan in 1867. He designed an insulated car with ice bunkers in each end. Air came in on the top, passed through the bunkers, and circulated through the car by gravity, controlled by the use of hanging flaps that created differences in air temperature. There were different car designs based upon the type of cargo, whether meat or fruit. The first refrigerated car to carry fresh fruit was built in 1867 by Parker Earle of Illinois, who shipped strawberries on the Illinois Central Railroad. Each chest contained 100 pounds of ice and 200 quarts of strawberries. It wasn until 1949 that a refrigeration system made its way into the trucking industry by way of a roof-mounted cooling device, patented by Fred Jones.

G Refrigerators that were built in the late 1800s to 1929 used the toxic gases; methyl chloride, ammonia and sulphur dioxide as refrigerants. There were numerous fatal accidents that occurred in the 1920s when methyl chloride leaked out of refrigerators. After the terrible incidents, three American companies began researching less dangerous methods of refrigeration. Frigidaire discovered a new class of synthetic refrigerants called halocarbons or CFCs (chlorofluorocarbons) in 1928. That research lead to the discovery of chlorofluorocarbons (Freon), which quickly became the standard used in compressor refrigerators. Freon was safer for those nearby but was later discovered in 1973 by Prof. James Lovelock, to be harmful to the ozone layer. To prevent further damage, new developments were made, such as Hydroflourocarbons which have no known effect on the ozone layer. Chlorofluorocarbons (CFS) are no longer used; they are outlawed in several places, making refrigeration far safer today than it has ever been.

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Use the information in the passage to match the people (listed A-E) with opinions or deeds below.

Write the appropriate letters A-E in boxes 1-4 on your answer sheet.

Y			
R.	A	1799	
	B	1803	
	С	1840	
	D	1949	
	E	1973	
MAR			

1 Vehicles of transporting refrigerator on road

2 The first time ice sold around united states

3 Use of dangerous chemicals of refrigerator were no longer used

4 the term "Refrigerator" was firstly introduced in the year of



Use the information in the passage to match the people (listed A-F) with opinions or deeds below.

Write the appropriate letters A-F in boxes 5-9 on your answer sheet.

2			
A	Thomas Moore	D	J.B. Sutherland
В	Frederick Tudor	Ε	Fred Jones
C	Nathaniel Wyeth	F	Parker Earle

5 patened that Refrigerator can be delivered by train

- 6 An Ice-cutting technical method make the transportation less wasteful
- 7 Cold storage technology is applied in fruit
- 8 Refrigerator transportation assisted by trucking industry on road
- 9 For the first time, the phrase refrigeration was introduced



Write the correct number, *A-E*, in boxes 10-13 on your answer sheet.

- 10 Consumers' demand for fresh food, especially vegetables, lead to
- 11 The development of cities resulted in
- 12 Problems fatal accidents caused by water treatment resulted in
- 13 Risk of environmental damage from refrigerator leads to

A new developments were made, such as Hydroflourocarbons carbons

B a healthy dietary change between 1830 and the Civil War

C the discovery of chlorofluorocarbons (Freon)

D regional transport system for refrigerator over distance

E widespread of mechanical refrigerator

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SECTION 1

Mungo Man



等卷原文存在少量删节!

Fifty thousand years ago, a lush landscape greeted the first Australians

continent. Temperatures were cooler than now. Megafauna — giant prehistoric animals such as marsupial lions, goannas and the rhinoceros-sized diprotodon — were abundant. The Lake Mungo remains are three prominent sets of fossils which tell the archeologists the story: Mungo Man lived around the shores of Lake Mungo with his family. When he was young Mungo Man lost his two lower canine

making their way towards the south-east of the

teeth, possibly knocked out in a ritual. He grew into a man nearly 1.7m in height. Over the years his molar teeth became worn and scratched, possibly from eating a gritty diet or stripping the long leaves of water reeds with his teeth to make twine. As Mungo Man grew older his bones ached with arthritis, especially his right elbow, which was so damaged that bits of bone were completely worn out or broken away. Such wear and tear is typical of people who have used a woomera to throw spears over many years. Mungo Man reached a good age for the hard life of a hunter-gatherer, and died when he was about 50. His family mourned for him, and carefully buried him in the lunette, on his back with his hands crossed in his lap, and sprinkled with red ochre. Mungo Man is the oldest known example in the world of such a ritual.

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This treasure-trove of history was found by the University of Melbourne geologist Professor Jim Bowler in 1969. He was searching for ancient lakes and came across the charred remains of Mungo Lady, who had been cremated (火奔的). And in 1974, he found a second complete skeleton, Mungo Man, buried 300 metres away. Using carbon-dating, a technique only reliable to around 40,000 years old, the skeleton was first estimated at 28,000 to 32,000 years old. The comprehensive study of 25 different sediment layers at Mungo concludes that both graves are 40,000 years old.

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This is much younger than the 62,000 years Mungo Man was attributed

with in 1999 by a team led by Professor Alan Thorne, of the Australian National University. The modern day story of the science of Mungo also has its fair share of rivalry. Because Thorne is the country's leading opponent of the Out of Africa theory —that Homo sapiens had a single place of origin. "Dr Alan Thorne supports the multi-regional explanation (that modern humans arose simultaneously in Africa, Europe and Asia from one of our predecessors, Homo erectus, who



left Africa more than 1.5 million years ago.) if Mungo Man was descended from a person who had left Africa in the past 200,000 years, Thorne argues, then his mitochondrial DNA should have looked like that of the other samples."

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However, Out of Africa supporters are not about to let go of their beliefs because of the Australian research, Professor Chris Stringer, from the



Natural History Museum in London, UK, said that the research community would want to see the work repeated in other labs before major conclusions were drawn from the Australian research. But even assuming the DNA sequences were correct, Professor Stringer said it could just mean that there was much more genetic diversity in the past than was previously realised. There is no evidence here that the ancestry of these Australian

fossils goes back a million or two million years. It's much more likely that modern humans came out of Africa." For Bowler, these debates are irritating speculative distractions from the study's main findings. At 40,000 years old, Mungo Man and Mungo Lady remain Australia's oldest human burials and the earliest evidence on Earth of cultural sophistication, he says. Modern humans had not even reached North America by this time. In 1997, Pddbo's research group recovered a mtDNA fingerprint from the Feldholer Neanderthal skeleton uncovered in Germany in 1865 - the first Neanderthal remains ever found.

In its 1999 study, Thorne's team used three techniques to date Mungo Man at 62,000 years old, and it stands by its figures. It dated bone, teeth enamel and some sand. Bowler has strongly challenged the results ever since. Dating human bones is "notoriously unreliable", he says. As well, the sand sample Thorne's group dated was taken hundreds of metres from the burial site. "You don't have to be a gravedigger ... to realize the age of the sand is not the same as the age of the grave," says Bowler.

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Thorne counters that Bowler's team used one dating technique, while his used three. Best practice is to have at least two methods produce the same



result. A Thorne team member, Professor Rainer Grün, says the fact that the latest results were consistent between laboratories doesn't mean they are absolutely correct. We now have two data sets that are contradictory. I do not have a plausible explanation." Now, however, Thorne says the age of Mungo Man is irrelevant to this origins debate. Recent fossils finds show modern humans were in China 110,000 years ago. "So he has got a long time to turn up in Australia. It doesn't matter if he is 40,000 or 60,000 years old.

Dr Tim Flannery, a proponent of the controversial theory that Australia's megafauna was wiped out 46,000 years ago in a "blitzkrieg" of hunting by the arriving people, also claims the new Mungo dates support this view. In 2001 a member of Bowler's team, Dr Richard Roberts of Wollongong University, along with Flannery, director of the South Australian Museum, published research on their blitzkrieg theory. They dated 28 sites across the continent, arguing their analysis showed the megafauna died out suddenly 46,000 years ago. Flannery praises the Bowler team's

research on Mungo Man as "the most thorough and rigorous dating" of ancient human remains. He says the finding that humans arrived at Lake Mungo between 46,000 and 50,000 years ago was a critical time in Australia's history. There is no evidence of a dramatic climatic change then, he says. "It's my view that humans arrived and extinction took place in almost the same geological instant."



H Bowler, however, is skeptical of Flannery's theory and says the Mungo study provides no definitive new evidence to support it. He argues that climate change at 40,000 years ago was more intense than had been previously realized and could have played a role in the megafauna's demise. "To blame the earliest Australians for their complete extinction is drawing along bow."





Use the information in the passage to match the people (listed A-F) with opinions or deeds below. Write the appropriate letters A-F in boxes 1-8 on your answer sheet.



- 1 He was searching for ancient lakes and came across the charred remains of Mungo Lady, who had been cremated.
- **2** Professor who hold a skeptical attitude towards reliability for DNA analysis on some fossils.
- **3** Professor whose determination of the age of Mungo Man to be much younger than the former result which is older than the 62,000 years.
- 4 determining the age of Mungo Man has little to do with controversy for the origins of Australians.
- 5 research group who recovered a biological proof of first Neanderthal found in Europe.
- 6 a supporter of the idea that Australia's megafauna was extinct due to the hunting by the ancient human beings.
- 7 Instead of keep arguing a single source origin, multi-regional explanation has been raised.
- 8 Climate change rather than prehistoric human activities resulted in megafauna's extinction.



Do the following statements agree with the information given in Reading Passage 1? *In boxes 9-14 on your answer sheet, write*

TRUE	if the statement is true
FALSE	if the statement is false
NOT GIVEN	if the information is not given in the passage

- **9** The Lake Mungo remains offer the archeologists the evidence of graphic illustration of human activities around
- 10 In Lake Mungo remains, weapons were found used by the Mungo.
- **11** Mungo Man is one of the oldest known archeological evidence in the world of cultural sophistication such as a burying ritual.
- 12 Mungo man and woman's skeletons were uncovered in the same year. (test papers offered by www.iyuce.com, copyright)
- **13** There is controversy among Scientists about the origin of the oldest Homo sapiens.
- **14** Out of Africa supporters have critisised Australian professors for using outmoded research method

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SECTION 3

Nature works for Nature Works[™] PLA

A dozen years ago, scientists at Cargill got the idea of converting lactic acid made from corn into plastic while examining possible new uses for materials produced

from corn wet milling processes. In the past, several efforts had been made to develop plastics from lactic acid, but with limited success. Achieving this technological breakthrough didn't come easily, but in time the efforts did succeed. A fermentation and distillation process using corn was designed to create a polymer suitable for a broad variety of applications.



- **B** As an agricultural based firm, Cargill had taken this product as far as it could by 1997. The company needed a partner with access to plastics markets and polymerization capabilities, and began discussions with The Dow Chemical Company. The next step was the formation of the joint venture that created Cargill Dow LLC. Cargill Dow's product is the world's first commercially available plastic made from annually renewable resources such as corn:
 - Nature WorksTM PLA is a family of packaging polymers (carbon-based molecules) made from non-petroleum based resources.
 - Ingeo is a family of polymers for fibers made in a similar manner.
- By applying their unique technology to the processing of natural plant sugars, Cargill Dow has created a more environmentally friendly material that reaches the consumer in clothes, cups, packaging and other products. While Cargill Dow is a stand-alone business, it continues to leverage the agricultural processing, manufacturing and polymer expertise of the two parent companies in order to bring the best possible products to market.
- D The basic raw materials for PLA are carbon dioxide and water. Growing plants, like corn take these building blocks from the atmosphere and the soil. They are combined in the plant to make carbohydrates (sucrose and starch) through a process driven by photosynthesis. The process for making Nature Works PLA begins when a renewable resource such as corn is milled, separating starch from the raw material. Unrefined dextrose, in turn, is processed from the starch.
- **Cargill** Dow turns the unrefined dextrose into lactic acid using a fermentation process similar to that used by beer and wine producers. This is the same lactic

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acid that is used as a food additive and is found in muscle tissue in the human body. Through a special condensation process, a lactide is formed. This lactide is purified through vacuum distillation and becomes a polymer (the base for NatureWorks PLA) that is ready for use through a solvent-free melt process. Development of this new technology allows the company to "harvest" the carbon that living plants remove from the air through photosynthesis. Carbon is stored in plant starches, which can be broken down into natural plant sugars. The carbon and other elements in these natural sugars are then used to make NatureWorks PLA.

Nature Works PLA fits all disposal systems and is fully compostable in commercial composting facilities. With the proper infrastructure, products made from this polymer can be recycled back to a monomer and re-used as a polymer. Thus, at the end of its life cycle, a product made from Nature Works PLA can be broken down into its simplest parts so that no sign of it remains.

G PLA is now actively competing with traditional materials in packaging and fiber applications throughout the world; based on the technology's success and promise,



Cargill Dow is quickly becoming a premier player in the polymers market. This new polymer now competes head-on with petroleum-based materials like polyester. A wide range of products that vary in molecular weight and crystallinity can be produced, and the blend of physical properties of PLA makes it suited for a broad range of fiber and packaging applications. Fiber and non-woven applications include clothing, fiberfill, blankets and wipes.

Packaging applications include packaging films and food and beverage containers.

As Nature Works PLA polymers are more oil- and grease-resistant and provide a better flavor and aroma barrier than existing petroleum-based polymers, grocery retailers are increasingly using this packaging for their fresh foods. As companies begin to explore this family of polymers, more potential applications are being identified. For example, PLA possess two properties that are particularly useful for drape fabrics and window furnishings. Their resistance to ultraviolet light is particularly appealing as this reduces the amount of fading in such fabrics, and their refractive index is low, which means fabrics constructed from these polymers can be made with deep colors without requiring large amounts of dye. In addition, sportswear makers have been drawn to the product as it has an inherent ability to take moisture away from the skin and when blended with cotton and wool, the result is garments that are lighter and better at absorbing moisture.

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PLA combines inexpensive large-scale fermentation with chemical processing to produce a value-added polymer product that improves the environment as well. The source material for PLA is a natural sugar found in plants such as corn and using such renewable feedstock presents several environmental benefits. As an

alternative to traditional petroleum-based polymers, the production of PLA uses 20%-50% less fossil fuel and releases a lower amount of greenhouse gasses than comparable petroleumbased plastic; carbon dioxide in the atmosphere is removed when the feedstock is grown and is returned to the earth when the polymer is degraded. Because the company is using raw materials that can be regenerated year after year, it is both cost competitive and environmentally responsible.

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Complete the following summary of the paragraphs of Reading Passage, using *no more than two* words from the Reading Passage for each answer. Write your answers in boxes 31-34 on your answer sheet.

Process : the production of PLA





Choose the correct letter, A, B, C or D. Write your answers in boxes 35-40 on your answer sheet.

35 Why did choose the PLA as material for food packaging? *A It smells good*

B It can save food freshness C it can be used on other materials D some other things need to be revised about it.

36 What is PLA packaging is used for? A absorbing moisture B composting facilities C Packaging fresh food D manufacturing



37-38) Which two features of PLA is correct?A It takes in moisture of skinB It is waterproofC comfortable sportswearD It's fading under the sun

E It is only made in deep color

39-40) Which two features of PLA is correct?

A It is made of renewable raw materials

B It involves the removal of carbon dioxide

C It is no use of fossil fuel product

D It is use renewable raw resources

E It is sustenance which can absorb the CO2 in the atmosphere

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SECTION 2

Undersea Movement

The underwater world holds many challenges. The most basic of these is movement. The density of water makes it difficult for

animals to move. Forward movement is a complex interaction of underwater forces. Additionally, water itself has movement. Strong currents carry incredible



power that can easily sweep creatures away. The challenges to aquatic movement result in a variety of swimming methods, used by a wide range of animals. The result is a dazzling underwater ballet.

Fish rely on their skeleton, fins, and muscles to move. The primary function of the



skeleton is to aid movement of other parts. Their skull acts as a fulcrum (支点) and their vertebrae act as levers. The vertebral column consists of a series of vertebrae held together by ligaments, but not so tightly as to prevent slight sideways movement between each pair of vertebrae. The whole spine is, therefore,

flexible. The skull is the only truly fixed part of a fish. It does not move in and off itself but acts as a point of stability for other bones. These other bones act as levers that cause movement of the fish's body.

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While the bones provide the movement, the muscles supply the power. A typical fish has hundreds of muscles running in all directions around its body. This is why a fish can turn and twist and change directions quickly. The muscles on each side of the spine contract in a series from head to tail and down each side alternately, causing a wave-like movement to pass down the body. Such a movement may be very pronounced in fish such as eels, but hardly perceptible in others, e.g. mackerel. The frequency of the waves varies from about 50/min in the dogfish to 170/min in the mackerel. The sideways and backward thrust of the head and body against the water results in the resistance of the water pushing the fish sideways and forwards in a direction opposed to the thrust. When the corresponding set of muscles on the other side contracts, the fish experiences a similar force from the water on that side. The two sideways forces are equal and opposite, unless the fish is making a turn, so they cancel out, leaving the sum of the two forward forces

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The muscles involved in swimming are of two main types. The bulk of a fish's body is composed of the so-called white muscle, while the much smaller areas at the roots of the fins and in a strip along the centre of each flank comprise red muscle. The red muscle receives a good supply of blood and contains ampler

quantities of fat and glycogen, the storage form of glucose, which is used for most day-to-day swimming movements. In contrast, the white muscle has a poor blood supply and few energy stores, and it is used largely for short-term, fast swimming. It might seem odd that the body of an animal which



adapts adapted so efficiently to its environment should be composed almost entirely of a type of muscle it rarely uses. However, this huge auxiliary power pack carried by a fish is of crucial significance if the life of the fish is threatened — by a predator, for instance — because it enables the fish to swim rapidly away from danger.



The fins are the most distinctive features of a fish, composed of bony spines protruding from the body with skin covering them and joining them together, either in a webbed fashion, as seen in most bony fish, or more similar to a flipper, as seen in sharks. These

usually serve as a means for the fish to swim. But it must be emphasized that the swimming movements are produced by the whole of the muscular body, and in only a few fish do the fins contribute any propulsive force! Their main function is to control the stability and direction of the fish: as water passes over its body, a fish uses its fins to thrust in the direction it wishes to go.

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Fins located in different places on a fish serve different purposes, such as moving forward, turning, and keeping an upright position.

The tail fin, in its final lash, may contribute as much as 40 per cent of the forward thrust. The median fins, that is, the dorsal, anal and ventral fins, control the



rolling and yawing movements of the fish by increasing the vertical surface area presented to the water. The paired fins, pectoral and pelvic, act as hydroplanes and control the pitch of the fish, causing it to swim downwards or upwards according to the angle to the water at which they are held by their muscles. The pectoral fins lie in front of the centre of gravity and, being readily mobile, are chiefly responsible for sending the fish up or down. The paired fins are also the means by which the fish slows down and stops.

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The swimming speed of fish is not so fast as one would expect from watching their

rapid movements in aquaria or ponds. Tuna seem to be the fastest at 44 mph, trout are recorded as doing 23 mph, pike 20 mph for short bursts and roach about 10 mph, while the majority of small fish probably do not exceed 2 or 3 mph. Many people have attempted to



make accurate measurements of the speed at which various fish swim, either by timing them over known distances in their natural environment or by determining their performance in man-made swimming channels. From these studies, we can broadly categorise fish into four groups: "sneakers", such as eels that are only capable of slow speeds but possess some staying power; "stayers", that can swim quite fast over long periods; "sprinters" that can generate fast bursts of speed (e.g. pike); and "crawlers" that are sluggish swimmers, although they can accelerate slightly (bream, for example).

One type of sailfish is considered to be the fastest species of fish over short distances, achieving 68 mph over a three-second period, and anglers have recorded speeds in excess of 40 mph over longer periods for several species of tuna. One is likely to consider a fish's swimming capabilities in relation to its size. However, it is generally true that a small fish is a more able swimmer than a much larger one. On the other hand in terms of speed in miles per hour a big fish will, all other things being equal, be able to swim faster than a smaller fish.

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The Passage has 8 paragraphs A-H. Which paragraph contains the following information? Write the appropriate letter, A-H, in boxes 14-19 on your answer sheet.

- 14 categorizations of fish by swimming speed
- 15 an example of fish capable of maintaining fast swimming for a long time
- 16 how fish control stability
- 17 frequency of the muscle movement of fish
- 18 a mechanical model of fish skeleton
- 19 energy storage devices in a fish

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The diagram below gives information about fish fins and their purposes. Complete the diagram with **NO MORE THAN THREE WORDS** from the passage for each blank.

Write your answers in boxes 20-23 on your answer sheet.





Complete the summary below using NO MORE THAN THREE WORDS from the passage for each blank.

Write your answers in boxes 24-26 on your answer sheet ..

Two types of muscles are involved in fish swimming. The majority of a fish's body comprises the 24....., and the red muscle is found only at the roots of the fins and in a strip along the centre of each flank. For most of its routine movements, the fish **Interdicting** uses lot of its 25......saved in body, and white muscle is mostly used for short-term, fast swimming, such as escaping from 26......

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SECTION 1

Alfred Nobel

The man behind the Nobel Prize

Since 1901, the Nobel Prize has been honoring men and women from all corners of the globe for outstanding achievements in physics, chemistry, medicine, literature, and for work in peace. The foundations for the prize were laid in 1895 when Alfred Nobel wrote his last will, leaving much of his wealth to the establishment of the Nobel Prize.



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Alfred Nobel was born in Stockholm on October 21, 1833. His father Immanuel Nobel was an engineer and inventor who built bridges and buildings in Stockholm. In connection with his construction work Immanuel Nobel also experimented with different techniques for



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blasting rocks. Successful in his industrial and business ventures, Immanuel Nobel was able, in 1842, to bring his family to St. Petersburg. There, his sons were given a first class education by private teachers. The training included

natural sciences, languages and literature. By the age of 17 Alfred Nobel was fluent in Swedish, Russian, French, English and German. His primary interests were in English literature and poetry as well as in chemistry and physics. Alfred's father, who wanted his sons to join his enterprise as engineers, disliked Alfred's interest in poetry and found his son rather introverted.

In order to widen Alfred's horizons his father sent him abroad for further training in chemical engineering. During a two year period Alfred Nobel visited Sweden, Germany, France and the United States. In Paris, the city he came to like best, he worked in the private laboratory of Professor T. J. Pelouze, a famous chemist. There he met the young Italian chemist Ascanio Sobrero who, three years earlier, had invented nitroglycerine, a

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highly explosive liquid. But it was considered too dangerous to be of any practical use. Although its explosive power greatly exceeded that of gunpowder, the liquid would explode in a very unpredictable manner if subjected to heat and pressure. Alfred Nobel became very interested in nitroglycerine and how it could be put to practical use in construction work. He also realized that the safety problems had to be solved and a method had to be developed for the controlled detonation of nitroglycerine.

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After his return to Sweden in 1863, Alfred Nobel concentrated on developing nitroglycerine as an explosive. Several explosions, including one (1864) in which his brother Kmil and

several other persons were killed, convinced the authorities that nitroglycerine production was exceedingly dangerous. They forbade further experimentation with nitroglycerine within the Stockholm city limits and Alfred Nobel had to move his experimentation to a barge anchored on Lake Malaren. Alfred was not discouraged and in 1864 he was able to start mass production of nitroglycerine. To make the handling of



nitroglycerine safer Alfred Nobel experimented with different additives. He soon found that mixing nitroglycerine with kieselguhr would turn the liquid into a paste which could be shaped into rods of a size and form suitable for insertion into drilling holes. In 1867 he patented this material under the name of dynamite. To be able to detonate the dynamite rods he also invented a detonator (blasting cap) which could be ignited by lighting a fuse. These inventions were made at the same time as the pneumatic drill came into general use. Together these inventions drastically reduced the cost of blasting rock, drilling tunnels, building canals and many other forms of construction work.

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The market for dynamite and detonating caps grew very rapidly and Alfred Nobel also proved himself to be a very skillful entrepreneur and businessman. Over the years he founded



factories and laboratories in some 90 different places in more than 20 countries. Although he lived in Paris much of his life he was constantly traveling. When he was not traveling or engaging in business activities Nobel himself worked intensively in his various laboratories, first in Stockholm and later in

other places. He focused on the development of explosives technology as well as other chemical inventions, including such materials as synthetic rubber and leather, artificial silk, etc. By the time of his death in 18% he had 355 patents.

Intensive work and travel did not leave much time for a private life. At the age of 43 he was feeling like an old man. At this time he advertised in a newspaper "Wealthy, highly-educated



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elder gentleman seeks lady of mature age, versed in languages, as secretary and supervisor of household." The most qualified applicant turned out to be an Austrian woman, Countess Bertha Kinsky. After working a very short time for Nobel she decided to return to Austria to marry Count Arthur von Suttner. In spite of this Alfred Nobel and Bertha von Suttner remained friends and kept

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writing letters to each other for decades. Over the years Bertha von Suttner became increasingly critical of the arms race. She wrote a famous book, Lay Down Your Arms and became a prominent figure in the peace movement. No doubt this influenced Alfred Nobel when he wrote his final will which was to include a Prize for persons or organizations who

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promoted peace. Several years after the death of Alfred Nobel, the *Norwegian Storting* (Parliament) decided to award the 1905 Nobel Peace Prize to Bertha von Suttner.

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G Alfred Nobel died in San Remo, Italy, on December 10, 1896. When his will was opened it came as a surprise that his fortune was to be used for Prizes in Physics, Chemistry, Physiology or Medicine, Literature and Peace. The executors of his will were two young engineers, Ragnar Sohlman and Rudolf Lilljequist. They set about forming the Nobel Foundation as an organization to take care of the financial assets left by Nobel for this purpose and to coordinate the work of the Prize-Awarding Institutions. This was not without its difficulties since the will was contested by relatives and questioned by authorities in various countries.

Alfred Nobel's greatness lay in his ability to combine the penetrating mind of the scientist and inventor with the forward-looking dynamism of the industrialist. Nobel was very

interested in social and peace-related issues and held what were considered radical views in his era. He had a great interest in literature and wrote his own poetry and dramatic works. The Nobel Prizes became an extension d a fulfillment of his lifetime interests.



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Do the following statements agree with the information given in Reading Passage 1? In boxes 1-6 on your answer sheet, write

TRUE	if the statement is true
FALSE	if the statement is false
NOT GIVEN	if the information is not given in the passage

- 1 The first Nobel Prize was awarded in 1895.
- 2 Nobel's father wanted his son to have better education than what he had had.
- 3 Nobel was an unsuccessful businessman.
- 4 Bertha von Suttner was selected by Nobel himself for the first peace prize.
- 5 The Nobel Foundation was established after the death of Nobel
- 6 Nobel's social involvement was uncommon in the 1800's.



Complete the notes below using NO MORE THAN *TWO* WORDS from the passage. Write your answers in boxes 7-13 on your answer sheet. 【我該网 仏。あか predicting

Table 1

Education:

Having accumulated a great fortune in his business, Nobel's father determined to give his son the best education and sent him abroad to be trained in 7..... During Nobel's study in Paris, he worked in a private laboratory, where he came in contact with a young Scientist (engineer) 8..... and his invention nitroglycerine, a more powerful explosive than 9.....

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SECTION 1

Thomas Young

The Last True Know-It-All

Thomas Young (1773-1829) contributed 63 articles to the Encyclopedia Britannica, including 46 biographical entries (mostly on scientists and classicists) and substantial essays on "Bridge," "Chromatics," "Egypt,"



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"Languages" and "Tides". Was someone who could write authoritatively about so many subjects a polymath, a genius or a dilettante? In an ambitious new biography, Andrew Robinson argues that Young is a good contender for the epitaph "the last man who knew everything." Young has competition, however: The phrase, which Robinson takes for his title, also serves as the subtitle of two other recent biographies: Leonard Warren's 1998 life of paleontologist Joseph Leidy (1823-1891) and Paula Findlen's 2004 book on Athanasius Kircher (1602-1680), another polymath.

Young, of course, did more than write encyclopedia entries. He presented his first paper to the Royal Society of London at the age of 20 and was elected a Fellow a week after his 21st birthday. In the paper, Young explained the process of accommodation in the human eye – on how the eye focuses properly on objects at varying distances. Young hypothesized that this was achieved by changes in the shape of the lens. Young also theorized that light traveled in



waves and he believed that, to account for the ability to see in color, there must be three receptors in the eye corresponding to the three "principal colors" to which the retina could respond: red, green, violet. All these hypothesis were subsequently proved to be correct.

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Later in his life, when he was in his forties, Young was instrumental in cracking the code that unlocked the unknown script on the Rosetta Stone, a tablet that was

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"found" in Egypt by the Napoleonic army in 1799. The stone contains text in three alphabets: Greek, something unrecognizable and Egyptian hieroglyphs. The unrecognizable script is now known as demotic and, as Young deduced, is related directly to hieroglyphic. His initial work on this appeared in his Britannica entry on Egypt. In another entry, he coined the term Indo-European to describe the family of languages spoken throughout most of Europe and northern India. These are the landmark achievements of a man who was a child prodigy and who, unlike many remarkable children, did not disappear into oblivion as an adult. (*test papers offered by www.iyuce.com, copyright*)

Born in 1773 in Somerset in England, Young lived from an early age with his maternal grandfather, eventually leaving to attend boarding school. He had

devoured books from the age of two, and through his own initiative he excelled at Latin, Greek, mathematics and natural philosophy. After leaving school, he was greatly encouraged by his mother's uncle, Richard Brocklesby, a physician and Fellow of the Royal Society. Following Brocklesby's lead, Young decided to pursue a career in medicine. He studied in London, following the medical circuit, and then moved on to more formal



education in Edinburgh, Göttingen and Cambridge. After completing his medical training at the University of Cambridge in 1808, Young set up practice as a physician in London. He soon became a Fellow of the Royal College of Physicians and a few years later was appointed physician at St. George's Hospital.

Young's skill as a physician, however, did not equal his skill as a scholar of natural philosophy or linguistics. Earlier, in 1801, he had been appointed to a professorship of natural philosophy at the Royal Institution, where he delivered as many as 60 lectures in a year. These were published in two volumes in 1807. In 1804 Young had become secretary to the Royal Society, a post he would hold until his death. His opinions were sought on civic and national matters, such as



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the introduction of gas lighting to London and methods of ship construction. From 1819 he was superintendent of the Nautical Almanac and secretary to the Board of Longitude. From 1824 to 1829 he was physician to and inspector of calculations for the Palladian Insurance Company. Between 1816 and 1825 he contributed his many and various entries to the Encyclopedia Britannica, and throughout his career he authored numerous books, essays and papers.

Young is a perfect subject for a biography – perfect, but daunting. Few men contributed so much to so many technical fields. Robinson's aim is to introduce non-scientists to Young's work and life. He succeeds, providing clear expositions

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of the technical material (especially that on optics and Egyptian hieroglyphs). Some readers of this book will, like Robinson, find Young's accomplishments impressive; others will see him as some historians have – as a dilettante. Yet despite the rich material presented in this book, readers will not end up knowing Young personally. We catch glimpses of a playful Young, doodling Greek and Latin phrases in his notes on medical lectures and translating the verses that a young lady had written on the walls of a summerhouse into Greek elegiacs. Young was introduced into elite society, attended the theatre and learned to dance and play the flute. In addition, he was an accomplished horseman. However, his personal life looks pale next to his vibrant career and studies.

G Young married Eliza Maxwell in 1804, and according to Robinson, "their marriage was a happy one and she appreciated his work." Almost all we know about her is that she sustained her husband through some rancorous disputes about optics and that she worried about money when his medical career was slow to take off. Very little evidence survives about the complexities of Young's relationships with his mother and father. Robinson does not credit them, or anyone else, with shaping Young's extraordinary mind. Despite the lack of details concerning Young's relationships, however, anyone interested in what it means to be a genius should read this book.

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Do the following statements agree with the information given in Reading Passage 1? *In boxes 1-7 on your answer sheet, write*

TRUE	if the statement is true
FALSE	if the statement is false
NOT GIVEN	if the information is not given in the passage

- 1 'The last man who knew everything' has also been claimed to other people.
- 2 All Young's articles were published in Encyclopedia Britannica.
- 3 Like others, Young wasn't so brilliant when grew up.
- 4 Young's talents as a doctor surpassed his other skills.
- 5 Young's advice was sought by people responsible for local and national issues.
- 6 Young was interested in various social pastimes.
- 7 Young suffered from a disease in his later years.



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Answer the questions below.

Choose NO MORE THAN THREE WORDS AND/OR A NUMBER from the passage for each answer.

- 8 How many life stories did Young write for Encyclopedia Britannica?
- 9 What aspect of scientific research did Young focus on in his first academic paper?
- 10 What name did Young introduce to refer to a group of languages?
- 11 Who inspired Young to start his medical studies?
- 12 Where did Young get a teaching position?
- 13 What contribution did Young make to London?



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SECTION 2

Coral reefs are underwater structures made from calcium carbonate secreted by corals. Coral reefs are colonies of tiny living animals found in marine waters that contain few nutrients. Most coral reefs are built from stony corals, which in turn consist of polyps that cluster in groups.

Coral reefs

Coral reefs are estimated to cover 284,300 km2 just under 0.1% of the oceans' surface area, about half the area of France. The Indo-Pacific region

accounts for 91.9% of this total area. Southeast Asia accounts for 32.3% of that figure, while the Pacific including Australia accounts for 40.8%. Atlantic



and Caribbean coral reefs account for 7.6%. Yet often called "rainforests of the sea", coral reefs form some of the most diverse ecosystems on Earth. They provide a home for 25% of all marine species, including fish, mollusks (软体动物), worms, crustaceans (甲壳类动物), echlaoderms (幕皮动 物), sponges, tunicates and other cnidarians. Paradoxically, coral reefs flourish even though they are surrounded by ocean waters that provide few nutrients. They are most commonly found at shallow depths in tropical waters, but deep water and cold water corals also exist on smaller scales in other areas. Although corals exist both in temperate and tropical waters, shallow-water reefs form only in a zone extending from 30° N to 30° S of the equator. Deep water coral can exist at greater depths and colder temperatures at much higher latitudes, as far north as Norway. Coral reefs are rare along the American and African west coasts. This is due primarily to upwelling and strong cold coastal currents that reduce water temperatures in these areas (respectively the Peru, Benguela and Canary streams). Corals are seldom found along the coastline of South Asia from the eastern tip of India (Madras) to the Bangladesh (孟加拉国) and Myanmar borders. They are also rare along the coast around northeastern South America and Bangladesh due to the freshwater release from the Amazon and Ganges Rivers (值河), respectively.



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Coral reefs deliver ecosystem services to tourism, fisheries and coastline protection. The global economic value of coral reefs has been estimated at as much as \$US375 billion per year. Coral reefs protect shorelines by absorbing wave energy (潮汐能), and many small islands would not exist without their reef to protect them.

The value of reefs in **biodiverse** (生物多样的) regions can be even higher. In parts of Indonesia and the Caribbean where tourism is the main use, reefs are estimated to be worth US\$1 million per square kilometer, based on the cost of maintaining sandy beaches and the value of attracting **morkelers** (浮潛者) and **scuba divers** (水肺潜水). Meanwhile, a recent study of the Great Barrier Reef in Australia found that the reef is worth more to the country as an intact ecosystem than an extractive reserve for fishing. Each year more than 1.8 million tourists visit the reef, spending an estimated AU\$4.3 billion (Australian dollars) on reef-related industries from diving to boat rental to posh island resort stays. In the Caribbean,



says UNEP, the net annual benefits from diver tourism was US\$2 billion in 2000 with US\$625 million spent directly on diving on reefs. Further, reef tourism is important source of employment, especially for some of the world's poorest people. UNEP says that of the estimated 30 million

small-scale fishers in the developing world, most are dependent to a greater or lesser extent on coral reefs. In the Philippines, for example, more than one million small-scale fishers depend directly on coral reefs for their livelihoods. The report estimates that reef fisheries (進场) were worth between \$15,000 and \$150,000 per square kilometer a year, while fish caught for aquariums(水族馆) were worth \$500 a kilogram against \$6 for fish caught as food. The aquarium fish export industry supports around 50,000 people and generates some US\$5.5 million a year in Sri Lanka along.

Unfortunately, coral reefs are dying around the world. In particular, coral mining, agricultural and urban runoff (下水), pollution (organic and inorganic), disease, and the digging of canals and access into islands and bays are localized threats to coral ecosystems (生态系统). Broader threats are sea temperature rise, sea level rise and pH changes from ocean acidification (酸化), all associated with greenhouse gas emissions. Some current fishing practices are destructive and unsustainable. These include cyanide fishing, overfishing and blast fishing. Although cyanide (氰化物毒) fishing supplies live reef fish for the tropical aquarium market, most fish caught using this method are sold in

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restaurants, primarily in Asia, where live fish are prized for their freshness. To catch fish with cyanide, fishers dive down to the reef and squirt cyanide in coral crevices and on the fast-moving fish, to stun the fish making them easy to catch. Overfishing is another leading cause for coral reef degradation. Often, too many fish are taken from one reef to sustain a population in that area. Poor fishing practices, such as banging on the reef with sticks (muro-ami), destroy coral formations that normally function as fish habitat. In some instances, people fish with explosives (爆 炸物) (blast fishing), which blast apart the surrounding coral.

- Tourist resorts that empty their sewage directly into the water surrounding coral reefs contribute to coral reef degradation. Wastes kept in poorly maintained septic tanks can also leak into surrounding ground water, eventually seeping out to the reefs. Careless boating, diving, snorkeling and fishing can also damage coral reefs. Whenever people grab, kick, and walk on, or stir up sediment (沉淀物) in the reefs, they contribute to coral reef destruction. Corals are also harmed or killed when people drop anchors on them or when people collect coral.
 - To find answers for these problems, scientists and researchers study the various factors that impact reefs. The list includes the ocean's role as a carbon dioxide sink, atmospheric changes, **ultraviolet light**(紫外线光), ocean acidification, viruses, impacts of dust storms carrying agents to far



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flung reefs, pollutants, algal blooms and others. Reefs are threatened well beyond coastal areas. General estimates show approximately 10% of the worlds coral reefs are dead. About 60% of the world's reefs are at risk due to destructive, human-related activities. The threat to the health of reefs is particularly strong in Southeast Asia, where 80% of reefs are endangered.

In Australia, the Great Barrier Reef (大量態) is protected by the Great Barrier Reef Marine Park Authority, and is the subject of much legislation, including a biodiversity action plan. Inhabitants of Ahus Island, Manus Province, Papua New Guinea, have followed a generations-old practice of restricting fishing in six areas of their reef lagoon (环礁湖). Their cultural traditions allow line fishing, but not net or spear fishing. The result is both the biomass and individual fish sizes are significantly larger than in places where fishing is unrestricted. 1





Reading Passage 1 has seven paragraphs A-G. Which paragraph contains the following information? Write the correct letter A-G in boxes 14-19 on your answer sheet. NB You may use any letter more than once.



- 14 Geographical location of world's coral reef
- 15 How does coral reef benefit economy locally
- 16 The statistics of coral reef's economic significance
- 17 The listed reasons for declining number of coral reef
- 18 Physical approach to coral reef by people
- 19 Unsustainable fishing methods are applied in regions of the world

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Do the following statement agree with the information given in Reading Passage 2?

TRUE	if the statement is true
FALSE	if the statement is false
NOT GIVEN	if the information is not given in the passage

- 20 Coral reefs provide habitat to variety of marine life.
- 21 Coral reef distribute around the ocean disproportionally.
- 22 Coral reef is increasingly important for scientific purpose.
- 23 Coral reefs are greatly exchanged among and exported to other counties.
- 24 Reef tourism is of economic essence generally for some poor people.
- 25 As with other fishing business, coral fishery is not suitable to women and children

Questions 26

Choose the correct letter, **A**, **B**, **C** or **D**. Write your answers in boxes 26 on your answer sheet.

What is the main purpose of the this passage

- A Demonstrate how coral reef grow in the ocean
- **B** To tell that coral reef is widely used as a scientific project
- C Present the general benefits and an alarming situation of coral reef

D To show the vital efforts made to protect coral reef in Australia

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雅思阅读真题 Version 36303

SECTION 3

Tele-working

Teleworking - working remotely from an office - is said to have many benefits for organisations, the environment and society. It provokes mixed reactions from its acolytes and those that experience it first-hand. Whether you like it or not, it is true to say that work is no longer dependent on



geography and this opens up a range of opportunities for working in new ways and environments.

The surveys show "that the productivity increase is not primarily because of longer working hours (as is sometimes suggested). Although prevalent, working more is just one of a number of influencing factors, and not the most important." An unusual comparison of the performance of teleworkers with a closely matched control group of non-teleworkers found that not only was productivity higher, but also that absenteeism and error rates were lower.

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Two other areas where SUSTEL has added to the economic impact knowledge base is its effect on absenteeism and space utilisation. In the case of absenteeism, over 60 per cent of those surveyed stated that telework had enabled them to work when they were prevented from reaching a work location (usually through illness or transport problems). Around half the cases also identified substantial reductions in space requirements - to the point where one organisation had

completely done away with a central office. Changes in non-commuting travel on weekends: home-bases workers, which includes a substantial population of people who are not telecommuters, spend more time shopping out of the home than traditional workers.



Half-time telecommuting could reduce carbon emissions by over 51 million metric tons a year—the equivalent of taking all of New York's commuters off the road. Additional carbon footprint savings will come from reduced: office energy, roadway repairs, urban heating, office construction, business travel, paper usage

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(as electronic documents replace paper). Although energy utilization will continue to grow as we expand our industry and improve our standard of living, efficient use of energy will always be of prime importance. By telecommuting to work instead of using more conventional methods, there is a great potential to save energy. The three major areas where energy can be conserved are: Vehicle-related materials and resources; Highway-related materials and resources; and work-related materials and resources.

A tremendous amount of energy is required to produce transportation equipment such as automobiles, buses, trains and jet aircraft. If telecommuting is promoted,



there will be less use of this equipment and less energy will be required for production, maintenance and repair of this equipment. Fuel resources and gases needed to operate this equipment will be reduced, as well the building and repair of highways and maintenance requires a large consumption of

energy, not only in the operation of the highway construction and repair equipment, but also in the manufacture and transportation of the required materials. An increase in the percentage of people telecommuting to work will decrease the need for expanded highways and associated road maintenance. The first two areas related to getting to work.

Socially, the SUSTEL research found that most survey respondents felt that teleworking gave them a better quality of life and work-life balance. Many also reported health benefits. A significant number also stated that they were using local services more and becoming more involved in their local communities. The

loss of teamwork and team spirit within teleworking populations was tackled through ideas such as Oracle's 'FUNctional' offices. Designed to increase communication and interaction when people are at the office, they are bright, and focused around a central café to stimulate ideas and face-to-face contact.

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The finding that many teleworkers report both longer working hours and better quality of life is paradoxical. More time working is usually associated with increased stress, domestic tension and other factors that reduce quality of life. One possible explanation is that, for many individuals, their increased working hours will be less than the time they have saved in commuting. Hence, they still have more time available for family and other activities. For some, the stress

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associated with commuting (especially for long distances) may be less than that arising from additional working time. Perhaps most significantly, teleworking can in effect create time through opportunities for multi-tasking or greater control of activities. As one survey respondent noted, "Although the amount of time has not changed it has made the weekends freer, as domestic activities can be fitted in during lunchtimes or early morning."

When you work in an office or a cubicle and something goes wrong with any hardware or software you have the option of calling in the IT man. In fact, all of the equipment that you use at the office is supported by technical staff. That means regular updates and maintenance for various and sundry office tools like land-line phones, computers, internet connections, laptops, cell phones, printers, and other office equipment



is all up to you. When you work from home, you'll surely encounter technical problems and when you do, where do you get the support and help you need? If your computer hard drive crashed today, would you have the funds to replace it?

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Complete the summary using the list of words, A-I below. Write the correct letter, -I in boxes 28-35 on your answer sheet.

Teleworking has been said to have many benefits for both society and companies. Survey identified that telecommuters spend more time on.....**28**.....than those traditional workers on changes in non-commuting travel on weekends. It also is beneficial to environment as it reduces the.......29.......in the atmosphere from decreased street repairs, city heating, or even......30..... as staff in office could send documents.......31...... Apart from that, other materials such as Vehicle-related, Highway-related and......32...... materials will also be saved. Traditionally, Large amount of energy is needed to energy and materials conservation goes to the consumed in

Α	pollution	B internet energy	C paper usage	D construction and maintenance
Ε	materials	F shopping	G productivity	H fuels and gases
Ι	electronically	J IT	K equipment	L company
М	work-related		N geography	



Complete each sentence with correct ending, A-F, below. Write the correct letter, A-F, in box 36-39 on your answer sheet.

- 36 More working time is often connected with:
- 37 Oracle's Functional idea aims to improve:
- 38 When you work at office equipments such as computers and printers are maintained by:
- 39 When work from home using hardware and software:
- A stress and tension.
- **B** consumption of goods.



- C the problem of less communication with colleagues.
- **D** many problems when equipment doesn't work.
- E transport equipment such as automobiles.
- F technical supporters.



Answer the question 40 and choose correct letter A, B, C or D.

Implied in the passage, what is the author's attitude toward Telework ?



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SECTION 1

Novice and Expert

Becoming an Expert

Expertise is commitment coupled with creativity. Specifically, it is the commitment of time, energy, and resources to a relatively narrow field of study and the creative energy necessary to generate new knowledge in that field. It takes a considerable amount of time and regular exposure to a large number of cases to become an expert.

An individual enters a field of study as a novice. The novice needs to learn the guiding principles and rules of a given task in order to perform that task. Concurrently, the novice needs to be exposed to specific cases, or instances, that test the boundaries of such heuristics

(启发式的). Generally, a novice will find a mentor to guide her through the process. A fairly simple example would be someone learning to play chess. The novice chess player seeks a mentor to teach her the object of the game, the number of spaces, the names of the pieces, the function of each piece, how each



piece is moved, and the necessary conditions for winning or losing the game.

B In time, and with much practice, the novice begins to recognize patterns of behavior within cases and, thus, becomes a journeyman. With more practice and exposure to increasingly complex cases, the journeyman finds patterns not only within cases but also between cases. More importantly, the journeyman learns that these patterns often repeat themselves over time. The journeyman still maintains regular contact with a mentor to solve specific problems and learn more complex strategies. Returning to the example of the chess player, the individual begins to learn patterns of opening moves, offensive and defensive game-playing strategies, and patterns of victory and defeat.

When a journeyman starts to make and test hypotheses (n.臆测、假定) about future behavior based on past experiences, she begins the next transition. Once she creatively generates



knowledge, rather than simply matching superficial patterns, she becomes an expert. At this point, she is confident in her knowledge and no longer needs a mentor as a guide—she becomes responsible for

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her own knowledge. In the chess example, once a journeyman begins competing against experts, makes predictions based on patterns, and tests those predictions against actual behavior, she is generating new knowledge and a deeper understanding of the game. She is

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creating her own cases rather than relying on the cases of others.

The Power of Expertise

An expert perceives (v.察觉、认知) meaningful patterns in her domain better than non-experts. Where a novice perceives random or disconnected data points, an expert connects regular patterns within and between cases. This ability to identify patterns is not an

innate perceptual skill; rather it reflects the organization of knowledge after exposure to and experience with thousands of cases. Experts have a deeper understanding of their domains than novices do, and utilize higher-order principles to solve problems. A novice, for example, might group objects together by color or size, whereas an expert would group the same objects according to their function or utility. Experts comprehend (v.理解) the meaning of data and weigh variables with different criteria within their domains better than novices. Experts



recognize variables that have the largest influence on a particular problem and focus their attention on those variables.

Experts have better domain-specific short-term and long-term memory than novices do. Moreover, experts perform tasks in their domains faster than novices and commit fewer errors while problem solving. Interestingly, experts go about solving problems differently than novices. Experts spend more time thinking about a problem to fully understand it at the beginning of a task than do novices, who immediately seek to find a solution. Experts use their knowledge of previous cases as context for creating mental models to solve given problems.

Better at self-monitoring than novices, experts are more aware of instances where they have committed errors or failed to understand a problem. Experts check their solutions more often than novices and recognize when they are missing information necessary for solving a problem. Experts are aware of the limits of their domain knowledge and apply their domain's heuristics to solve problems that fall outside of their experience base.

The Paradox of Expertise

A

The strengths of expertise can also be weaknesses. Although one would expect experts to be



good forecasters (n.预言家), they are not particularly good at making predictions about the future. Since the 1930s, researchers have been testing the ability of experts to

make forecasts. The performance of experts has been tested against actuarial tables to determine if they are better at making predictions than simple statistical models. Seventy

years later, with more than two hundred experiments in different domains, it is clear that the answer is no. If supplied with an equal amount of data about a particular case, an actuarial table is as good, or better, than an expert at making calls about the future. Even if an expert is given more specific case information than is available to the statistical model, the expert does not tend to outperform the actuarial table.

H Theorists and researchers differ when trying to explain why experts are less accurate forecasters than statistical models. Some have argued that experts, like all humans, are inconsistent when using mental models to make predictions. A number of researchers point to human biases to explain unreliable expert predictions. During the last 30 years, researchers have categorized, experimented, and theorized about the cognitive aspects of forecasting. Despite such efforts, the literature shows little consensus regarding the causes or manifestations of human bias.

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Complete the flow chart. Choose NO MORE THAN THREE WORDS from the passage for each answer. Write your answers in boxes 14-18 on your answer sheet.

	From a novice to an expert
Novice:	needs 14andto perform a given task; exposed to specific cases; guided by a 15through learning
Journeyman	starts to identify 16 within and between cases; often exposed to 17cases; contacts a mentor when facing difficult problems
Expert	create predictions and new 18; performs task independently without the help of a mentor



Questions 14-18

Do the following statements agree with the information given in Reading Passage 1? In boxes 19-23 on your answer sheet, write

TRUE	if the statement is true
FALSE	if the statement is false
NOT GIVEN	if the information is not given in the passage

19 Novices and experts use the same system to classify objects.

20 A novice's training is focused on memory skills.

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- 21 Experts have higher efficiency than novices when sloving problems in their own field.
- 22 When facing a problem, a novices always tries to solve it straight away.
- 23 Experts are better at recognizing their own mistakes and limits



Complete the following summary of the paragraphs of Reading Passage 1, using NO MORE THAN TWO WORDS from the Reading Passage for each answer. Write your answers in boxes 24-26 on your answer sheet.

Though experts are quite effective at solving problems in their own domains, their strengths can also be turned against them.Studies have shown that experts are less 24_____at making predictions than statistical models. Some researchers theorise it is because experts can also be inconsistent like all others.Yet some believe it is due to25_____but there isn't a great deal of 26_____as to its cause and manifestation.

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SECTION 2

You should spend about 20 minutes on Questions 14-26 which are based on Reading Passage below.

The Impact of Environment to Children

What determines how a child develops? In reality, it would be impossible to account for each and every influence that ultimately determines

who a child becomes. What we can look at are some of the most apparent influences such as genetics, parenting, experiences, friends, family relationships and school to



help us understand the influences that help contribute to a child's growth.

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Think of these influences as building blocks. While most people tend to have the same basic building blocks, these components can be put together in an infinite number of ways. Consider your own overall personality. How much of who

you are today was shaped by your genetic inheritance, and how much is a result of your lifetime of experiences? This question has puzzled philosophers, psychologists

and educators for hundreds of years and is frequently referred to as the nature versus nurture debate. Generally, the given rate of influence to children is 40 % to 50 %. It may refer to all of siblings of a family. Are we the result of nature (our genetic background) or nurture (our environment)? Today, most researchers agree that child development involves a complex interaction of both nature and nurture. While some



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aspects of development may be strongly influenced by biology, environmental influences may also play a role. For example, the timing of when the onset of puberty occurs is largely the results of heredity, but

environmental factors such as nutrition can also have an effect. (test papers offered by www.iyuce.com, copyright)

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just occur at certain moments or at certain periods of time; it is persistent and lifelong.

The shared environment (also called common environment) refers to environmental influences that have the effect of making siblings more similar to one another. Shared environmental influences can include shared



family experiences, shared peer groups, and sharing the same school and community. In general, there has not been strong evidence for shared environmental effects on many behaviors, particularly those measured in adults. Possible reasons for this are discussed. Shared environmental effects are evident in children and adolescents, but these effects generally decrease across the life span. New developments in behavior genetic methods have made it possible to specify shared environments of importance and to tease apart familial and nonfamilial sources of shared environmental influence. It may also refer to all of siblings of a family, but the rate of influence is less than 10 per cent.

The importance of non-shared environment lay hidden within quantitative genetic studies since they began nearly a century ago. Quantitative genetic methods, such

as twin and adoption methods, were designed to tease apart nature and nurture in order to explain family resemblance. For nearly all complex phenotypes, it has emerged that the answer to the question of the origins of family resemblance is nature—things run in families primarily for genetic reasons. However, the best available evidence for the importance of



environmental influence comes from this same quantitative genetic research because genetic influence never explains all of the variance for complex

phenotypes, and the remaining variance must be ascribed to environmental influences. Non-shared environment , it may refer to part of siblings of a family, the rate of influence to children is 40 % to 50 %.

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Yet it took many decades for the full meaning of these findings to emerge. If genetics explains why siblings growing up in the same family are similar, but the environment is important, then it must be the case that the salient environmental effects do not make siblings similar. That is, they are not shared by children growing up in the same family—they must be 'non-shared'. This implication about non-shared environmental import lay fallow in the field of quantitative genetics because the field's attention was then firmly on the nature–nurture debate. 'Nurture' in the nature–nurture debate was implicitly taken to mean shared

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environment because from Freud onwards, theories of socialization had assumed that children's environments are doled out on a family-by-family basis. In contrast, the point of non-shared environment is that environments are doled out on a child-by-child basis. Note that the phrase 'non-shared environment' is shorthand for a component of phenotypic variance—it refers to 'effects' rather than 'events', as discussed later. Research in recent years suggested that the impact from parents will be easy to be interrupted by the influence from the children of the same age .That also showed that variations of knowledge that children get from other culture is increasing. A number of interests between, whatever, fathers and mothers or parents and their children are conflicting.

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Because siblings living in the same home share some but not all of the potential genetic and environmental factors that influence their behaviours, teasing apart the potential influences of genetic and non-genetic factors that differentiate siblings is very difficult. Turkheimer and Waldron (2000) have noted that non-shared environmental influences—which include all of the random measurement error—may not be systematic, but instead may operate idiosyncratically and in ways that cannot be ascertained. Thus, the question is whether or not quasi-experimental behavioural genetic designs can be used to actually identify systematic non-shared environmental mechanisms cross sectionally and longitudinally. This is the impetus for the current study.

据考生回忆,本章还有一部分是关于 Harries 的研究讨论(这一部分拼接的原文缺失)



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Complete the table blow. Choose NO MORE THAN THREE WORDS from the Passage for each answer.

Type of Impact to Children	Range of Reference to Siblings	Rate of Influence
14background from parents and family	<i>Including</i> to all of siblings	40%-50%
Shared Environment	to15	less than16
17	to part of siblings	1850%



Complete the following summary of the paragraphs of Reading Passage, using NO MORE THAN THREE WORDS from the Reading Passage for each answer. Write your answers in boxes 19-21 on your answer sheet.

Research in recent years illuminated that the T我派则 你怎么
impact from parents will frequently predicting
be19 by the peers pressure. It was also indicated
that20 of knowledge that children learned from other culture
is increasing. Study has found quantities of competing21
between parents and children or even between parents themselves



Do the following statements agree with the claims of the writer in Reading Passage? In boxes 22-25 on your answer sheet, write

YESif the statement agrees with the claims of the writerNOif the statement contradicts the claims of the writerNOT GIVENif it is impossible to say what the writer thinks about this

- 22 The more children there are in a family, the more impacts of environment it is.
- 23 Methods based on twin studies still meet unexpected differences that can not be ascribed to be purely genetic explanation .
- 24 Children prefer to speak the language from the children of the same age to the language spoken by their parents.
- 25 The Study of non-shared environment influence can be a generally agreed idea among researchers in the field.

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Questions 26

Choose the correct letter, A, B, C or D. Write the correct letter in boxes 26 on your answer sheet.

26 According to this passage, which comment is TURE about the current Study of non-shared environment influence to children
A a little biased in nature
B not sufficiently proved
C very systematic
D can be workable *ipredicting* 电子版配权限账号可查看最新更新中文翻译和答案解析

雅思阅读真题 Version 36410

SECTION 1

The Adolescents

A The American Academy of Pediatrics recognizes three stages of adolescence. These are early, middle and late adolescence, and each has its own developmental tasks. Teenagers move through these tasks at their own speed depending on their physical development and hormone levels. Although these stages are common to all teenagers, each child will go through them in her own highly individual ways.

During the early years young people make the first attempts to leave the



dependent, secure role of a child and to establish themselves as unique individuals, independent of their parents. Early adolescence is marked by rapid physical growth and maturation. The focus of adolescents' self-concepts are thus often on their

physical self and their evaluation (n.评估) of their

physical acceptability. Early adolescence is also a period of intense conformity to peers. 'Getting

along,' not being different, and being accepted seem somehow pressing to the early adolescent. The worst possibility, from the view of the early adolescent, is to be seen by peers as 'different.'

Middle adolescence is marked by the emergence of new thinking skills. The

intellectual world of the young person is suddenly greatly expanded. Their concerns about peers are more directed toward their opposite sexed peers. It is also during this period that the move to establish



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(v.建立) psychological independence from one's

parents accelerates. Delinquency behavior may emerge since parental views are no longer seen as absolutely correct by adolescents. Despite some delinquent behavior, middle adolescence is a period during which young people are oriented toward what is right and proper. They are developing a sense of behavioral maturity and learning to control their

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impulsiveness (n.冲动).

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Late adolescence is marked be the final preparations for adult roles. The developmental demands of late adolescence often extend into the period that we think of as young adulthood. Late adolescents attempt to crystallize their vocational goals and to establish sense of personal identity. Their needs for peer approval are diminished and they are largely psychologically independent from their parents. The shift to adulthood is nearly complete.

Some years ago, Professor Robert Havighurst of the University of Chicago proposed that stages in human development can best be thought of in terms of the developmental tasks that are part of the normal transition (n.过渡). He identified

eleven developmental tasks associated with the adolescent transition. One developmental task an adolescent needs to achieve is to adjust to a new physical (adj.身体的、物理的) sense of self. At no other time since birth does an individual undergo such rapid and profound physical changes as during early adolescence. Puberty is marked by



sudden rapid growth in height and weight. Also, the young person experiences the emergence (n. 出我) and accentuation of those physical traits (n. 特征) that make him or her a boy or girl. The effect of this rapid change is that the young adolescent often becomes focused on his or her body.

Before adolescence, children's thinking is dominated by a need to have a concrete example for any problem that they solve. Their thinking is constrained to what is real and physical. During adolescence, young people begin to recognize and understand abstractions. The adolescent must adjust to increased cognitive (adj. $\frac{1}{3}$ $\frac{1}{3}$) demands at school. Adults see high school in part as a place where adolescents prepare for adult roles and responsibilities and in part as preparatory for further education. School curricula are frequently dominated by inclusion of more abstract, demanding material, regardless of whether the adolescents have achieved formal thought. Since not all adolescents make the intellectual transition at the same rate, demands for abstract thinking prior to achievement of that ability may be frustrating.

During adolescence, as teens develop increasingly complex knowledge systems and a sense of self, they also adopt an integrated set of values and morals (n.道



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德). During the early stages of moral development, parents provide their child with a structured set of rules of what is right and wrong, what is acceptable and unacceptable. Eventually the adolescent must assess the parents' values as they

come into conflict (n.冲突) with values expressed by peers and other segments of society. To reconcile differences, the adolescent restructures those beliefs into a personal ideology.



- The adolescent must develop expanded verbal skills. As adolescents mature intellectually, as they face increased school demands, and as they prepare for adult roles, they must develop new verbal skills to accommodate more complex (adj.复杂的) concepts and tasks. Their limited language of childhood is no longer adequate (adj.足够的). Adolescents may appear less competent because of their inability to express themselves meaningfully.
- I The adolescent must establish emotional (adj.情感的) and psychological independence from his or her parents. Childhood is marked by strong dependence on one's parents. Adolescents may yearn to keep that safe, secure, supportive, dependent relationship. Yet, to be an adult implies a sense of independence, of autonomy, of being one's own person. Adolescents may vacillate between their desire for dependence and their need to be independent. In an attempt to assert their need for independence and individuality, adolescents may respond with what appears to be hostility and lack (n.缺乏) of cooperation.

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Adolescents do not progress through these multiple developmental tasks separately. At any given time, adolescents may be dealing with several. Further, the centrality of specific developmental tasks varies with early, middle, and late periods of the transition.

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Match the following characteristics with the correct stages of the adolescent.

Write the correct letter, A, B or C, in boxes 1-6 on your answer sheet.

- A early adolescence
- B middle adolescence
- C later adolescence



- 1 interested in the opposite sex
- 2 exposure to danger
- 3 the same as others
- 4 beginning to form individual thinking without family context
- 5 less need approval of friends
- 6 intellectual booming

Questions 7-10

Complete each sentence with the correct ending, A-F, below. Write the correct letters, A-F, in boxes 7-10 on your answer sheet.

- 7 One of Havighurst's research
- 8 High school courses
- 9 Adolescence is time when young people
- 10 The developmental speed of thinking patterns

List of the statements

- A form personal identity with a set of moral and values.
- B develops a table and productive peer relationships.
- C are designed to be more challenging than some can accept.
- D varies from people to people.
- E focuses on creating self image.
- F become an extension of their parents.



Do the following statements agree with the information given in Reading Passage 1? *In boxes 11-13 on your answer sheet, write*

TRUE	if the statement is true					
FALSE	if the statement is false					
NOT GIVEN	if the information is not given in the passage					

- 11 The adolescent lacks the ability of thinking abstractly.
- 12 Adolescents may have deficit in their language ability.
- 13 The adolescent experiences a transition from reliance on his parents

to independence.



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SECTION 2

Researcher on the TreeCrwon

The forest canopy—the term given to the aggregated crowns of trees in a forest—is thought to host up to 40 per cent of all species, of which ten per cent could be unique to the forest most "We're dealing with the richest

the forest roof. "We're dealing with the richest, ______ least known, most threatened habitat on Earth." says Andrew Mitchell.



the executive director of the Global Canopy Programme (GCP), a collection of groups undertaking research into this lofty world. "The problem with our understanding of forests is that nearly all the information we have has been gleaned from just two metres above the soil, and yet we're dealing with trees that grow to heights of 60 metres, or in the case of the tallest redwood 112 metres. It's like doctors trying to treat humans by only looking at their feet."

- B Tropical rainforest comprises the richest of ecosystems, rivalled only by coral reel for its diversity and complex interrelationships. And a great deal of that diversity lives up in the canopy--an estimated 70-90 per cent of life in the rainforest exists in the trees; one in ten of all vascular plants are canopy dwellers; and about 20-25 per cent of all invertebrates (无脊椎 动物) are thought to be unique to the canopy.
- The first Briton to actually get into the canopy may have been Sir Francis Drake who, in 1573, gained his first glimpse of the Pacific Ocean from a tall tree in Darien, Panama. However, the first serious effort to reach and study the canopy didn't begin until 1929. The Oxford University Expedition to British Guiana, led by Major RWG Hingston, still ended up requiring the help of locals when it came to building an observation

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platform. It was a successful expedition all the same, despite the colony's acting governor getting stuck high up on a winched seat during a visit. In terms of canopy access, the French have proved themselves to be excellent innovators, taking things further with the development of 'lighter-than-air platforms'-balloons and related equipment, to you and me. Francis Halle; from the Laboratoire de Botanique Tropicale at Montpellier University took to a balloon in the mid-1980s in order to approach the canopy from above. His work in French Guiana was inspired by the use in Gabon of a tethered helium (氣气) balloon by Marcel and Annette Hladick. Halle went one further by using a small, purpose-built airship—a cigar-shaped balloon with propellers to aid manoeuvrability (机动性). "We suddenly had a mobile system that could move around the treetops; there was no other means of doing this," says Mitchell.

From this, two balloon-dependent features have developed: the radeau or raft, and the luge or sledge. The raft is a 'floating' platform, employed by French academics Dany Cleyet-Marrel and Laurent Pyot and is essentially an island in the treetops. Made of kevlar mesh netting and edged with inflated neoprene tubes, it rests on top of the canopy, allowing sampling

(mostly of plants and insects) to take place at the edges of the platform, and can stay in position for several days. The luge, on the other hand, is an inflated hexagon(充气六边形) similar to a traditional balloon basket but with a hole in the bottom covered with Kevlar mesh (橡胶网). Such techniques aren't

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without their problems, however. "Balloons can cover larger areas, especially for collection purposes, but they are extremely expensive-Jibe raft alone cost 122,000 [euro] (86,000 [pounds sterling]) in 2001], nut very effective because you can only reach the tops of the trees, and are highly dependent on the weather, " says Dr Wilfried Morawetz, director of systematic botany at the University of Leipzig. "Balloons can usually only be used in the early morning for two to four hours. Last time, we could only fly three times during a whole week." Given these factors, it comes as no surprise that operations involving these balloons numbered just six between 1986 and 2001.

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The next major innovation came from Alan Smith, who worked at the Smithsonian Tropical Research Institute in Panama. Smith had the idea of

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using a static crane to get into the treetops. Un-tethered balloons may allow widely distributed sites to be sampled, but cranes allow scientists to study an area of at least a hectare from soil to canopy throughout the year, year after year. "Cranes beat any other access mode. They are cheap, reliable and fast. In two minutes I can reach any point in our forest, which is essential for comparative measurements across species," says Professor Christian Korner of the University of Basel. Korner is using a static crane



in a unique carbon dioxide-enrichment experiment in Switzerland, in an attempt to discover how forests might respond to the global increase in atmospheric carbon dioxide (see Swiss canopy-crane carbon experiment, right). For reasons of convenience, cranes are generally situated close to cities or a research centre. Leipzig University has a crane not far

from the town, the location allowing scientists to study the effect of city pollutants on forests. In order to increase the amount of canopy a crane can access, some have been mounted on short rail tracks. In 1995, Dr Wilfried Morawetz was the first to use this technique, installing a crane on 150 metres of track in Venezuelan rainforest. "In my opinion, cranes should be the core of canopy research in the future," he says.

It appears that the rest of the scientific community has now come around to Mitchell's way of thinking. "I think most scientists thought him mad to consider such a complex field station at first," says internationally respected 'canopist' Meg Lowman, the executive director of the Marie Selby Botanical Gardens. "However, we've all come to realise that a combination of methods, a long-term approach to ecological studies and a collaborative approach are the absolute best ways to advance canopy science. A permanent canopy field station would allow that to happen." With a dedicated group of canopy scientists working together and a wide range of tools available for them to get into the treetops, we're now finally on our way towards a true understanding of the least-known terrestrial habitat.





The reading Passage has seven paragraphs A-F. Which paragraph contains the following information? Write the correct letter A-F, in boxes 14-18 on answer sheet.

- 14 The Scientific significance for committing canopy study.
- 15 the first academic research attempt mentioned to get to the top canopy.
- 16 the overview idea of forest canopy and the problem of understanding the forests.
- 17 a recognition for a long term effect and cooperation.

Ouestions 14-18

18 an innovation accessing to treetop which proved to be an ultimate solution till now.





Complete the following summary of the paragraphs of Reading Passage,

using no more than two words from the Reading Passage for each answer.

Write your answers in boxes 19-22 on your answer sheet.

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Use the information in the passage to match the people (listed A-F) with opinions or deeds below. Write the appropriate letters A-F in boxes 23-27 on your answer sheet.

NB you may use any letter more than once

A Sir Francis Drake B Wilfried Morawetz C Dany Cleyet-Marrel D Francis Halle E Christian Korner F Alan Smith



- 23 Scientist whose work was inspired by the method used by other researchers.
- 24 Scientist who made a claim that balloon could only be used in a limited frequency or time.
- 25 Scientist who initiated a successful access mode which is cheap and stable
- 26 Scientist who had committed canopy-crane experiment for a specific scientific project.
- 27 Scientist who initiated the use of crane on the short rail tracks.

SECTION 1

Finches on Islands

Today, the quest continues. On Daphne Major—one of the most desolate of the Galápagos Islands, an uninhabited volcanic cone where **cacti** (仙人掌) and shrubs seldom grow higher than a researcher's knee—Peter and Rosemary Grant have spent more than three decades watching Darwin's **finches** (n.雀) respond to the challenges of storms, drought and competition for food. Biologists at Princeton University, the Grants know and recognize many of the individual birds on the island and can trace the birds' lineages back through time. They have witnessed Darwin's principle in action again and again, over many generations of finches.

3 The Grants' most dramatic insights have come from watching the evolving (adj. 进化的) bill (n. 鸟嘴; 喙) of the medium ground finch. The plumage of this



sparrow-sized bird ranges from dull brown to jet black. At first glance, it may not seem particularly striking, but among scientists who study evolutionary biology, the medium ground finch is a superstar. Its bill is a middling example in the array of shapes and sizes found among Galápagos finches: heftier than that of the small ground finch, which specializes in eating small, soft seeds, but petite compared to that of the large

ground finch, an expert at cracking and devouring big, hard seeds.

When the Grants began their study in the 1970s, only two species of finch lived on Daphne Major, the medium ground finch and the cactus finch. The island is so small that the researchers were able to count and catalogue every bird. When a severe drought hit in 1977, the birds soon **devoured** (v.吞 食,毁灭) the last of the small, easily eaten seeds. Smaller members of the medium



ground finch population, lacking the bill strength to crack large seeds, died out.

D Bill and body size are inherited traits, and the next generation had a high proportion of big-billed individuals. The Grants had documented natural selection at work—the same process that, over many millennia, directed the evolution of the Galápagos' 14 unique finch species, all descended from a common ancestor

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that reached the islands a few million years ago.

Eight years later, heavy rains brought by an El Nino transformed the normally meager vegetation on Daphne Major. Vines and other plants that in most years

struggle for survival suddenly flourished (v.茂盛繁荣), choking out the plants that provide large seeds to the finches. Small seeds came to dominate the food supply, and big birds with big bills died out at a higher rate than smaller ones. 'Natural selection is observable,' Rosemary Grant says. 'It happens when the environment changes. When local conditions reverse themselves, so does the direction of adaptation.'



F Recently, the Grants witnessed (n. 目击,见证) another form of natural selection acting on the medium ground finch: competition from bigger, stronger cousins. In 1982, a third finch, the large ground finch, came to live on Daphne Major. The stout bills of these birds resemble the business end of a crescent wrench. Their arrival was the first such colonization recorded on the Galápagos in nearly a century of scientific observation. 'We realized,' Peter Grant says, 'we had a very unusual and potentially important event to follow.' For 20 years, the large ground finch coexisted with the medium ground finch, which shared the supply of large seeds with its bigger-billed relative. Then, in 2002 and 2003, another drought struck. None of the birds nested that year, and many died out. Medium ground finches with large bills, crowded out of feeding areas by the more powerful large ground finches, were hit particularly hard.

When wetter weather returned in 2004, and the finches nested again, the new generation of the medium ground finch was dominated by smaller birds with smaller bills, able to survive on smaller seeds. This situation, says Peter Grant, marked the first time that biologists have been able to follow the complete process of an evolutionary change due to competition between species and the strongest response to natural selection that he had seen in 33 years of tracking Galápagos finches.

On the inhabited island of Santa Cruz, just south of Daphne Major, Andrew Hendry of McGill University and Jeffrey Podos of the University of Massachusetts at Amherst have discovered a new, man-made twist in finch evolution. Their study focused on birds living near the Academy Bay research station, on the fringe of the town of Puerto Ayora. The human population of the area has been growing fast—from 900 people in 1974 to 9,582 in 2001. 'Today Puerto Ayora is full of hotels and mai tai bars,' Hendry says. 'People have taken

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this extremely arid place and tried to turn it into a Caribbean resort (n.度假胜地).'

Academy Bay records dating back to the early 1960s show that medium ground finches captured there had either small or large bills. Very few of the birds had



mid-size bills. The finches appeared to be in the early stages of a new adaptive radiation: If the trend continued, the medium ground finch on Santa Cruz could split into two distinct subspecies, specializing in different types of seeds. But in the late 1960s and early 70s, medium ground finches with medium-sized bills began to

thrive at Academy Bay along with small and large-billed birds. The booming human population had introduced new food sources, including exotic plants and bird feeding stations stocked with rice. Billsize, once critical to the finches' survival, no longer made any difference. 'Now an intermediate bill can do fine,' Hendry says.

- J At a control site distant from Puerto Ayora, and relatively untouched by humans, the medium ground finch population remains split between large- and small-billed birds. On undisturbed parts of Santa Cruz, there is no ecological niche for a middling medium ground finch, and the birds continue to diversify. In town, though there are still many finches, once-distinct populations are merging.
- K The finches of Santa Cruz demonstrate a subtle process in which human meddling can stop evolution in its tracks, ending the formation of new species. In a time when global biodiversity continues its downhill slide, Darwin's finches have yet another unexpected lesson to teach. 'If we hope to regain some of the diversity that's already been lost,' Hendry says, 'we need to protect not just existing creatures, but also the processes that drive the origin of new species.'



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You should spend about 20 minutes on question 1-13, which are based on reading passage 1 on the following pages.



Complete the table below.

Choose NO MORE THAN TWO WORDS from Reading Passage 1 for each answer. Write your answers in boxes 1-4 on your answer sheet.

Year	Climate	Finch's condition
1977	1	small-beak birds failing to survive,
		without the power to open 2
1985	3 brought	big-beak birds dying out, with
	by El Nino	4as the main food resource





Complete the following summary of the paragraphs of Reading Passage 1, using NO MORE THAN TWO WORDS from the Reading Passage for each answer. Write your answers in boxes 5-8 on your answer sheet. On the remote island of Santa Cruz, Andrew Hendry and Jeffrey Podos conducted a study on reversal 5.....due to human activity. In the early 1960s medium ground finches were found to have a larger or smaller beak. But in the late 1960s and early 70s, finches with 6..... flourished. The study speculates that it is due to the growing 7..... who brought in alien plants with intermediate-size seeds into the area and the birds ate 8...... sometimes.



Do the following statements agree with the information given in Reading Passage 1? In boxes 9-13 on your answer sheet, write

TRUE	if the statement is true
FALSE	if the statement is false
NOT GIVEN	if the information is not given in the passage

- 9 Grants' discovery has questioned Darwin's theory.
- 10 The cactus finches are less affected by food than the medium ground finch.
- 11 In 2002 and 2003, all the birds were affected by the drought.
- 12 The discovery of Andrew Hendry and Jeffrey Podos was the same as that of the previous studies.
- 13 It is shown that the revolution in finches on Santa Cruz is likely a response to human intervention.

SECTION 2

BIRD MIGRATION

- Birds have many unique design features that enable them to perform such amazing feats of endurance. They are equipped with lightweight, hollow bones, intricately designed feathers providing both lift and thrust for rapid flight, navigation systems superior to any that man has developed, and an ingenious heat conserving design that, among other things, concentrates all blood circulation beneath layers of warm, waterproof plumage, leaving them fit to face life in the harshest of climates. Their respiratory systems have to perform efficiently during sustained flights at altitude, so they have a system of extracting oxygen from their lungs that far exceeds that of any other animal. During the later stages of the summer breeding season, when food is plentiful, their bodies are able to accumulate considerable layers of fat, in order to provide sufficient energy for their long migratory flights.
- The fundamental reason that birds migrate is to find adequate food during the winter months when it is in short supply. This particularly applies to birds that breed in the temperate and Arctic regions of the Northern Hemisphere, where food is abundant during the short growing season.



Many species can tolerate cold temperatures if food is plentiful, but when food is not available they must migrate. However, intriguing questions remain.

- One puzzling fact is that many birds journey much further than would be necessary just to find food and good weather. Nobody knows, for instance, why British swallows, which could presumably survive equally well if they spent the winter in equatorial Africa, instead fly several thousands of miles further to their preferred winter home in South Africa^ Cape Province. Another mystery involves the huge migrations performed by arctic terns and mudflat-feeding shorebirds that breed close to Polar Regions. In general, the further north a migrant species breeds, the further south it spends the winter. For arctic terns this necessitates an annual round trip of 25,000 miles. Yet, en route to their final destination in far-flung southern latitudes, all these individuals overfly other areas of seemingly suitable habitat spanning two hemispheres. While we may not fully understand birds' reasons for going to particular places, we can marvel at their feats.
- One of the greatest mysteries is how young birds know how to find the traditional wintering areas without parental guidance. Very few adults migrate with juveniles

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in tow, and youngsters may even have little or no inkling of their parents' appearance. A familiar example is that of the cuckoo, which lays its eggs in another species' nest and never encounters its young again. It is mind boggling to consider that, once raised by its host species, the young cuckoo makes it own way to ancestral wintering grounds in the tropics before returning single-handedly to northern Europe the next season to seek out a mate among its own kind. The obvious implication is that it inherits from its parents an inbuilt route map and direction-finding capability, as well as a mental image of what another cuckoo looks like. Yet nobody has the slightest idea as to how this is possible.

Mounting evidence has confirmed that birds use the positions of the sun and stars to obtain compass directions. They seem also to be able to detect the earth's magnetic field, probably due to having minute crystals of magnetite in the region of their brains. However, true navigation also requires an awareness of position and time, especially when lost. Experiments have shown that after being taken thousands of miles over an unfamiliar landmass, birds are still capable of returning rapidly to nest sites. Such phenomenal powers are the product of computing a number of sophisticated cues, including an



inborn map of the night sky and the pull of the earth's magnetic field. How the birds use their 'instruments' remains unknown, but one thing is clear: they see the world with a superior sensory perception to ours. Most small birds migrate at night and take their direction from the position of the setting sun. However, as well as seeing the sun go down, they also seem to see the plane of polarized light caused by it, which calibrates their compass. Traveling at night provides other benefits. Daytime predators are avoided and the danger of dehydration due to flying for long periods in warm, sunlit skies is reduced. Furthermore, at night the air is generally cool and less turbulent and so conducive to sustained, stable flight.

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Nevertheless, all journeys involve considerable risk, and part of the skill in arriving safely is setting off at the right time. This means accurate weather forecasting, and utilizing favorable winds. Birds are adept at both, and, in laboratory tests, some have been shown to detect the minute difference in barometric pressure between the floor and ceiling of a room. Often birds react to weather changes before there is any visible sign of them. Lapwings, which feed

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on grassland, flee west from the Netherlands to the British Isles, France and Spain at the onset of a cold snap. When the ground surface freezes the birds could starve. Yet they return to Holland ahead of a

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thaw, their arrival linked to a pressure change presaging an improvement in the weather.

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G In one instance a Welsh Manx shearwater carried to America and released was back in its burrow on Skokholm Island, off the Pembrokeshire coast, one day before a letter announcing its release! Conversely, each autumn a small number of North American birds are blown across the Atlantic by fast-moving westerly tail winds. Not only do they arrive safely in Europe, but, based on ringing evidence, some make it back to North America the following spring, after probably spending the winter with European migrants in sunny African climes.



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Reading passage 2 has seven paragraphs, A-G

Choose the correct heading for each paragraph from the list of headings below. Write the correct number, i- x_{γ} in boxes 14-20 on your answer sheet.

List of headings

- i The best moment to migrate
- ii The unexplained rejection of closer feeding ground
- iii The influence of weather on the migration route
- iv Physical characteristics that allow birds to migrate
- v The main reason why birds migrate
- vi The best wintering grounds for birds
- vii Research findings on how birds migrate
- viii Successful migration despite trouble of wind
- ix Contrast between long-distance migration and short-distance migration
- x Mysterious migration despite lack of teaching

14 Paragraph A
15 Paragraph B
16 Paragraph C
17 Paragraph D
18 Paragraph E
19 Paragraph F
20 Paragraph G

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Choose TWO letters, A-E.

Write the correct letters in boxes 21 and 22 on your answer sheet. Which TWO of the following statements are true of bird migration?

- A Birds often fly further than they need to.
- B Birds traveling in family groups are safe.
- C Birds flying at night need less water.
- D Birds have much sharper eye-sight than humans.
- E Only shorebirds are resistant to strong winds.



Complete the sentences below using NO MORE THAN TWO WORDS from the passage.

Write your answers in boxes 23-26 on your answer sheet.

23 It is a great mystery that young birds like cuckoos can find their wintering grounds without

24 Evidence shows birds can tell directions like a _____ by observing the sun and the stars.

25 One advantage for birds flying at night is that they can avoid contact with____

26 Laboratory tests show that birds can detect weather without ______signs.

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SECTION 3

打哈欠的秘密

A 1980年代,当一个科学家开始研究打哈欠的时候,他很难说服自己所带的学生相信这项研究是有价值的。尽管看起来是有点诡异的,但是这位科学家想要进行打哈欠的研究并不是没有逻辑基础的,打哈欠的研究是人类发展神经科学的延伸,在论文中被称为和研究"在发展和演化中拍动翅膀"是一样的。但是作为一个神经行为学的问题,小鸟扇动翅膀和打哈欠的人伸懒腰带动身体和面部还是有区别的。(第 38 題 iyuce. com copyright)



打哈欠是一个古老原始的行为,人类在还没出生前就已经 开始了,小宝宝在妈妈的子宫里会张开嘴。一些蛇分开自 己的上下颚来完成打哈欠的动作。有一种企鹅将打哈欠作 为自己交配的动作之一。但是只有在近些年来,研究人员 才开始弄明白我们为什么会打哈欠,以及我们什么时候会 打哈欠和为什么打哈欠会传染。费城 Drexel 大学的一位 认知神经科学的教授 Steven Platek 研究为什么打哈欠会 传染,而这种现象只存在人类和灵长类动物身上。(第 34 题 iyuce. com copyright)



- C 在他的第一个实验中,他是使用心理学测试来按人们的情感排序,他发现参与 测试的人中间在同情心方面得分不高的人一般不太会受别人打哈欠的传染。 Platek 教授说:"我们经常会听到人们说"为什么我们要盯着打哈欠的人看?实际上这并没有任何效果。""(第 39 题 iyuce.com copyright)
- D在他的第二个实验中,他将 10个学生放在磁共振扫描机器中,让他们看别人在打哈欠时的视频,发现当这些学生在看别人打哈欠的视频时,控制人情感的位于大脑中部的后皮层开始活动。Platek 教授说"我们并不清楚是否友善的人更经常打哈欠,但是这是一个反映人在认真对待一件事情的心理状态的很好的指标。"(第36题 iguce.com copyright)
- E 他的第三个实验是研究有精神疾病的人打哈欠的情况,比如说孤独症和精神分裂症的患者,这些人在情感上很难和他人真正交流。马里兰大学的一位教授 Robert Provine 是其他少数研究打哈欠的学者之一。他发现最基本的一个打哈欠的动作持续大约 6 秒钟,两次打哈欠的间隔一般是 68 秒,男性和女性打哈欠或是打一半哈欠的频率差不多,但是男性不大会像女性那样在打哈欠的时候将手捂在嘴上,这可能说明了不同性别之间在打哈欠的动作上有显著的不同。Provine 教授还说:

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"被别人看着打哈欠的人是打不出哈欠的。"但是打哈欠的根本原因还一直是一个 谜。有的研究者认为,打哈欠和大脑下丘脑的部分有关系,而这个部分还控制人 的呼吸。(第 28, 29, 30 题 iguce. com copyright)

F 打哈欠和伸懒腰有共同的特征,它们经常连为一体。但是他俩并不总是同时发生, 我们通常在伸懒腰的时候打哈欠,但是当我们打哈欠的时候通常不会伸懒腰,特别是在睡前打瞌睡的时候。J.I.P., G.H.A. Visser 和 H.F. Prechtl 在 1980 年 代早期,用超声波绘出婴儿早期发育的图,发现在预产期快结束的时候,不仅婴儿会打哈欠,而且打哈欠和伸懒腰之间那时就有一定的联系了。(第 35,31 题 iguce.com copyright)

关于打哈欠和伸懒腰之间的联系最典型的表现是在因为中风导致大脑损伤从而一侧瘫痪的病人身上。英国著名的神经学家 Sir Francis Walshe 在 1923 年惊奇地发现,当这些偏瘫的患者打哈欠时,他们另一侧瘫痪的胳膊会自动上下伸展,神经学家将其称为"相应联达"。打哈欠显然是激活了未

受损伤的部分,从而无意识地控制大脑和与瘫痪的肢体 之间的联系。但是人们还不清楚是否这种相应联达是偏 瘫病人恢复的预兆,或是打哈欠对肌肉重生或是组织肌 肉萎缩有效果。(第 32, 40 题 inuce. com copyright)

诊断神经学带来其它令人震惊的发现,一些闭锁综合症的患者,尽管他们几乎不能有任何移动,但是他们都能 很正常地打哈欠。打哈欠时的神经回路肯定是在脑干部 位靠近呼吸和血管舒缩中心,因为那些只有延髓脊髓的



无脑畸形儿依然可以打哈欠。而造成打哈欠会传染的多样的刺激可能是由大脑更高级的区域控制。(第 37 题 iyuce. com copyright)

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SECTION 1

History of Refrigeration

A 制冷这个术语指的是冷却一片区域或物质使其低于环境温度,是一个除热的过程。机械制冷利用液体制冷剂的蒸发来吸收热量。制冷剂经过一个循环的制冷过程,以便被重新使用,主要的制冷循环为:蒸气压缩循环、吸收式循环、蒸汽喷射或引射循环,以及空气循环。马里兰农民托马斯•摩尔于 1803 年首次提及冰箱这一术语。这个现如今为我们所熟知的设备首次出现在 20 世纪。

B 在机械制冷系统出现之前,人们利用不同的方式来储存食物。有些人喜欢用 在当地或从山上拿来的冰或雪来保存食物,有时候也会用到储存在地窖里冰或 雪。使用这些技术意味着 饮食中很少会有新鲜的食物或水果蔬菜,主要吃面包、 奶酪和腌肉。牛奶和奶酪很难保持新鲜,只能存储在地窖或开窗盒里。尽管有这 些方法,缺也无法阻止它们的速变质。人们急需一个更好的制冷系统来保存食物。 后来,人们发现在水里添加化学品硝酸钠和硝酸钾会引起水温下降。用这项技术 冷却葡萄酒的最早记录出现在 1550 年,出现了"冷藏"这个术语。冷饮于 1600 年在欧洲变得非常流行,尤其是在西班牙、意大利和法国。人们使用一种新技术 来取代在晚上冷却水,即在溶解有硝酸钾的水中旋转长颈瓶。这个方法能得到温 度极低的水,甚至冰。17 世纪末,冷饮,包含冷冻果汁和酒,在法国社会非常 流行。

C 对冰的需求很快变得强烈。消费者对新鲜食品,特别是对农产品的需求,导致了 1830 年到内战期间发生的饮食改革,城市的急剧增长和普通民众的经济地位的改善也加速了这一进程。随着城市增长,消费者和食物来源之间的距离也在变远。1799 年,冰第一次作为商品从纽约的运河街运到南卡罗来纳的查尔斯顿。但是这次尝试失败了,因为到达目的地时,冰块已所剩无几。新英格兰的弗雷德里克•都铎和纳撒尼尔•怀斯看到了冰块行业存在的巨大的潜力,在 19 世纪上半年的时候,他们的努力彻底改变了工业。被称为"冰王"都铎,更关注将冰运往热带。为了确保产品安全到达,他尝试了不同的隔热材料,并且建造了冰室将融化损失从 66%降至不到 8%。怀斯开发出一种廉价、快速、均匀切割冰块的方法,改变了冰块行业。他使冰的快速贮存、运输和销售技术成为了可能,且浪费少。

1720年,苏格兰人威廉•卡伦博士是首位研究液体在真空中蒸发的人。后来在1748年,在格拉斯哥大学,通过在部分真空中将乙醚煮沸,他向我们展示了首次已知的人工制冷。美国发明家奥利弗•埃文斯在1805年发明了第一个用蒸汽代替液体的制冷机。虽然他没有实际造出机器,但一个名叫约翰•格利的美国医生在1842年制造了一个非常类似于埃文斯的冷却机的机器,用于给佛罗里达医院里的黄热病患者降温。他的基本原理仍然是现今的冰箱最常使用的。他发现,冷却空气最好的方法是压缩气体,再让其通过辐射线圈使其冷却,然后使其膨胀来使温度更低。在他放弃医疗实践而致力于冰的生产之后,埃文斯于1851年被授予美国的机械制冷的第一个专利。1820年,伦敦人迈克尔•法拉第首次通过液

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化氨来制冷。法国的费迪南德•凯莉在 1859 年建造了第一个氨/水制冷机。卡尔• 冯•林德在制冷机的发明中也有很大的影响力。1873 年,他在慕尼黑设计了第一个 实用的移动式压缩制冷机; 1876 年,他开始使用氨循环来取代他在早期模型中 使用的甲醚。后来在 1894 年的时候,林德开发出一种新技术(林德技术)应用于 大量空气的液化。近十年后,芝加哥的肉类加工业是下一个采用机械制冷的。

上从 1840年代开始,冷藏车被用来运输牛奶和黄油。到 1860年,冷藏运输大多仅限于海鲜和乳制品。1867年,J.B.萨瑟兰在密歇根州的底特律申请了铁路冷藏车的专利。他设计了一辆两端是冰仓的隔热车。空气从顶部进入,通过冰仓, 重力使空气在车中循环,并使用挂片来控制车内空气温度的差异。不论是冷藏肉类还是水果,很多不同的车都根据这种货柜的类型来设计。第一个运载新鲜水果的冷藏汽车由伊利诺斯帕克•厄尔建于 1867年,他将草莓从伊利诺伊中央铁路运来。每箱含 100 磅的冰和 200 夸脱的草莓。直到 1949年,制冷系统才以弗雷德• 琼斯专利的前置式制冷设备的形式进入了货运行业。

▶ 19 世纪末到 1929 年制造的冰箱使用有毒气体氯甲烷、氨和二氧化硫作为制 冷剂。由于冰箱中氯甲烷的泄露,20 世纪 20 年代发生了很多致命事故。在发生 了这些可怕的事故之后,三家美国公司开始研究比较安全的制冷方法。1928 年, 北极牌公司发现了一种称为卤烃或氟氯化碳(含氯氟烃)的新的合成制冷剂。这 个研究导致了氯氟化碳的发现(氟利昂),氯氟化碳迅速成为压缩机冰箱的标配。 氟利昂对于那些周围环境是安全的,但却在 1973 年被詹姆斯•洛夫洛克教授发现 它对臭氧层是有害的。为了防止进一步损害,他们有了新的发现,比如对臭氧层 有未知损害的氢氟碳化物。氯氟碳化物(CFS)不再被使用。一些地方明令禁止使 用氯氟碳化物,使得今天的制冷系统比以往任何时候都更安全。

SECTION 1

蒙戈人 Mungo man

➡ 五万年前,澳洲人第一次迈开了向这片陆地的东南部开拓的步伐,等待他们的是 一片绿林繁茂的土地。那时的温度比现在要低。巨型史前动物群,像袋狮,巨蜥,和这 种犀牛般大小的双门齿动物数目繁多。3 组蒙戈人遗骸化石的发现清晰地向考古学家昭 示着一个故事:曾经有一群蒙戈人带着他们的家人生活在蒙戈湖岸四周。[第9题]这个 蒙戈人小的时候,他的两颗下犬牙掉了,可能是在一次仪式上敲掉的。等到成年,他长 到了 1.7m 的个头。这么多年来,他的臼齿渐渐磨损,臼齿上还有刮痕,可能是由于他 平时吃的东西里面沙子太多,或许因为为了制作麻绳,他需要经常用牙齿咬掉水芦苇的 长长叶子。随着他一天天老去,这个蒙戈人遭受着关节炎给他带来的骨骼上的疼痛,尤 其是他的右胳膊肘,骨骼破坏如此严重,有一部分骨头已经完全磨损,甚至裂开了。这 是一种常年使用标枪投掷器扔掷矛枪的人所患的典型性骨头磨损。这个蒙戈人活到了 50 岁,50 岁的寿命对于靠采猎为生艰难度日的蒙戈人来说已经相当长了。他的家人为 他默哀,小心翼翼地把他埋葬在这个半圆冢中,让他面部朝上,将他的双手交叉放在大腿上,洒上代赭石。蒙戈人是迄今为止所知道会采用这种仪式的最古老人类

▶ 这段埋藏于地下的历史在 1969 年被墨尔本大学地质学家 Jim Bowler 发现。他当时正在搜寻古代湖泊,无意间发现了一具蒙戈女子的遗体,这名蒙戈女子是被火葬的[第1题]。接着在 1974 年,他找到了第二具完整的骨骸,这次是一名蒙戈男子,葬在离女子 300 米远的地方[第 11 题]。通过碳测定年代法,这具骨骸一开始是被估计年龄在 28000 年至 32000 之间, 碳测定年代法可靠测定年代范围在 4 万年左右。之后通过对 25 种不同沉淀物层进行综合分析,得出这两个墓穴已经有 40000 年的历史。

C 这与 1999 年由澳洲国立大学 Alan Thorne 率领的团队所测定的 62000 年相比大大 年轻了很多 。现代社会不同派别之间关于蒙戈人的研究也存在互相竞争的观点。因为 Thorn 是澳洲本土"走出非洲"理论的主要反对者一"走出非洲"理论认为智人只有 一个发源地。"而他支持的是多地区起源论的支持者 (多地区起源论认为现代人类通 同时出现非洲,欧洲和亚洲,并且源于同一始祖,即 150 万年前离开非洲大陆的直立 人,)"如果蒙戈人是 20000 年前离开非洲的后代, Thorn 反驳道, 那么他的线粒体 DNA 就应该与其他样本是一样的。

然而, "走出非洲"理论的支持者绝对不会就此放弃他们所支持的理论。来自英国伦敦国家历史博物馆的 Chris Stringer 教授说,研究界希望看到在澳洲研究者们下定论之前,其它实验室能出现重复结果。但是即使假定 DNA 的排序是正确的,Stringer 博士说那只能说明远古人类的基因多样性比人们以前意识到的丰富得多。但这并不能表明这些澳洲人类化石的始祖可以追溯到 100 万或者是 200 万年前。相反却恰恰说明现代人类来自非洲的可能更大了。对于 Bowler 来说,这些争论使得人们的思考偏移了这次研究的主要发现。他说,凭借着 40000 年的高龄,这对蒙戈男女称得上是澳洲最古老的被埋葬的人类,他们也可以作为地球文化复杂性的最早证明。截至到那个时候,现在人类甚至都还没有到达北美。而在欧洲,现代人类也是刚刚开

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始在尼安德特人周边居住下来。 1997 年, Paabo 领导的研究小组对 1856 年发现于德 国 Feldhofereld 山洞的尼安德特人的遗骸进行了研究,这是人类首次发现的尼安德 特人遗骸 。他们还原了一组线粒体基因组,很明显这具骨骸比"夏娃学说"研究的 骨骸年龄还要大很多,比与从在克罗地亚和俄罗斯发现的其他尼安德特人骨骸还原的 线粒体基因组也要大

▶ Thorn 反驳说 Bowler 的研究团队只使用了一种测量日期法,而他用了三种。最好的做法是方法用至少两种,但结果相同。一位 Thorn 团队的成员 Rainer Grun 教授说尽管不同实验室得出的最新结果是一致的,但这并不意味着这些结果就完全是正确的。目前我们有两组数据互相矛盾,我还不能给出合理的解释。"但 Thorn 已经表态说蒙戈人的年龄与关于人类起源的争论毫无关联。最近的化石发现表明在中国早在 11 万年前现代人类就出现了。"因此蒙戈人还要过好长一段时间才在澳洲出现。不管他是 40000年前出现还是 60000年前出现也好,这个都不重要。

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GTim Flannery 博士是富有争议的"闪电捕杀"理论的拥护者,这个理论认为澳洲的 巨型动物群在 46000 年前被到来者在一次闪电战式的捕猎活动中赶尽杀绝,他声称对蒙 戈人出现的日期的最新测算支持了这个观点。 2001 年 Bowler 团队中的一名成员,卧 龙岗大学的 Richard Robert 博士与南澳大利亚博物馆的 Flannery 一起发表了他们对 该理论的研究成果。他们测量了分布在澳洲陆地 28 处遗址的年龄,声称他们的分析显 示巨型动物是在 46000 年前突然灭绝的。Flannery 称赞 Bowler 团队关于蒙戈人的研 究是对古代人类遗骸年限"最彻底,最有力的测算"。他说这次发现表明人类在 46000 年至 50000 年前到达蒙戈湖,而这段时间是澳洲历史上的关键时期。并没有明显的证据 表明那个时候有发生过剧烈的气候变化。他说:"在我看来,人类的到来和巨型动物群 的灭绝几乎发生在同一地质时期。"

☐ 但是, Bowler 对于 Flannery 的理论却深表怀疑,他说关于蒙戈人的研究并没有给 Flannery 的理论提供新的关键性依据。他反驳说发生在 40000 年前的气候变化比之前 认知到的要剧烈的多,可能因此导致巨型动物群的死亡。"将巨型动物群的灭绝怪罪于 最早期的澳洲人是夸大其词。"



SECTION 2



- A 水下的世界存在许多挑战。最基本的(技能)应对就是运动。因为水的密度 导致动物很难移动。向前移动就是一个复杂的的互动的水下力量作用结果。 另外,水本身也在运动。强劲的水流拥有不可思议的力量,可以很容易地携把 生物一扫而空。水上运动的挑战导致各种各样的动物所使用的各种游泳的方 法。结果是一个令人眼花缭乱的水下芭蕾。
- B 一条鱼的运动依靠他们的骨架、鳍和肌肉。骨骼的主要功能是帮助其他部分的运动。他们的头骨作为支点而他们的椎骨作为杠杆。脊柱由一系列由韧带在一起的椎骨,但链接不是那么严格僵硬,使得每一对椎骨之间都允许轻微横向运动。因此,整个脊柱具有灵活性。头骨是



一条鱼的唯一真正的固定部分。它的本身不移动和开合,而是作为一个稳定其他的骨头的点。这些其他的骨头作为杠杆,引起鱼的身体的运动。

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骨骼提供运动,肌肉则提供运动的力量。一个典型的鱼在身体周围各个方向有数百块肌肉。这就是为什么鱼会扭曲和改变迅速或方向。在一系列脊柱从头到尾的两侧肌肉的合同或单一方交替运作,导致身体如同波浪一样的动作传递了下去。这种运动在鱼如鳗鱼可能中非常明显,但是在如鲭鱼等其他鱼中几乎察觉不到。波的频率变化从角鲨50个/分钟到鲭鱼大约170/分钟。头和身体的侧面和向后推力,依靠水的阻的反作用力将鱼向前和侧向推进。当相应的一组肌肉在另一边协同,鱼产生类似从水中阻力的力量。一般两个侧(外)向力大小相等、方向相反,除非鱼正在转弯,所以他们互相抵消了,留下两个向前力量矢量总和

D 肌肉参与游泳有两种主要类型。鱼的身体的大部分是由所谓的白色肌肉构成, 而在鳍的根部和一条沿着中心线的每个侧面的中心的规模小得多区域是由于 红色的肌肉覆盖。红色的肌肉负责的血液供应,并且包含大量的脂肪和糖原 (葡萄糖的储存形式)用于大多数日常游泳运动。相比之下,白色肌肉的不是 主要的血液供应和极少存储能量,它主要用于短期、快速游泳。这可能看上去 很奇怪,一个动物能如此有效地适应它的环境应该却是几乎完全由一种很少

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使用的肌肉(白色肌肉)覆盖全身。然而,一条鱼这个巨大的辅助动力单元, 对于特殊情况(如果鱼的生命受到威胁——遭遇捕食者)却具有至关重要的 意义。例如,它使鱼游泳迅速远离危险。

E 一个鱼的鳍是最鲜明的特点,从体内突出的皮肤覆盖和链接的骨凸刺结构

成,无论是是否是在大多数硬骨鱼 常见的有蹼的形式,或者更类似见诸 于见鲨鱼的鳍类型。这些通常作为的 鱼游泳的一种手段。但我们必须强 调,游泳运动是几乎由整个身体的肌 肉提供,尽管只有少数鱼类的鳍也贡 献一点推进力!鱼鳍的主要功能是 控制的稳定性和方向:水经过它的身



体,使用其的推力使得鱼朝向它希望的方向走。

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位于不同的地方的鳍通常为不同的目的:如前进、转弯,保持一个直立的位置。 尾鳍,在其在最后的(位置)冲击,可能贡献高达 40%的向前的推力。中位鳍, (位于背、肛门和腹侧)则控制鱼通过增加垂直于水表面的力量控制滚动和 偏航运动。双侧鳍(位于胸和骨盆)充当水平舵和控

備加运动。双侧鳍(位) 胸和骨盆) 元当水干 化和控 制鱼的倾斜, 拥有的肌肉产生根据一定角度的向下或 向上的鱼的运动。位于前面的胸鳍处于重力中心, 非 常适合移动, 主要是负责鱼向上或向下。双侧偶鳍也 可以充当鱼运动减慢和停止的作用。



G 相对于人们通过观察一个水族馆或池塘内鱼的快速运动(所希望的)那样, 鱼的游泳速度不是那么快。金枪大约是 44 英里/每小时,最快的鳟鱼记录为做 23 英里/每小时,梭子鱼冲刺 20 英里/每小时,长途游动大约 10 英里/每小时, 而大多数的小鱼可能不超过 2 或 3 英里。许多人试图作出准确的测量各种鱼 游泳的速度,通过在已知距离定时(在自然环境或人为游泳泳道)确定他们的 表现。从这些研究中,我们可以大致归类鱼分成四组:"sneaker",如鳗鱼,只 能够减缓速度但拥有一些持久力;"滞留者 stayers",长期游泳非常快;"短 跑选手 sprinters",可以生成的速度快(例如 梭子鱼);和"爬虫 crawlers"缓 慢的游泳者,虽然他们可以加速(例如,鲤科鱼)。

一类型的旗鱼被认为是在短距离最快的鱼类,在三秒钟内达到 68 英里/每小时,垂钓者记录了在更长时间内好几种金枪鱼速度超过 40 英里/每小时 。当然可能会考虑一个鱼的游泳能力与它的尺寸关系。然而,一般确实是一个小的鱼是比一个个体更大的更能游泳。另一方面,所有其他因素不变的情况下,速度按英里每小时计算,一条大体积的鱼能够比一个较小的鱼游得更快。



SECTION 2

阿尔弗雷德·诺贝尔

诺贝尔奖背后的人

- A 自 1901 年,全球各地在物理、化学、医学、文学及和平领域作出重大贡献的人们就开始被授予诺贝尔奖。阿尔弗德•诺贝尔在 1895 年写下最后的一份遗嘱时,将大量的遗产留作创建诺贝尔奖,为诺贝尔奖奠定了基础。
- B 阿尔弗雷德•诺贝尔于 1833 年 10 月 21 日出生于斯德哥尔摩。他的父亲伊曼 纽尔•诺 贝尔是位工程师兼发明家,在斯德哥尔摩建造桥梁和建筑。在建筑 工程中,伊曼纽尔-诺 贝尔也试验过用不同的技术爆破岩石。由于在工业和 企业经营上的成功,伊曼纽尔•诺 贝尔于 1842 年带着全家人来到圣彼得堡。 在那里,他雇请私人教师对他的孩子进行一流 的教育。上课内容包括自然 科学、语言和文学。到 17 岁时,阿尔弗雷德•诺贝尔已经能 讲流利的瑞典 语、俄语、法语、英语和德语了。他主要的兴趣是英国文学和诗歌以及化 学 和物理。诺贝尔的父亲希望他的儿子们能成为工程师,继承他的事业,所以 他对诺贝 尔爱好诗歌这一点感到很不悦,而且他发现诺贝尔相当内向。
- C 为了扩大儿子的视野,老诺贝尔送儿子出国深造化学工程。诺贝尔在两年里访问了 瑞典、德国、法国和美国。他最喜欢巴黎,在那里,他在著名的化学家 T.J.佩卢兹教 授的私人实验室工作。同样在那里,他认识了年轻的意大利化学家阿斯卡尼奥•索布雷罗。索布雷罗在三年前发明了爆炸能力极强的炸药——硝化甘油。不过由于危险太大,当时没有考虑将它投入实际应用。虽然硝化甘油的爆炸力远远超过火药,但这种液体炸药在 一定温度和压力的作用下会以难以预测的方式发生爆炸。诺贝尔对硝化甘油以及如何将 它投入建筑工程的实际运用产生了浓厚的兴趣。他也意识到需要解决安全问题,以及如 何控制硝化甘油的爆破。
- 于 1863 年重返瑞典后,诺贝尔开始专注于制造硝化甘油炸药。经历几次爆炸事故(包 括 1864 年那次事故,他的弟弟埃米尔和其他几个人被炸死)后,当局认定硝化甘油产品 极度危险,于是明令禁止在斯德哥尔摩进行硝化甘油试验。诺贝尔只好把他的实验搬到 梅拉伦湖的一只船上进行。诺贝尔并没有因此气馁,并于 1864 年开始大规模生产硝化甘油。为了使硝化甘油的 使用更加安全,诺贝尔用了不同的添加剂进行试验。不久后,诺贝尔发现 硝化甘油可被硅藻土吸附,变成浆糊,然后可以塑造成大小合适的棒体,插进钻孔里。1867 年,他将发明的炸药命名为"达那马特"(又称安全炸药),并取得专利。为了引爆这种炸药,他还发明了用导火线点燃的雷管引爆装置。诺贝尔的这些发明问世时,恰逢风钻在大规模地被使用。这些装置的结合大大地减少了爆破岩石、开凿隧道、挖掘河道以及其他许多建筑工程的成本。

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诺贝尔发明的炸药和雷管的市场发展迅速,而这也证明了他是一个非常成功 的企业 家和商人。多年来,诺贝尔在 20 多个国家约 90 个不同的地方建立 了工厂和实验室。尽 管定居巴黎,但是他大部分的时间都在各地奔波。如 果不是在外奔波或为商业活动应酬,诺贝尔就会在他的各个实验室(先是在 斯德哥尔摩的,后来在其他地方)忙碌工作。他 专注于改良爆炸技术以及 其他化学发明,包括合成橡胶和皮革、人造丝等物质。到 1896 年诺贝尔逝 世时,他已获得 355 项专利。

- F 紧张的工作和出行使得他没有多少私人时间,,到 43 岁时,诺贝尔觉得自己就像是个老人。于是他在报纸上刊登了一则广告,称"一个富有的、受过良好教育的老绅士寻找一位成熟女士,她要能担当秘书和管家,且有语言天賦"。结果,最合格的应聘者是奥地利的女伯爵贝莎•金斯基。在为诺贝尔工作了很短的一段时间后,她决定返回奥地利,与阿瑟•冯•苏特纳伯爵结婚。尽管如此,诺贝尔和贝莎•冯.苏特纳仍保持朋友关系,且在此后的几十年里互有通信。多年来,贝莎•冯.苏特纳越发猛烈地批评军备竞赛。她写了一本名著《放下你的武器》,还成为了和平运动的一个杰出人物。这无疑对诺贝尔产生了影响3 在他的最后一份遗嘱里,诺贝尔增设了和平奖,以奖励那些促进和平的个人或团体。在诺贝尔去世的几年后,挪威议会决定把 1905年的诺贝尔和平奖授予贝莎•冯-苏特纳。
- G 诺贝尔于 1896 年 12 月 10 日在意大利的圣雷莫去世。当打开他的遗嘱时, 人们大吃 一惊,他们没有想到诺贝尔会把大量遗产留作表彰那些在物理、 化学、生理学或医学、 文学和和平方面做出重大贡献的人。诺贝尔的遗嘱 执行人是两位年轻的工程师,他们分 别是拉格纳•索尔曼和鲁道夫•利耶查 李维斯特。他们着手成立诺贝尔基金会,来管理诺 贝尔留下的金融资产, 并协助颁奖机构的工作。当然,由于这份遗嘱受到诺贝尔亲成的 异议以及

各国当局的质疑,他们开展的工作还是遇到了困难。

诺贝尔的伟大之处在于他综合了科学家、发明家的睿智和实业家的高瞻远 瞩。同时,他对社会及与和平相关的问题非常感兴趣,并持有在他那个时代 被认为是激进的想法。此外,诺贝尔十分爱好文学,还创作了自己的诗歌 和戏剧作品。可以说,诺贝尔奖是他 毕生各种兴趣的延伸和实现。

频课程 提供阅读真题预测详细预测解



SECTION 1

托马斯 杨:最后一个无所不知的人

A 我们该怎样理解托马斯 杨 (1773-1829)?他是《大不列颠百科全书》中 63 篇文章的作者,其中包括 46 篇传记(大部分都是关于科学家和古典学者),和 大量关于"桥""色彩论""埃及""语言""潮汐"等的论文。一个能够写出 这样多有权威性文章的人应该算是一个博学者?一个天才?还是一个业余兴 趣广泛的人呢?在一篇关于他的比较激进的传记中,Andrew Robinson 认为托 马斯 杨是一位强有力的竞争者能够配得这样的墓志铭"是最后一个知道任何 事的人"。但是杨也要面对竞争:因为这样的传记标题 Robinson 不仅给了他, 也作为副标题给了有关另两位学者的传记:Lenard Warren 1998 年著的《古 生物学家 Joseph Leidy 的一生(1823-1891)》以及 Paula Findlen 2004 年 著关于另一位博学者 Athanasius Kircher (1602-1680)的传记。(第8、1、2 题 iyuce. com copyright)

B 当然杨的贡献远不止写了很多百科全书上的文章,他在 20 岁的时候将自己的 第一篇论文自荐给伦敦皇家学会,并在他的 21 岁生日后被评为一周科学人物, 杨在该篇论文中解释了人类眼睛的调节机制——关于眼睛如何通过不同的距 离聚焦在物体上。在后面的文章中,他更加全面地探讨了这个问题,类似牛顿, 他在自己身上进行了可怕的实验用以获得相关的证据,他还得出这样的理论: 光是通过"以太"分子的振动,以波的形式进行传递的,而"以太"是一种假 想物质,其存在还存在争议性。他还认为为了能看见颜色,必须要有 3 个感应 器对"三原色"进行感应,而这三种视网膜对其产生感应的颜色就是红,黄, 蓝三种颜色。(第 3、9 题 iyuce. com copyright)

在他人生的晚些时候,也就是 40 多岁的时候,杨试图破解锁在罗塞塔石碑里的未知文字密码,这个石碑是在 1799 年在埃及被拿破仑的军队发现的,并且从 1802 年起就在英国博物馆进行展出。该石碑上包含了 3 种不同的字母:希腊语,不可辨识的文字以及埃及的象形文字。这种不可辨识的文字现在被认为是正如杨所推断的是很普通的,是和象形文字直接相关的。他最初有关这方面的工作首次出现在他在《大不列颠百科全书》中编纂的词条。在另一个条目中,他创造了术语"Indo-European"来描述在欧洲大部分地区以及北印度使用的语言。这些都是这是这位从小就展露科学天赋并且不像很多孩子后来江郎才尽的科学家获得的里程碑式的成就。(第 10、4 题 iyuce.com copyright)

1. 托马斯杨出生在英国萨默塞特郡一个虔诚的教友会教徒家庭,从小和他的外公一起长大,最后去了寄宿学校。他两岁的时候就博览群书,并且自学熟练掌握了拉丁语,希腊语,数学以及哲学,在很大程度上他受到了舅舅 Richard Brocklesby 的鼓励,他的舅舅也是英国皇家学会的一位内科医生。在Brocklesby 的引导下,杨决定要在医学方面有所建树,他曾先后在伦敦大学、爱丁堡大学和格丁根大学学习医学,多亏了 Brocklesby 的引荐,杨进入了英

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国皇家学会,他最后也打破了从小在教友会的教育,他参加戏剧演出,学习跳舞和吹笛子,此外,他还是一位杰出的马术师。(第 11、5 题 iyuce.com copyright)

E 在 1808 年结束在剑桥大学的医学学习后,杨在伦敦开了一家诊所,很快他就 成为皇家内科医生学会的一员,并且几年后成为圣乔治医院的一名内科医生。

F 杨作为内科医生的医术却赶不上他作为自然哲学学者或是语言学家取得的成就,早在1801年,他已经被任命为英国皇家学会的教授,他每年要在那里举办60场的讲座。这些讲座在1807年以两本书的形式进行出版。1804年杨就已经成为英国皇家学会的秘书,而他获此殊荣直至去世。他的很多观点关注人民和国家事务,比如说在伦敦引进煤气照明和造船方法。从1819年起,他就是航海天文年历的主要负责任,也是 Board of Longitude 的秘书。从1824年到1829年,他担任 Palladian 保险公司的精算师和内科医生。在1816年和1825年间,他为《大不列颠百科全书》编纂了许多词条,而且穷其一生著作,论文无数。(第12、6、13题 iyuce.com copyright)

G我们通过杨在医学课上胡乱写的希腊字母和拉丁文短语以及他将一位年轻的 女士写在避暑山庄墙上的诗句翻译成挽歌可以看出他的幽默,但是他的个人生 活也因着自己对工作和研究的全情投入而略显苍白。

他在 1804 年和 Eliza Maxwell 结婚,据 Robinson 所述"他们的婚姻是幸福的,因为他的夫人欣赏他的工作"。我们对于他夫人的了解仅限于她在她丈夫备受一些关于眼睛的理论方面争议的时候总是坚定地支持他,并且当他的医学生涯开始慢慢起飞的时候,她开始有些担心钱的问题。(第 7 题 iyuce.com copyright)

值得一提的是,杨没有被保护的人,他都是和自己的导师进行互动——先是他的外公,后市 Brocklesby——还有先于他过失的一些伟人(其中很多是很著名的如牛顿,杨最早在17岁读了他写的书)。

但是关于杨和他母亲以及父亲的关系的记述却鲜为人知, Robinson 在说到杨 的非凡的头脑时也并没有将其归功于他的父母,或许很难有这样的巧合:过去 的天才都是由于卓越的父母教育造就的。



SECTION 2

珊瑚礁是由珊瑚分泌的碳酸钙构成的水下结构。珊瑚礁为那些生活在几乎没有养料的海 洋水域的细小生物提供了聚集场所。大部分珊瑚礁是由石珊瑚的骨骼组成的,反过来说, 珊瑚礁里包含了成群成群的珊瑚虫。

珊瑚礁 The Coral Reef

A 据估计,珊瑚礁的总覆盖面积为28.43万平方公里,连海洋表面面积的0.1%都不到, 大约为法国国土面积的一半。其中印度一太平洋海域就占了总面积的91.9%[第21题]。 东南亚占32.3%,而太平洋地区(包括澳大利亚在内)占40.8%。[第14题]大西洋和加 勒比海域的珊瑚礁占总面积的7.6%。珊瑚礁经常被称为"海洋里的热带雨林", 珊瑚 礁构成了地球上最多样化的生态系统。它们为25%的海洋生物提供了栖息地,包括鱼, 软体动物,蠕虫,甲壳类动物,棘皮动物,海绵,被囊类动物和其它刺胞动物。[第20 题]自相矛盾的是,尽管身处几乎不含养分的海水水域里,珊瑚礁仍然能够茂盛生长。 珊瑚礁通常都长在热带水域浅水水域,但是在其它地区的深水水域和冷水水域也存在小 量的珊瑚礁。尽管温带水域和热带水域都有珊瑚礁,浅水珊瑚礁只存在于赤道以南30 度和赤道以北30度的区域内。深水珊瑚礁可以在高纬度地区,北至挪威,更深,温度更 低的水域生存。美国和非洲的西海岸几乎没有珊瑚礁。根本上是因为上涌流和冰冷的近 岸流降低了当地的水温 (分别为秘鲁寒流,本格拉寒流和加纳利海流)。从最东端的 印度 (马德拉斯)到孟加拉国再到缅甸边界的南海海域也鲜有珊瑚礁。南美洲的东北 海岸以及孟加拉国海域几乎也找不到珊瑚礁的踪影,这是因为亚马逊河和恒河在这里有 大量的淡水入海。

珊瑚礁为旅游业,渔业和海岸线保护提供了生态系统服务。珊瑚礁在全世界的价值 被估计高达3750亿美元之多。珊瑚礁通过吸收潮汐能保护海岸线,如果没有珊瑚礁的保 护,许多小岛都不复存在了。

在生物种类丰富的地区,珊瑚礁的价值会更高[第16题]。在印尼和加勒比国家海地区,珊瑚礁主要用作旅游,基于维护沙滩,吸引浮潜者和水肺浮潜游客所花费的成本,每平方公里珊瑚礁的价值估计有100万美元。同时,一份对澳大利亚大堡礁的最近研究发现大堡礁对于澳大利亚而言,它的价值更多的是在于它是一个完整的生态系统,而不是那里的天然渔业储备。每年超过180万的游客去大堡礁旅游,他们在潜水,租船,豪华渡假酒店等与珊瑚礁有关的项目的花费高达43亿澳元。联合国环境规划署说,在加勒比海地区,2000年来自潜水旅游的年净收入是20亿美元,其中0.625亿来自珊瑚礁潜水。



并且,珊瑚礁旅游业是重要的工作岗位提供来源,尤其是给世界上最贫困的人群[第24 题]。联合国环境规划署说,发展中国家小规模作业的渔民的数量有3000万,其中大部 分在不同程度上都依靠着珊瑚礁。比如说,在菲律宾,超过100万的进行小规模作业的 渔民的生计直接就依赖珊瑚礁。这份报告估计珊瑚礁渔场平均1平方公里的年产值在 15000美元到15万美元之间。捕捉1千克鱼用来吃值6美元,而为水族馆捕捉1千克的鱼值 500美元。仅仅是在斯里兰卡,出口鱼用于水族馆养活了大约50000人,一年产值大约550 万美元。【第15题】

 不幸的是,世界各地的珊瑚礁正在死去。【第17题 原因见后】特别是对珊瑚的开采,农业用水和城市用水的排放,污染(有机和无机),疾病,挖掘水道通往岛屿或者海湾,都是对生态系统的局部威胁。更广泛的威胁是海水温度的上升,海平面的上升,以及海洋酸化产生的时值的变化,所以这些都与温室气体的排放有关。一些捕鱼作业具有破坏性,并且是非持续性的。这其中包括用氢化物麻醉鱼,过度捕鱼,用炸弹炸鱼。尽管用氢化物捕鱼可以为热带水族馆市场提供活的珊瑚礁鱼类,但是大部分用这种方法捕捉到的鱼都是卖给了餐馆,主要是亚洲国家的餐馆,因为人们很看中鱼的新鲜度。用氢化物捕鱼,捕鱼者要潜水到达珊瑚礁,然后朝珊瑚缝隙和快速游动的鱼身上喷洒氢化物,先弄晕这些鱼然后抓它们就很容易了。过度捕鱼是导致珊瑚礁数量下降的另外一个主要原因。当鱼大量地从一个珊瑚礁里被抓走,导致的结果就是那片地区鱼的数量将无法维持。一些糟糕的捕鱼行为,比如说用棍子敲击珊瑚礁 (这个称为muro-ami捕鱼技术),会破坏珊瑚结构,而这些地方通常就是鱼类的栖息地。还有一些例子就是人们用爆炸物去捕鱼 (炸鱼),这样会把周围的珊瑚也炸开。【第19题】

游客居住的度假酒店把污水直接排放到珊瑚礁周围的水域,这也会导致珊瑚礁数量下降。那些装在维护不善的化粪池里的垃圾也有可能会渗透进周围的地下水,最终渗透到珊瑚礁。粗心的驾船,潜水,浮潜和捕鱼行为都有可能会破坏珊瑚礁。每当人们抓,踢或者踩在珊瑚上面,或者搅动珊瑚礁里的沉淀物,他们都在破坏珊瑚礁。当人们把锚固定在珊瑚礁上或者采摘珊瑚的时候,他们正在伤害甚至是在要珊瑚的命【第18题】。

为了找到解决这些问题的方法,科学家和研究者研究了各种影响珊瑚礁的因素。这些因素包括,海洋对二氧化碳的吸收作用,大气变化,紫外线光,海洋酸化,病毒,给 广袤的珊瑚礁带去作用剂的沙尘暴造成的影响,污染物,藻化现象以及其它一些因素。 不仅仅只是沿海地区的珊瑚礁才面临危险。综合评估表明世界上将近10%的珊瑚礁都已 经死了。全世界大约60%的珊瑚礁因为一些破坏活动,或者人为因素处于危险境地。东 南亚的珊瑚礁的健康状况所面临的威胁尤其巨大,那里80%的珊瑚礁已经濒临灭绝。

与 在澳大利亚,大堡礁得到了大堡礁海洋公园管理处的保护,也是许多法律法规的保护对象,其中包括一项生物多样性行动计划。在环礁湖的六个地区,阿赫斯岛,马努斯省和巴布亚新几内亚的居民沿用着已经流传几代的限制性捕鱼作业。他们的文化传统允许他们使用绳钓鱼法,但是不允许用网去网鱼或者用矛去刺鱼。这样做的结果就是,与对捕鱼不设限制的地区相比,这里的单位面积鱼数量和鱼的个头明显更多更大。



SECTION 2

Tele working 远程办公

A 在远离办公室的地方利用电脑远程办公被看作是对公司,环境和社会都很有 好处的办公方式。这个看法引发了有过远程办公经验的人的不同反应。不管你喜欢还是不喜欢,确实远程办公使得工作不再受限于地域以及一系列新的工作方式和环境成为可能。设在 Bonn 的 Empirica 估计在过去的 3 年里,欧洲的远程办公的人数已经翻倍至 2000 万。(第 28 题 iyuce. com copyright)

- 有调查显示,由于远程办公带来的工作效率的增加不仅仅是因为延长的工作时间(有时是这样的),尽管普遍来看增加的工作时间是众多影响因素之一,但是它并不是最重要的因素。在对远程办公的人员和非远程办公人员的严格比对后发现,远程办公不仅使工作效率提高,还大大降低了旷工和出错的概率。
- C 欧洲研究项目 SUSTEL 还发现,远程办公还在经济方面做出贡献,因为它可以减少旷工和增加空间的使用率。在影响旷工率方面,有超过 60%的调查显示,远程办公可以使公司职员在(因为生病或是交通堵塞而)不能去公司上班时仍然在家办公。有近一半的调查显示,远程办公还节约了大量的办公空间,以至于有的公司直接撤掉了以前的中心办公室。这种办公方式也使得在周末时职员不用乘车上下班,在家工作的职员包括很多即使不是远程办公的人,能够不用像传统意义上的职员那样赶着上下班,他们周末可以花更多的时间出门购物。(第 29 题 iyuce.com copyright)
- 半远程办公能够减少碳的排放量高达每年 5100 万吨,相当于全纽约人一年的因为上下班往返所产生的的碳的排放量。远程办公在其它减少碳排放的方面还包括节约办公室能源,减少公路维修,城市供暖,办公室建设,出差旅行,纸张使用(因为电子文档取代了纸质文档)。尽管能源消耗会随着工业的扩张和人们生活水平的提高而继续增加,能源的有效利用还是很重要的。远程办公而不是使用传统的方式办公,可以节约大量的能源。能源通过这种方式节约主要体现在三方面,交通工具相关的材料和资源,高速公路相关的材料和资源,以及工作相关的材料和资源。(第 30, 31, 32 题 iyuce. com copyright)
- 生产交通设施需要消耗大量的能源,比如说汽车,公交车,火车和直升飞机。 如果远程办公能够推广,这些交通设施的使用就会减少,使得为了生产,维修和 维护这些交通工具和设施的能源消耗也相应减少。用来操作这些交通工具的所需 的燃料和天然气也相应减少,建造和维护高速公路需要大量能源的消耗,不仅仅 是在修建和维修方面,在生产和运输方面也需要大量的原材料。远程办公人员的 增加可以减少建造和相关养护高速公路的需要,这两方面需要都和外出上班紧密 相关。(第 33,34 题 iyuce. com copyright)

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欧洲研究项目 SUSTEL 还发现,很多调查反馈者都认为远程办公改善了人们的 生活水平,使职员更好地平衡工作和生活,还有很多人认为远程办公还对职员的 身体健康有益。此外很大部分人认为远程办公可以使职员更多地受益于当地的服 务,更加融入当地的社区。远程办公使得团队协作和团队精神的缺乏通过像甲骨 文公司提出的"功能型"办公室的理念来弥补。这个办公室旨在增加人们像在 办公室里时的那种交流和互动,人们可以在一家咖啡厅互相激发灵感和进行面对 面的交流。(第 37 题 iyuce. com copyright)

研究还发现,许多远程办公的职员所说的办公时间的增加和生活水平的提高是相互矛盾的。增加的办公时间往往伴随着压力的增加,内部矛盾的增加以及其它会使生活质量下降的因素的增加。一个可能的解释是,对于很多个人来讲,他们增加的工作时间比他们花在上下班路上的时间要少,因此,他们还是有很多的时间用来陪伴家人和参加其它的活动。对于一些人来说,上下班交通带来的压力(尤其是长途的)是比因为增延长工作时间而带来的压力来得要小的。可能最重要的是,远程办公可以通过同时进行多个任务和增加对多样事情的控制力来"创造"出时间。正如一个接受调查的人所说"尽管时间总量并没有发生变化,但是远程办公使得周末时间更加自由,因为很多家庭活动都可以安排在中午吃饭时间或是清早。"

1 有资料显示,从 20 世纪 80 年代开始,信息和通信技术使得远程办公有了长 期增长。使得远程办公有了长远增长的因素包括:增长的动力,信息通讯技术的 使用越来越方便,2006 年有超过 70%的美国家庭都有个人电脑和网络接口,宽带 渗透率高达 40%。科技发展带来的好处还有:时间节约,工作时间的灵活性,减 少的交通压力和地域的灵活性。

研究结果并没有说明远程办公可能带来的潜在的"反弹效果",这种反弹效果 指的是因为价格的降低,人们可能会消耗更多的物品,而且休闲时间的增加可能 也会导致人们参加其它消耗能源高的活动。比方说,人们可能不会去零售商店买 一张 CD,但是会在网上下载单曲,这样可以节省 10 到 12 美元。为了强调这种 效果,我们还必须考虑对消费者来说可能的替代消费品。(第 35 题)

当你在办公室或是寝室远程办公的的时候,一旦电脑的软件或是硬件坏了,唯一的办法就是打电话叫 IT 专家来修理。事实上,所有在办公室使用的设备都是由这些技术人员提供支持的,比如说电脑,电话,网络服务,电脑网络,办公室和其它与办公室相关的设备。(第 38 题 iyuce. com copyright)

公当你在家办公的时候,可就不是这样了!尽管公司向一些远程的办公岗位提供 硬件和软件(以及维护),但很多岗位没有这样的支持。即使你的工作是联络员,可能你自己也得按照硬件和软件的指南来使用。这就意味着你自己得负责各式各 样的办公工具的日常的更新和维护,比如说有线电话,电脑,网络连接,笔记本 手机,打印机以及其它的办公用品。当你在家工作的时候,你肯定会遇到电脑技 术方面的问题,从哪里获得你需要的帮助呢?如果你电脑硬驱今天崩溃了,你有 足够的钱去修理它吗?(第 39 题 iyuce. com copyright)



SECTION 1

新手与专家

专业知识总是高不开创造性,具体来看,将时间,精力和资源投入到一个相对小的领域进行研究,需要创造性在该领域获得新的知识。要成为一名专家需要大量的时间和接触大量的实 战实例。

A 每个人都是以菜鸟的身份进入一个新的领域。菜鸟需要学习最基本的原理 以及既定任务的法则来完成该项任务。与此同时,菜鸟还需要面对具体的实

例或是情况,这也能够测出启发式教育的成 果。一般来说,菜鸟需要找一个导师来帮助他 顺利进行这个过程。举一个最简单的例子,如 果有人要学习下象棋,菜鸟就需要找一个导师 告诉他象棋的目标,棋盘的棋子的总数,每一 枚棋子的名字,每一枚棋子的功能,怎么移动 以及最后决定输赢的必要条件。

B 随着时间的投入和不断的练习,菜鸟开始能 够识别实例内部行为的类型,成为一个熟练学 徒,通过更多的练习和接触更为复杂的实例,

使得已经成为熟练学徒的学徒不仅能识别实例内部的类型也能够看出不同 实例之间的联系。更为重要的是,成熟的工人发现这些实例的类型会重复 出现。成熟工人仍然需要和导师保持联系来**解决一些具体的问题并且学习** 更加复杂的策略。回到刚才讲的学习下棋的例子,莱鸟开始慢慢学习怎样 开棋,进攻以及防守这类的下棋策略,以及判断赢输的情况。

当一个熟练学徒开始通过以往的经验来预测未来的情况是,他开始了向下一个阶段的过渡。一旦熟练学徒开始创造性地获取知识而不是简单地根据类型来将实例进行匹配的时候,他就成为了一名专家。在这个阶段,他开始自信于自己所掌握的知识,不再需要一名导师——他自己可以自由运用自己的知识,在刚才举的下棋的例子中,一旦一个熟练学徒开始和专家进行竞争,根据掌握的类型来做出预测,并且根据实际的行为来检验该预测,他就获取了新的知识,并且对象棋有了更深的理解。他开始创造出自己的下棋攻略而不是依赖于别人的经验。

列列举的下棋的例子只是一个简短的描述来说明学徒关系的模型。学徒关系可能看起来像严格的 18 世纪教育模式,但是现在仍然是许多复杂任务训练的标准方法。学术博士项目就是建立在这样的学徒模型上的,比如说法律,音乐,工程学和医学。毕业生进入研究领域,寻找导师,开始了成为独立专家的漫长过程,并且在他们各自的领域产生新的知识。

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E 心理学家和认知学家一致认为成为专家所需的时间取决于任务的复杂程度 以及实例的数量或是需要面对的实例的类型。任务越复杂,所需的时间就 越多来学习专业知识,或者更准确地说,需要更长的时间来增加经验并且 储存大量的实例。

专业知识的力量

- F 一位专家比非专家能在专业领域觉察更有意义的行为类型,而菜鸟只能随意地观察没有关联的数据,专家将实例内部和实例之间的有规律的类型联系起来。这种分辨类型的能力并不是一个先天就具备的技能,而是在接触了成百上千的实例后获得的知识的结晶。专家对于该领域比菜鸟有更深的理解,使用高位的原则来解决问题。比如说菜鸟可能会根据颜色和大小来进行分组,然而专家会根据功能或是用处来进行分组。专家理解数据的含义,通过比菜鸟更为合理的方法运用行业的标准来衡量不同的变量。专家能够认出对特定问题有最大影响的变量,并且聚焦在这些变量上。
- G 专家比菜鸟在长期和短期方面具备更好的专业性知识,并且专家比菜鸟在 专业领域执行速度更快,而且在问题解决的时候犯较少的错误。有趣的是, 专家和菜鸟相比,解决问题的方式不同,并且会先弄清楚问题的实质才开 始解决,而菜鸟往往一开始就想直接找到解决方案。专家运用他从过往经 验作为背景获取的知识来建立一个头脑中的模型来解决特定问题。
- 专家和菜鸟相比,更擅长于自我检测,他们更容易意识到自己曾经犯过错的地方或是没能理解的问题,在他们察觉到自己可能错过一些信息时,会比菜鸟在更经常地检查自己的解决方案。专家总是能意识到他们领域知识的有限,并将它们专业领域的启发式学习应用出来来解决他们专业领域之外的问题。

专业知识的悖论

专家的长处也是他们的弱点,尽管人们都期待专家是一个成功的预言家, 但是他们并不是特别擅长对未来做出预测。自 1930 年代,研究者一直在测试专家做出预测的能力。专家 的表现是根据数据统计来检测的,来确定他们的预测 不仅仅是依据简单的数据模型。70年后,在不同领域进行了 200 多个实验, 试验结果表明答案是否定的,如果一个实例中有相同量的数据,数据统计 比专家更能对未来做出正确的预测。即使专家能获得比数据模型更加具体 的实例信息,也不见得会比数据统计表在预测方面做得更好。

理论学家和研究者在试图解释为什么专家在做预测方面逊于统计模型,一 些人认为专家像其他所有人一样,在做预测时运用不同的头脑中的模型, 大量的研究者指出在解释不可靠的专家预测时人们存在的偏差。在过去的 30年,研究者已经分类,实验并提出相关理论来认知预测的各个方面。尽 管研究者做了各种努力,历史资料显示,没有足够的数据显示上述问题和 人类认知偏差之间有直接的联系。

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SECTION 2

环境对孩子的影响 The Impact of Environment to Children

A 什么决定孩子的发展?在现实生活中,不可能找出每一个会决定孩子发展的 影响因素,我们所能看到的是一些最明显的影响因素,像是基因,父母教育,最 验,朋友,家庭关系以及学校,它们可以帮助我们理解到哪些影响会帮助孩子的成长。

我们试着把这些影响因素看成是积木,尽管很多人似乎有着相同的基础积木,



但这些元件可以有无限多中可能性的摆放方法。试着综合你自己的总体个性想象,你现在的样子有多大部分是你的遗传基因决定的?还有多大部分是你的人生匈历决定的?这个问题已经困扰了很多哲学家,心理学家和教育学上百年,也就是一直备受争议的"天性还是教养"的问题。总的来说,这对孩子的既定影响率是 40%-50%,这种影响可能是指家里的所有兄弟姐妹产生的。我们现在的样子究竟是天性使然(我们的基因)还是后天的教养(我们所处的环境)造成的?当今很多研究者认同一点,孩子的发展涉及一系列天生和后天环境的复杂的相互作用。尽管孩子发展的有些方面

受到生物学方面很强的影响,环境影响的作用也是不可忽视的。比方说,孩子的 青春期的开始时间很大程度上取决于遗传因素,但是后天环境因素比如说营养也 对其有一定的影响。

本生命之初,遗传和后天环境的相互作用一起决定孩子的当下和将来的发展。 基因遗过从父母的遗传为孩子未来之路提供一张地图,但是后天环境会影响这些 如何实现以及成型。这种天生和后天环境的复杂的相互作用不是在孩子一生的某些特定时刻或是特定时期发生。而是持续一生之久。

共同环境是指让家里弟兄姐妹更加相似的环境影响。共同环境影响包括共同的家庭经历,共同的同龄人同伴,以及共同的学校和社区。总体而言,有证据表明共同的环境影响会对人的很多行为有影响,尤其是对成年人来讲。大家一直在

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讨论造成这种结果可能的原因。共有的环境影响对小孩和青少年的影响是不言而 喻的,但是随着他们年龄的增长,这种影响呈递减趋势。随着测量基因对行为影 响的方法不断有新的发展,辨别具体的共同环境对孩子的影响的重要性变为可 能,并且可以弄清楚共同环境影响哪些是来自家族或非家族遗传的影响。共同环 境可能包括一个家庭中的所有兄弟姐妹,但是这方面的影响仅仅占到不到10%。

直到一个世纪前,定量基因学研究的出现,才让非 共同环境影响的重要性凸显出来。定量基因学研究方 法,比如双胞胎和领养,是为了进一步弄清楚天生和 后天环境的影响以便来解释家庭的相似性。几乎所有 的复杂的表现型行为来说,具有家族相似性,而在家



族中这种天然的遗传性的来源主要是家族内部基因。但是最好的对后天环境影响 的重要性的解释恰恰也来自同样的定量基因研究,因为单纯基因的影响不能解释 所有的复杂表现型行为的差异,剩下的一些差异存在的原因只有归于后天环境的 影响。非共同环境指的是家庭里的部分弟兄姊妹带来的影响,此环境对孩子的影 响占到 40%-50%。

但是直到好几十年后,人们才逐渐明白这些研究发现的全部意义。如果说基因 可以解释为什么成长与同一个家庭里的弟兄姐妹具有相似性,那么后天环境的重 要性就在于它可以解释为什么这些弟兄姊妹具有差异性。也就是,这种影响不是 孩子在共同环境中产生的,那么就一定是在非共同环境中产生的。这种关于非共 同环境影响的解释一直没有在定量基因研究方面得到重视,因为以前定量基因研 究一直致力于解决"天性还是教养"之争。"天生和教养"之争中的"教养"曾 经一度被认为是指共同的生活环境,因为自 Freud 之后,关于社会化的理论假定 孩子的生活环境是以家庭为基础单位的。与此相对,非共同环境被认为是一每个 孩子个体为基础单位的。请注意"非共同环境"这个术语是显性变化构成部分的 缩写,是指"影响"而非"事件",正如接下来要谈到的。近些年的研究表明, 来自父母对孩子的影响很容易被来自同龄人对孩子影响的干扰。同时也表明孩子 从其它文化中获得的知识的差异性也在不断增加。很多父母之间或是父母和孩子 之间的许多利益往往是冲突的。

因为住在同一个家庭里的兄弟姐妹共享一些而非全部能影响他们行为的基因和环境因素,所以完全分清楚使得弟兄姊妹不同的基因和非基因因素是很困难的。Turkheimer和 Waldron (2000)提出,非共同环境影响包括全部随机测量错误,不是呈系统性的,而是呈现特殊性而且是不确定的。因此,对于准实验的测定基因对行为影响的设计是否能实际确认系统的非共同环境影响在分段区间和纵向区间的工作机制是值得质疑的。这也正是推动现行这类研究的动力。



SECTION 1

≨期研

银行美国小儿科学会将青春期分为3个阶段,它们分别是青春期早期,中期和 晚期,并且每个时期都有自己要培养的技能任务。每个青少年按照自己的生理 发展和荷尔蒙分泌水平逐渐培养起这些技能。尽管这些阶段对于所有的青少年 来说都是很普便的,但是他们每个人都是按照自己独特的方式度过这个阶段 的。



之在青春期早期,人们初次尝试离开自己作为小孩子所拥有的依赖性父母很有安全感的角色,开始建立他们作为独立个体的角色,不再依赖父母。青春期早期是以身体快速生长和成熟为标志的,所以这个时期的青少年的自我意识总是聚焦在他们自己的身体和身体的接受能力上的。青少

年早期也是和同伴高度一致的时期。"相处"对于他们来说并不是一件难事, 但是"被别人接受"似乎对他们来说很有压力。从处于早期的青少年的角度来 看,最坏的可能就是被同伴视为"异类"。(第3、4题 iyuce. com copyright)

青少年中期是以新型的思考方式的出现为标志的,他们的智力世界突然开始膨胀,他们开始注意异性同伴,也正是在这个时期,他们建立脱离父母的心理独立性的过程开始加速,他们不再认为家长的观点是绝对正确的,所以不良行为开始出现,尽管如此,处于青少年中期的孩子还是会倾向于正确和合适的行为,他们开始展示行为成熟的一面,并且学着去控制自己的冲动。(第1、2、6题ivuce.com copyright)

青少年晚期是以为成人角色做准备为标志的,这个时期的需要通常延伸到我们 所说的成年早期。处于青少年晚期的孩子试着让自己的职业目标清晰化,并且 标榜自己的个性标签。他们不再注重同伴的认同,并且基本上从心理上脱离对 父母的依赖性,这标志着向成年的转换基本上完成。(第 5 题 iyuce.com copyright)

E 几年前,芝加哥大学的 Robert Havighurst 教授提出,人类的发展阶段最好 是从作为正常过渡一部分的发展任务来考虑,他将和青少年过渡有关的发展任 务分为11种。青少年要培养的发展任务之一是对自己身体感知的新的认识。 除了出生时,人们只有在青少年早期才会经历如此迅速和深远的身体变化。青 春期是以身高和体重方面的急剧变化为标志的,与此同时,他们开始经历这些 身体性别特征的出现和不断增强。这种急剧变化的结果就是青少年开始十分注

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意自己作为男生或是女生的身体特征。(第7题 iyuce. com copyright)

🗲 在青春期之前,孩子的思考模式主要是对任何遇到的问题都要找到一个具体的

解决方案,主要受到什么是真实的和什么是抽象的这类问题的限制。在青春期,年轻人开始意识和理解到抽象性的问题。青春期必须要调整适应在学校不断增加的认知方面的需求。成年人将高中视为青少年为成人角色和责任感以及接受进一步的教育做准备的一个地方。学校的课程也经常以更加抽象严格的材料为主导,而忽略学生是否能形成有条理的想法,因为并不是所有的青少年都以同样的速度进行智力方面的过渡,所以对于抽象思



维的形成要先于这种能力的的要求可能是令人沮丧的。(第 11、8、9 题 *iyuce. com copyright)*

处在青春期的青少年开始培养逐渐复杂的知识系统和对自我的意识,也开始培养整合的价值观道德观。在道德观发展的初期,家长为他们的孩子提供了一套辨别是非对错,什么是可以接受的和不可接受的标准,最终当他们从父母领受的价值观和同伴或社会的价值观有冲突的时候,他们会以前者为评判标准,当然为了调和这种差异,他们也会重新整合相关的观念以形成自己的意识形态。 (第 10 题 iyuce. com copyright)

📙 青少年必须不断培养自己的语言能力,因为当他们在智力方面成熟的时候,他



们面对越来越多的学校的要求,当他们为成年角色做准备的时候,必须要有相适应的语言技能来应对更为复杂的概念和任务,儿时的有限的语言能力已经远远不够用了。青 少年可能会因为不能有效地表达自己而显得能力不足。(第 12题 iyuce.com copyright)

■ 青少年还必须学会从情感和心理上摆脱对父母的依赖, 童年是以极度依赖父母为标志的,所以青春期的孩子可能

很想保持这种安全的有别人支持的关系,但是成年需要培养独立性,自制能力。青少年可能会在自己想要保持这种依赖性的愿望和培养独立性的需要之间犹豫不决。为了尝试着培养自己的独立性和个性,他们可能对同伴表现得 有敌意和缺乏合作精神。

青少年在发展上述能力的时候,各项能力不是分开进行的,在任何既定的时间,他们可能同时要发展好几个,而且在青春期早期,中期和晚期,这种能力的发展程度也是不尽相同的。



SECTION 3

树冠的研究者



森林树冠层是用来描述森林中所有树冠总和的术语,是超过40%生物物种的栖 息地,其中 10%的物种是只生活在树冠上的。 Global Canopy Programme (GCP) 是专门研究树 冠的组织,它的执行主席 Andrew Mitchell 说道: "我们正在研究地球上最丰富,最鲜为人知但是 又最受威胁的栖息地。我们对森林认识的问题在 于几乎所有我们收集的信息只是从距离地面 2 米的地方获得的,但是我们却要以此研究关于距 离地面 60 米高的树, 或是最高达 112 米的红木 这样的树木的问题。这就好比医生只能通过看病 人的脚来治愈病人。"

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热带雨林包含最丰富的生态系统,从生物多样性和生物之间关系的复杂性上 来讲,只有珊瑚礁可以与之媲美。而其中大部分的多样性的生物都居住在树冠 上, 据估计雨林中 70%-90%的生物居住在树上, 有十分之一的导管植物是生长 在树冠层, 大约 20%-25%的无脊椎动物只生活在树冠层。

第一个真正意义上进入树冠层进行研究的英国人是Sir Francis Drake,他在 1573 年在巴拿马的Darien的一棵高树上第一次看到了太平洋。但是第一个真 正意义上的关于树冠的研究直到 1929 年才开始。Major RWG Hingston领导的 牛津大学科考队赴英属圭亚那进行考察,最终在需要建造一个观察平台时,他 们还是向当地人进行了求助。这次科考总的来说还是很成功的,尽管代理领导 者在坐着轿子参观的过程中被卡到悬在空中。就到达树冠这个层面而言,法国 人可以说是优秀的创新者,他们通过比空气还轻的平台也就是气球和相关的设 备来运送东西。来自Montpellier 大学热带植物研究所的Francis Halle在 1980年代中期通过一个气球从空中到达树冠。他在法属圭亚那的工作受了 Marcel 和Annette Illadic 在加蓬共和国氢气球的启发。Halle更进一步,他 乘坐了专门建造的一个小型的飞行器——长得像雪茄形状的气球,是靠螺旋桨 来增加机动性的。Mitchell 说道:"我们突然有了一个可移动的系统来在树梢 附近活动,除此别无他法。"

自此以后,两个依赖气球的工具就产生了: 微子或是雪橇, 筏子是"飘浮着的

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平台", 被法国学者 Dany Clevet - Marrel 和 Laurent Pyot 应用在树顶的一个小岛上,是用 橡胶渔网边缘配上充气的氨丁橡胶管子做成 的。这个小筏子停留在树冠层的顶部,这样可 以让生物抽样(主要是植物和昆虫)可以在平 台的边缘停留数日。在另一方面,雪橇呈充气

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六边形,和传统的气球篮子相似,在底部的中间有一个洞,上面覆盖着橡胶网, 当然这种技术不是完美的。莱比锡大学系统植物研究所主任 Dr Wilfried Morawetz 说道:"气球可以覆盖更大的区域,尤其是收集信息的时候,但是它 们的造价非常得高, Jibe 筏子造价 122,000 欧元(约合 86000 英镑,按 2001 年的汇率)虽然这种方式很有效,但是只能是研究人员到达项部并且对天气的 依赖性很强。气球只能在清早使用 2-4 小时,上周整整一周因为天气原因我们 只能出去考察 3 次。" 鉴于以上因素,就不难理解为什么在 1986 年和 2001 年 间只有六次研究活动采用了气球。

接下来另一个重要的创新来自巴拿马 Smithsonian Tropical Research



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Institute 的 Alan Smith,他是采用一个静止 的起重机来到达树冠。没有绳子拴着的气球能 够大范围地采集样本,但是起重机可以让科学 家年复一年地通年集中研究一公顷的范围内从 土壤到树冠。Basel 大学的教授 Christian Korner 认为"起重机比其它任何一种方法都要 好,它们又便宜又可靠而且快速。我可以在两 分钟之内到达想要到达的森林的任何位置,这 对于物种间的比

較研究至关重 要。"ChristianKorner 在瑞士用充满二氧化碳的 空气中用起重机进行一个实验。试图揭开森林将 如何应对全球二氧化碳含量上升。为了简便起见, 起重机一般都安置在靠近城市或是研究中心。莱 比锡大学在离城镇不远的地方就有一个研究用的



起重机,该地点可以让研究者对污染物对森林的影响进行研究。为了增加起重 机能到达的树冠的数量,一些起重机放在短的铁轨上。在1995年,Dr Wilfried Morawetz 是第一个采用这样技术的人,在 Venezuelan 兩林架起了150米的 轨道。他说道:"在我看来,起重机将是未来研究树冠的核心工具。"



W乎进行树冠研究的其他人和 Mitchell 的观点一样,被尊为"树 冠 学 家"的 Madie Selby Botanical Gardens 的执行主任 Meg Lowman 说道:"起初许多科学 家肯定认为 Mitchell 疯了才会想

到建这样一个复杂的实地观察站。但是我们逐渐都意识到,将不同方法进行组合,从而能够用长期合作的方法来进行生态研究是推进树冠研究最好的方法。 一个永久的树冠研究站能够做到这一点。"一群致力于研究树冠的科学家通力 合作,运用一系列的工具到达树顶,从而可以真正了解最不为人知的陆地栖息 地——树冠。

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雅思阅读真题 Version 36505

SECTION 1

小岛上的雀鸟

直到今天,相关雀鸟的研究仍在继续。Galapagos 群岛中的最荒芜的一个小岛 Daphne Major,是一个没有人居住的火山锥,在那里连仙人掌和灌木丛都很少能长得比一个研究者的双膝高,Peter和 Rosemary Grant 在那里已经花了超过 30 年的时间观察达尔文所提到的雀鸟,观察它们是如何对抗暴风雨,干旱和对食物的竞争的。普



林斯顿大学的生物学家 Grants 可以认出小岛上许多单个的雀鸟,还可以追溯 出雀鸟的血统。他们已经一次次目睹了达尔文的理论在实际中的应用,其中包 括很多代的雀鸟。(第9题 iyuce. com copyright)

- Grants 的最具戏剧性的观察是关于中型地省的鸟嘴的进化。这种像麻雀大小的鸟的羽毛变化从暗棕到乌黑,。乍一看,这个变化似乎没有什么特别的,但是对于研究生物进化论的科学家来说,这种中型地省可是超级明星,它的鸟嘴是在 Galapagos 群岛上的雀鸟从形状和大小上处于中等的典范:比小型地雀要笨重些,主要是用来吃小的种子,但是比大型地雀又要小些,使其成为啄开和吞吃又大又硬的种子的能手。
- 当 Grants 在 1970 年代开始他们的研究时,在 Daphne Major 岛上只有两种雀鸟, 中型地雀和仙人掌雀。该岛十分得小,以至于研究人员可以将每一只鸟都进行 清点和分类。1977年,该岛发生了一次严重的干旱,这些雀鸟随即吞食了最后 剩下的一些小个的易吃的种子。中型地雀中的相对鸟嘴小些的成员因为没有足 够强壮的鸟嘴来吞吃大个些的种子而消亡。(第 10、1、2 题 iyuce. com copyright)
- E 8年后,由于厄尔尼诺现象带来的大雨改变了 Daphne Major 岛上原本只有很少 植被生长的情况。原本在很多年中都要靠挣扎才能勉强生存下来的藤本植物和 其它植物突然开始茂盛起来,抢夺了原本为雀鸟提供大个种子作为食物的植物 的生长空间,小个的种子成为了雀鸟食物的主要来源,所以长着大嘴的大型雀 鸟比小型雀鸟以更高的速度消亡。Rosemary Grant 说道:"当环境改变时自然 选择显而易见,当当地环境对雀鸟本身不利的时候,适应的方向也发生了改变。" (第 3、4 题 iyuce. com copyright)

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近期, Grants 目击了发生在中型雀鸟身上的另一种形式的自然选择: 在更大更 强壮的有血缘关系的雀鸟之间。在 1982 年, 第三种地雀也就是大型地雀开始在 Daphne Major 岛上生活,它的鸟嘴和月牙形的扳手锋利的一面有点相似。它们 的到来是 Galapagos 群岛近一个世纪以来,第一次科学记录如此大规模的殖民 化。Peter Grant 说道: "我们认为将会有一个很平常但将是很重要的事件需要 我们去跟进。"在 20 年间,大型地雀和中型地雀共同生存,和它的大嘴亲戚一 起分享大个的种子,但是到了 2002 年和 2003 年,另一次干旱席卷了该岛。那 一年,没有一只雀鸟有筑巢,许多都死了,有着大个鸟嘴的中型地雀被大型地 雀用更强有力的鸟嘴挤出采食区,数量受到了重创。(第 11 题)

G 当 2004 年天气变回潮湿一些, 雀鸟又开始筑巢, 新一代的中型地雀的栖息地被小嘴的小型 地雀统治, 所以它们只能通过食用更小个的种子来生存。Peter Grant 认为这种情况标志 着第一次生物学家可以通过物种间的竞争和对自然选择的反应来观察一个已经在 Galapagos 群岛上观察了 33 年的雀鸟的完整的进化史。

在 Daphne Major 南面的 Santa Cruz 岛上, McGill 大学的 Andrew Hendry 和 位于 Amherst 的麻省理工学院的 Podos 发现在雀鸟的进化过程中一个新产生的 人为造成的扭曲。他们的研究着眼于 Academy Bay 研究站周围的雀鸟,研究站 在 Puerto Ayora 镇的边上。该地区的人口增长很快,从 1974年的 900 人增长 到 2001年的 9582 人。Henry 说道: "现如今在 Puerto Ayora 建满了酒店和 Mai Tai 吧,人们想要把这个极度贫瘠的土地变成一个度假胜地。"(第 12、5 题 *iyuce. com copyright)*

Academy Bay 研究站的记录显示, 早在 1960 年代, 在那里捕捉到的中型地雀的 鸟嘴不是小的就是大的, 很少有中等大小的鸟嘴。雀鸟似乎属于一个适应性辐 射的早期: 如果这种趋势继续下去, Santa Cruz 岛上的中型地雀会变成两种完 全不同的亚种, 尤其是在食用的种子方面。但是到了 1960 年代末和 70 年代初, 有着中等大小鸟嘴的中型地雀开始在 Academy Bay 与其它有着或大或小鸟嘴的 其它雀鸟一起繁荣, 迅速增长的人口给雀鸟带来了新的食物来源,包括异国的 植物和在雀鸟喂食站堆满的大米。鸟嘴的大小曾经一度对于雀鸟的生存至关重 要, 但是从此不再会带来不同的影响了。Hendry 说: "如今即使是中等大小的 鸟嘴也可以让雀鸟很好地生存。"(第 6-8 题 iyuce. com copyright)

在 Puerto Ayora 可控制范围内的一个观察站,很少有人到访,在那里中型地雀的还是主要分为大鸟嘴和小鸟嘴两种。在 Santa Cruz 岛上没有人干扰的地方,没有中等鸟嘴的中型 地雀,并且雀鸟还在不停地发生着多样性的变化。在那里尽管还有很多的雀鸟,但是明显 不同的种群正在出现融合。

K Santa Cruz 的雀鸟表明了人类的干涉会改变原本进化的方向,最终导致新物种的出现。在全球生物多样性不断减少的时代,达尔文的雀鸟却给人们上了出人意料的一课。Hendry 说道:"如果我们希望重新获得原本已经失去的生物多样性,那么我们不仅需要保护现在存在的物种,而且也要保护这种可以产生新物种的原始驱动力。"(第 13 题 iyuce. com copyright)



雅思阅读真题 Version 36601

SECTION 1

鸟类迁徙

- A 鸟类有许多独特的结构特征,使得它们表现出令人惊叹的耐久力。鸟类 拥有极轻的体重、中空的骨骼、复杂的羽毛,这些为快速飞行提供了上 升力和推动力。同时, 鸟类还拥有比人类发明的任何导航系统都要优越 的导航体系。此外,它精密的热保 护结构会保证其温暖防水羽毛之下的 血液循环的畅通,以便它们能够适应最恶劣的 气候环境。鸟类必须具备 极为高效的呼吸系统才能适应高空的持久飞行,因此,它 们从肺部提取 氧气的呼吸系统比任何其他物种的都高效得多。在食物丰富的夏季繁 殖 季后期,它们的体内会储存大量脂肪层,为它们长途迁徙飞行提供充足 的能量。
- B 鸟类迁徙主要是为了在冬季食物短缺时寻找到足够的食物。尤其是那些 生长在北半 球温带和北极圈地区的鸟类,因为这些地方只有在短暂的生 长季节才会有充足的食 物。在食物充足的情况下,很多鸟类都能忍受寒 冷的天气,但当食物缺乏时,它们 就不得不迁徙。然而,目前还存在一 些令人不解的问题。
- 一个令人不解的现象是,很多鸟类的旅程距离远远长于它们为寻找食物和好天气所必需飞行的距离。例如,没人知道为什么本可以在非洲赤道区过冬的英国燕子非要不远千里飞到南非的开普省过冬。另一个谜团则是关于北极燕鸥以及在北极附近滩涂区哺育生活的水禽的大规模迁徙活动。通常,鸟类生活繁殖的地方越偏北,其冬季迁徙的地方就越偏南。对于北极燕鸥来说,它们每年的旅程长达25,000英里,但是,在飞往遥远的位于南纬度地区的目的地的途中,所有这些鸟类都会飞越许多地跨两个半球,看上去适合栖息的地区。虽然我们可能无法完全理解鸟类前往特定地区的原因,但是,我们也对鸟类游历世界的能力感到无比惊讶。
- 最大的谜团之一是幼鸟是如何在没有父母引导的情况下找到传统越冬之地的。成年的鸟类很少带领幼鸟一起迁徙,稚鸟甚至很少或者从没见过其父母。以布谷鸟(杜鹃)为例,它们将蛋产在其它鸟类的巢中,然后再也不会回去看望幼仔。让人惊讶的是,当小杜鹃在宿主家里长大后,它便会自己飞到其祖先在热带地区的越冬地,然后独自飞回北欧,寻找和自己同种类的配偶。这有力地说明了杜鹃能够从其父母那里继承内置的迁徙路线图和方向定位的能力,以及其他杜鹃鸟的外在长相的精神意象。然而,还没有人知道这究竟是怎么一回事。
- 越来越多的证据显示,鸟类能够利用太阳和星辰的方位来辨别方向。同时,它们似乎还能侦测地球磁场,这可能是由于鸟类脑部具有微小的磁

性晶体的缘故。不过, 真正的导航还需要对位置和时间的认知,特别是 在迷路的时候。实验表明,当鸟儿 被带出教千英里,跨越陌生的大陆板 块之后,它们仍能迅速地回到自己的巢址。这 种惊人的能力是对大量复 杂的线索进行精密计算的结果,包括天生的夜空星图和地 球磁场的拉 力。鸟类是如何运用它们的"工具"的,我们还不得而知,但有一点是 显 而易见的:它们用比人类更高级的感官知觉来观察这个世界。大部分幼 鸟在夜间 进行迁徙,并通过日落的位置辨别方位。但是,当它们观察日 落时,似乎还能观测 到日落带来的偏极光,从而矫正它们的方位。夜间 飞行还有其他好处。鸟类可以避 开昼行食肉动物,并减少温暖日照下长 时期飞行带来的脱水危险。此外,夜间的空气通常较为凉爽,很少有空 气湍流,这有利于持续稳定的飞行。

然而,所有的旅程都暗含着危险,要想安全 到达,其中一个要诀就是在正确的时间 出 发。这意味着要能准确地预测天气,并能合 理地利用风向。鸟类从出生伊始就精 通此道 了。实验室测试还发现,有些鸟类甚至能够 辨别出房间中天花板和地面之间气压的细微



差别。通常,鸟类在有明显征兆前就能感应到即将发生的天气变化。鸟 头麦鸡,一种生活在草原的鸟类,能够在寒流到来前从荷兰向西飞到不 列颠群岛、法国和西班牙。当地表结冰时,它们可能会饿死 3 在冰雪消 融之前,鸟儿们会再回到荷兰,它们是通过气压变化来预测天气转变的。

G 以威尔士马恩岛海鸥为例,它们被带到美国,然后再被释放,但是,在 宣布被释放的消息之前,它们就已经飞回自己的住所——彭布罗克郡海 岸线外的斯科克霍尔姆(Skokholm)岛了!相反地,每个秋天都会有少量 的北美鸟类被快速移动的西尾风 刮到大西洋的另一边。它们不仅安全地 到达了欧洲,而且越来越多的证据显示,其中一些可能还和欧洲候鸟们 一起去了阳光充沛的非洲地区过冬,然后才在次年春天飞回北美。







1	Vers	sion 36101		主题	打	哈欠
▲ 教师互动解析	28	68 seconds	29	(complex) distinction	30	breathing
请扫描二维码	31	stretch/ stretching	32	brain	33	E
	34	В	35	F	36	D
	37	н	38	NOT GIVEN	39	YES
	40	NO				
L	1	С	2	А	3	E
2	Vers	sion 36102		主题 冷心	东运	输的历史
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	10	В	11	D	12	Ε
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3 教师互动解析 请扫描二维码	13 Vers	A ion 36103		主题蒙戈	人	
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4	Ver	sion <mark>36106</mark>		主题 5	不保	塑料 PLA
教师互动解析	27	В	28	С	29	F
请扫描二维码	30	A	31	starch	32	fermentation
	33	condensation	34	ploymer	35	В
	36	С	37	Α	38	D
	39	A	40		С	
5	Ver	sion <mark>36113</mark>		主题	海川	底运动
教师互动解析	14	G	1	5 H	1	6 E
请扫描二维码	17	С	1	. 8 B	19) D
	20	forward thrust	t 2	rolling and yawing	¹ 22	2 Pectoral and pelvic
	23	slows and stop	s 2	4 white musc	le 2	5 fats and glycogen
	26	predator/dang	er			
6	Vers	sion 36300		主题 艾费	雷征	夢・诺 贝尔
教师互动解析	1	FALSE	2	NOT GIVEN	3	FALSE
请扫描二维码	4	FALSE	5	TRUE	6	TRUE
	7	chemical engineering	8	Ascanio Sobrero	9	gunpowder
	10	Stockholm	11	detonator	12	pneumatic drill
	13	cost				

7	Vers	sion <mark>36301</mark>		主题	モ马	斯・杨
教师互动解析	1	TRUE	2	FALSE	3	FALSE
请扫描二维码	4	NOT GIVEN	V 5	TRUE	6	TRUE
	7	NOT GIVEN	1 8	46	9	humaneye / human eye accommodation
	10	Indo-Europea	in 11	Richard Brocklesby	12	Royal Institution
	13	gas lighting				
8	Vers	sion 36302		主题	珊	瑚礁
教师互动解析	14	Α	15	С	16	С
请扫描二维码	17	D	18	Е	19	D
	20	TRUE	21	TRUE	22	NOT GIVEN
	23	NOT GIVEN	24	TRUE	25	NOT GIVEN
	26	С				
9	Vers	ion 36303		主题	远和	呈工作
教师互动解析	28	F	29	А	30	С
请扫描二维码	31	Ι	32	М	33	К
	34	Н	35	D	36	А
129933	37	С	38	F	39	D
回於指決的						

10	Versi	ion <u>36</u> .	308	主题	亲	所手和专家
土し 教师互动解析	14	guiding principles and rules	15	mentor	16	patterns of behavior/patterns
请扫描二维码	17	complex	18	knowledge	19	FALSE
	20	NOT GIVEN	21	TRUE	22	TRUE
	23	TRUE	24	accurate	25	human bias
L	26	consensus				

11	Vers	ion <mark>36409</mark>		主题遗传	对孔	该子的影响
教师互动解析	14	Genetic	15	all of siblings	16	10%(或 10 percent)
请扫描二维码	17	Non-shared environment	18	40%	19	interrupted
	20	variations	21	interests	22	NOT GIVEN
	23	YES	24	NOT GIVEN	25	NO
	26	В				

12	Vers	ion 36410		主题 青	少年	的青春期
教师互动解析	1	В	2	В	3	А
请扫描二维码	4	А	5	С	6	В
	7	Е	8	С	9	А
	10	D	11	FALSE	12	TRUE
L	13	TRUE				

13	Versio	on 365	02	主题		树冠研究	
	14	В	15	С	16	А	
教师互动解析 请扫描二 维 码	17	F	18	Е	19	locals	
	20	balloons	21	raft/rafts	22	(static)crane /cranes	
	23	D	24	В	25	F	
		_		7 В			
	26 Vers	E	27	主题		一的雀鸟	
14		E sion 3650		主题		亡的雀鸟	
14 教师互动解析		sion 3650: (severe)		主题 large seeds	岛」	上的雀鸟 heavy rains	
	Vers	sion 3650	5		图3	1	
教师互动解析	Vers 1	sion 3650: (severe) drought	5	large seeds	图3	heavy rains medium-sized	
教师互动解析	Vers	sion 3650 (severe) drought small seeds human	5 2 5 5 8	large seeds	<u>路</u> 3 n 6	heavy rains medium-sized bills FALSE	

15	Versi	ion <mark>36601</mark>	a	主题	鸟的	的迁徙
教师互动解析	14	iv	15	v	16	ii
请扫描二维码	17	x	18	vii	19	i
	20	viii	21	A	22	С
	23	parental guidance	24	compass	25	predators
	26	visible				

UD

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