

托福听力 tpo50 全套对话讲座原文+题目+答案+译文

<b>Section 1</b> .....	1
<b>Conversation1</b> .....	1
原文 .....	2
题目 .....	4
答案 .....	5
译文 .....	5
<b>Lecture1</b> .....	7
原文 .....	7
题目 .....	9
答案 .....	11
译文 .....	11
<b>Lecture2</b> .....	13
原文 .....	13
题目 .....	15
答案 .....	17
译文 .....	18
<b>Section 2</b> .....	19
<b>Conversation2</b> .....	19
原文 .....	19
题目 .....	21
答案 .....	23
译文 .....	23
<b>Lecture3</b> .....	25
原文 .....	25
题目 .....	27
答案 .....	29
译文 .....	29
<b>Lecture4</b> .....	31
原文 .....	31
题目 .....	33
答案 .....	35
译文 .....	36

**Section 1**

**Conversation1**

## 原文

NARRATOR: Listen to a conversation between a student and a political science professor.

MALE STUDENT: I'm not sure if you know, but I was elected to student government this year ...

FEMALE PROFESSOR: Oh, congratulations! I was in student government myself as an undergraduate. It taught me a lot about the political process. In fact, the experience solved my problem of what to do with my life—it really cemented my interest in becoming a political scientist.

MALE STUDENT: Cool. Anyway, um, the reason I came by is, we're getting ready to conduct a straw poll on campus. You know, hold an informal vote, since the general election's just a couple months away. We wanna get a feel for the student body's political leanings. Like, who students are planning to vote for, which political party people identify with, that sorta thing.

FEMALE PROFESSOR: Oh sure. I helped students run a straw poll once, years ago. It was a lotta work, mostly because we used paper ballots and stayed up all night counting 'em. But if you use computers.

MALE STUDENT: Yeah, we're creating a Web site for it where students'll be able to vote online. Um, and we're looking for a faculty advisor to help, actually. I was hoping you might be rested.

FEMALE PROFESSOR: Oh, I'm flattered, John, but my schedule's so jammed. I'm teaching two seminars, your intro course, finishing up my research ... But, uh, what about Professor Klein? She's new in our department. Plus, she's a whiz with computers.

MALE STUDENT: OK. I'll ask her.

FEMALE PROFESSOR: So, have you decided on a topic for your term paper yet?

MALE STUDENT: Not really.

FEMALE PROFESSOR: Why not write about your straw poll? Since the paper's not due till after the election, you could include your results, maybe compare them with the real election results?

MALE STUDENT: But would that be enough? I mean, just comparing numbers?

FEMALE PROFESSOR: Well, no, you'd need to provide some analysis, too. But I was thinking—there's a couple of local ballot questions this year, ya know, referenda that voters can either support or not support.

MALE STUDENT: Right, there's one on whether to ban smoking in restaurants, and another one, uh ...I think it's whether to spend tax dollars for a new sports arena in the city.

FEMALE PROFESSOR: OK, here's an idea ...In regular elections, the vast majority of voters ignore referenda; they vote for their favorite candidates, but avoid ballot questions. We believe it's because voters aren't familiar with the questions or don't understand them. But actively educating people on ballot questions right before they vote can improve referendum participation rates.

MALE STUDENT: In that case, maybe we could have our straw-poll Web site provide information on the ballot questions, like how each proposal would affect students.

FEMALE PROFESSOR: Exactly. And when you write your paper, you could compare the students' referendum voting rate to the general public's, and include your own analysis of the results. Plus there's plenty of published research on referendum voting behavior.

MALE STUDENT: Thanks Professor Miller! I had no idea this straw poll could actually help me in my course work.

## 题目

1. Why does the man go to see the professor?

- A. To suggest an idea for his research project
- B. To tell her about his election to student government
- C. To ask for her help on a political project
- D. To discuss methods of gathering public opinion

2. What is the professor's attitude toward her involvement in student government as an undergraduate?

- A. She is grateful that the experience helped inspire her career choice.
- B. She regrets that her involvement took time away from her studies.
- C. She wishes that she had been more active than she was.
- D. She is glad that her involvement enabled her to help other students.

3. What is the student government's main reason for conducting a straw poll?

- A. To educate students on the candidates' positions
- B. To remind students to vote in the upcoming election
- C. To find out how students feel about the local referenda
- D. To get an idea of students' political preferences

4. Why does the professor mention paper ballots?

- A. To show how a straw poll differs from an actual election
- B. To stress the importance of keeping accurate records

- C. To indicate that conducting a poll may present challenges
- D. To suggest a way to improve communication between the student body and the student government

5. Why does the professor discuss voting behavior on referenda?

- A. To encourage the man to vote on the local referenda
- B. To help the man develop a focus for his term paper
- C. To express her skepticism that voting behavior can be changed
- D. To let the man know about her current research project

答案

C A D C B

译文

旁白：请听一段学生和政治学教授之间的对话。

学生：我不清楚您知不知道，但是我今年入选学生会了。

老师：哦，恭喜恭喜！我读大学的时候就是学生会的一员。它教给我很多关于政治事务的事情。实际上，这段经历帮我解决了未来的人生中要做什么的问题。它确实坚定了我成为政治学者的兴趣。

学生：好酷啊！无论如何，我来找您的理由是我们正在为大学里的非正式民意测验做准备，你知道，就是在大选几个月之前先举行一个非正式的投票。我们想了

解一下学生群体的政治倾向，就像是学生们打算给哪些人投票，比较认同哪些政治团体，这样的事情。

老师:当然。我几年前帮助学生举办了一次这种非正式民意测验，工作非常繁重。主要是因为当时我们使用的是纸质的选票，然后熬夜整晚来数票。但是如果你们用计算机的话……

学生:是的，我们在搭建一个可以让学生在线投票的网站。嗯，实际上，我们在寻找可以为我們提供帮助的指导教师。我希望您对这个项目有兴趣。

老师:哦，我太荣幸了，约翰，但是我的日程已经排得满满的了。我正在教着两个研讨班，还有你们的导论课程，再加上我还得完成研究。但是，你觉得克兰教授怎么样？她是我们系新来的教授。另外，她可是计算机小能手。

学生:好的，我去问问她。

老师:所以，你决定你的学期论文的题目了吗？

学生:还没呢。

老师:为什么不写一下你的非正式民意测验呢？因为你的论文直到选举结束后才交，你可以把你的结果包含进去。或许把它们和真正的选举结果相比较？

学生:但是这就足够了吗？我的意思是，就仅仅做一个数字上的比较？

老师:不够，你还需要分析一下。但是我在想，今年当地的投票涉及到了几个问题。你知道，全民公决的时候，投票者既可以支持也可以反对吧？

学生:对的。有个问题是在餐馆应不应该禁烟，还有一个……我记得是应不应该花纳税人的钱在城市里新建一个体育竞技场。

老师:啊，好的。我是这样想的。在普通的大选里，大多数的投票人会无视全民公决。他们会为自己最喜欢的候选人投票，但是会忽视投票上的问题。我们相信这是因为投票者对于这些问题不熟悉，或者是不理解它们。但是如果我们在选民们投票之前积极地教育他们的话，这可以增进全民公投的参与率。

学生:这种情况下，也许我们就可以让我们的非正式民意测验为投票的问题提供

信息，就好像每一个提议会如何影响学生一样。

老师:说得很准确。当写你的论文的时候，你可以对比学生在公投中的投票率和大众的投票率。并且把你对于结果的分析包含进去。另外，前人对于大众的公投行为分析有足够的研究。

学生:谢谢，米勒教授。我还真不知道非正式民意测验可以在我的学业上帮助我。

## Lecture1

原文

NARRATOR: Listen to part of a lecture in an ancient history class.

FEMALE PROFESSOR: OK, last time we were discussing trade and commerce during the Bronze Age ... And I said a little over 3,000 years ago there was quite a lively trade among the countries along the Mediterranean Sea—people were making objects out of bronze, and they were using bronze tools to make other goods, and they developed trade networks to trade these goods with other countries around the Mediterranean ... One of the things they traded was glass ...

And recently there was an archeological excavation in Egypt—on the Nile River, around where it enters the Mediterranean Sea—where they discovered an ancient glass factory. Robert?

MALE STUDENT: I thought our textbook said that the Egyptians imported their glass from other countries.

FEMALE PROFESSOR: Well, until now that's what the evidence seemed to suggest. I mean, we had some evidence that suggested that the Egyptians were making glass objects, uh, but not glass.

MALE STUDENT: OK, am-am I missing something? They're making glass, but they're

not making glass.

FEMALE PROFESSOR: I said they were making glass objects, right? You see, it was previously thought that they weren't actually making the raw glass itself, that they were importing unfinished glass from Mesopotamia—um, which today is a region consisting of Iraq, and parts of Syria, Turkey, and Iran—and simply reworking it. Most archeologists believed that the glass factories were in Mesopotamia because that's where the oldest known glass remains come from. You see, there were two stages of glassmaking: the primary production stage, where they made disks of raw glass... Uh, an- and then there was the secondary stage, where they melted the raw glass, the glass disks, and created decorative objects or whatever. And from this new Egyptian site we've learned that the primary production stage had several steps. First, they took quartz—a colorless, transparent mineral—and crushed it. Then they took that crushed quartz and mixed it with plant ash; uh, “plant ash” is just what it sounds like—the ash that's left after you've burned plant material. They slowly heated this mixture, at a relatively low temperature, in small vessels, um containers, like jars, made out of clay. Uh, and that yielded a kind of glassy material...

They took this glassy material and ground it up into a powder, and then they used metallic dye to color it... After that, they poured the colored powder out into disk-shaped molds and heated it up to very high temperatures, so that it melted. After it cooled, they'd break the molds, and inside...there were the glass disks. These disks were shipped off to other sites within Egypt and places around the Mediterranean. Then, in the secondary phase, the disks were reheated and shaped into decorative objects. Susan?

FEMALE STUDENT: So what kind of objects were people making back then?

FEMALE PROFESSOR: Well, the most common objects we've found—mostly in Egypt and Mesopotamia—uh, the most common objects were beads; one thing Egyptians were very, very good at was imitating precious stones; they created some beads that looked so much like emeralds and pearls that it was very difficult to distinguish them



from the real thing. Uh, and-and also beautiful vessels, uh, with narrow necks; they were probably really valuable, so they wouldn't have been used to hold cooking oil or common food items; they were most likely used for expensive liquids like perfume. Now the glass made at this factory was mostly red; to get this red color, they used copper; in a sophisticated process. Of course, any kind of glass was very valuable, so these red bottles would only have been owned by wealthy people. In fact, because it was so difficult to make, and sort of mysterious and complicated, it was probably a product produced for the royal family, and they probably used glass to show their power. Also, beautiful, expensive objects make great gifts if you're looking to establish or strengthen political alliances...and it's quite possible that ancient Egyptians were actually exporting glass, not just making it or importing it. The trade with Mesopotamia was probably a friendly, mutual trade...because, uh, Mesopotamian glass was usually white or yellow, so Mesopotamians might have said something like, "We'll give you two white disks for two red disks." There's no proof of that, uh—at least not yet...

## 题目

1.What is the lecture mainly about?

- A. New information about glass production and use in ancient Egypt
- B. Whether Egyptians or Mesopotamians were the first to invent glass
- C. Differences between Egyptian glass and other kinds of glass
- D. Reasons why ancient Egyptians imported glass from other countries

2.What is the importance of the archaeological evidence recently found in Egypt?

- A. It supports the theory that ancient Egyptians imported glass from Mesopotamia.

- B. It proves that ancient Egyptians made glass objects prior to the Bronze Age.
- C. It provides the first evidence that glassmaking in the Bronze Age required two different stages.
- D. It shows that ancient Egyptians were producing raw glass.

3. The professor describes a process for making glass disks. Summarize the process by putting the steps in the correct order. [\[Click on a sentence. Then drag it to the space where it belongs. The last one is done for you.\]](#)

- A. Glass-like material is ground up and dyed blue or red.
- B. Powdered material is heated at very high temperatures.
- C. Crushed quartz and plant ash are heated at low temperatures.
- D. Containers are broken to remove glass disks.

4. Based on the lecture, what are two kinds of glass objects that were valued in ancient Egypt and Mesopotamia? [\[Click on 2 answers.\]](#)

- A. Beads
- B. Cooking utensils
- C. Containers
- D. Windows

5. According to the professor, what are two reasons why ancient Egyptians exported glass? [\[Click on 2 answers.\]](#)

- A. To build relationships with foreign leaders
- B. To hold cooking oil that was sold in other countries

- C. To get bronze tools from other countries
- D. To acquire colors of glass not made in Egypt

6. Why does the professor say this:

Robert: Ok. Am.....Am I missing something? They are making glass but they are not making glass?

Professor: I said they were making glass objects, right?

- A. To emphasize that glass objects were only made in ancient Egypt
- B. To find out what the student does not understand
- C. To indicate that there was no contradiction in her previous statement
- D. To correct what she said in her previous statement

答案

A D CABD AC AD C

译文

旁白：请听一个古代历史课上的讲座片段。

教授：好，上节课我们讨论了青铜时代的贸易和商业。我还讲到了三千多年以前，地中海周围的国家之间有相当活跃的交易往来。人们用青铜制作物品，他们还使用青铜工具来制造其他的货物。他们还建造起了交易网络，以与地中海沿海的其他国家交易货物。他们交易的物品之一就是玻璃。最近在埃及进行了一场考古挖

掘，挖掘地点是尼罗河进入地中海的入海口，这里考古学家发现了一座古代的玻璃工厂。罗伯特？

罗伯特：我认为我们课本上说的是，埃及人从别的国家进口他们的玻璃。

教授：是的，这是到现在为止的证据告诉我们的。我的意思是，我们有了一些证据来说明埃及人在制作玻璃制品，但是不是玻璃。

罗伯特：好吧。是……是我搞错了吗？他们既在制造玻璃，又不在制造玻璃？

教授：我说的是他们在制造玻璃制品，对吧？你看，我们以前认为他们实际上并不是在制造玻璃这种原材料本身，他们是从美索不达米亚平原地区进口未完工的玻璃材料，美索不达米亚地区现在包含了伊拉克，还有一部分的叙利亚、土耳其及伊朗，埃及人只是对玻璃进行了再加工。大多数考古学家相信玻璃工厂存在于美索不达米亚，因为这个地方是发掘出我们所知的最古老的玻璃遗物的地方。你看，当时玻璃制作涉及到两个阶段：制作盘状的原始玻璃的初期生产阶段，制作盘状的原始玻璃的初期生产阶段。还有第二阶段，他们将原始玻璃，也就是盘状玻璃熔化，然后制作成装饰性的物品，或者别的什么东西。在这个新的埃及考古遗址，我们发现第一步生产阶段还包括几个步骤。首先，他们要拿到石英石，这是一种透明的矿物，然后把它碾碎。然后，他们把碾碎的石英石粉末和草木灰混合起来。草木灰这个东西就如同它的名字，就是燃烧植物以后剩下的灰烬。他们用相对来说比较低的温度缓慢地加热这种混合物，加热的时候这种混合物被放在小的容器里，这种小的容器类似于一种黏土罐子。这就制作出来了一种玻璃样的材料。

他们把这种玻璃样的材料碾成粉末，然后用金属染料给它们染色。在这之后，他们把这种染好色的粉末倒进一种圆盘形状的模具里面，再把它加热到很高的温度，它就熔化了。在冷却之后，他们打碎模具，里面就是玻璃的盘子。这些玻璃盘子被用船运到埃及国内其他地方或者地中海周围的地区。然后在第二个制作阶段，这些盘子被再次加热，然后被塑造成装饰性的物品。苏珊？

苏珊：那么那个时候的人们会做什么种类的物品呢？

教授：嗯，我们在埃及和美索不达米亚平原能找到的最普遍的物品是玻璃珠子。

埃及人非常非常擅长的事情之一就是伪造珍贵的宝石。他们可以伪造出一些看起来非常像翡翠和珍珠的珠子，我们很难把它们和真品区分开。嗯，还有…….还有一些漂亮的器皿，啊，细口的器皿。它们应该是真的很有价值，所以它们不会被用来盛放食用油或者其他普通的食物。它们很可能被用来盛放昂贵的液体，像是香水之类的。这家工厂制作的玻璃大部分是红色的，为了得到这种红色他们使用了铜，经过复杂的过程后（得到了红色的玻璃）。当然了，任何种类的玻璃都很珍贵，所以只有富有的人家才会拥有这种红色的玻璃瓶。实际上，因为玻璃很难制作，而且制作过程有一点神秘和复杂，这可能是一种为皇室制作的物品。他们可能用玻璃来显示他们的权力。而且，美丽昂贵的东西可以成为很好的（外交）礼物，如果你想结成或坚固政治联盟的话。很可能古代埃及人实际上也在出口玻璃的，并不只是制作并且进口它们。这种和美索不达米亚平原地区的交易很可能是一种友好的双向贸易，因为美索不达米亚平原地区出产的玻璃一般是白色和黄色的。所以美索不达米亚平原地区的人可能会接受这样一种交易，也就是拿两个白色的玻璃盘子换两个红色的玻璃盘子。没有证据证明，至少现在还没有。

## Lecture2

### 原文

Narrator: Listen to part of a lecture in a biology class.

FEMALE PROFESSOR: Ok. There are two major types of classifiers in the world: people we call “lumpers” and people we call “splitters.” A lumpers is someone who tries to put as many things as possible in one category. Splitters like to look for the differences and put things in as many different categories as possible.

Both lumpers and splitters work in the business of defining biological classifications. The Greek philosopher Aristotle is generally considered the first person to systematically categorize things. He divided all living things into two groups—they were either animal or vegetable. And these categories are what biologists came to

call kingdoms. So if it ran around it was an animal... a member of the animal kingdom, and if it stood still and grew in the soil it was a plant... a member of the plant kingdom. This system—organizing all life into these two kingdoms— worked very well for quite a while, even into the age of the microscope. With the invention of the microscope in the late 1500s, we discovered the first microorganisms; we saw that some wiggled and moved around and others were green and just sat there. So the ones that moved like animals were classified as animals, and the more plant-like ones as plants. Oh, before I go on, I must mention Carolus Linnaeus...kah-ROE-lus Li-NAY-us. A hundred years or so after the invention of the microscope, Carolus Linnaeus devised a simple and practical system for classifying living things, according to the ranks of categorization still in use today— class, order, family, and so on.

And by far the best aspect of Linnaeus' system is the general use of binomial nomenclature — having just two names to describe any living organism. This replaced the use of long descriptive names, as well as common names which vary from place to place and language to language. Binomial nomenclature gives every species a unique and stable two-word name, agreed upon by biologists worldwide. But not everything about this system remained unchanged. Take, for example, the mushroom... a fungus. It grew up from the ground and looked like a plant. So it was classified as a plant. But using the microscope, we discovered that a fungus contains these microscopic thread-like cells that run all over the place. and so it's actually not that plant-like. So in this case, the splitters eventually won, and got a third kingdom just for the fungus. And as microscopes improved, we discovered some micro-organisms that were incredibly small. I'm talking about bacteria. And we could see that they didn't have what we'd call a nucleus, so they got their own kingdom— a kingdom of very tiny things without nuclei. So then we had separate kingdoms for plants, and for animals. And the different kinds of fungus, like mushrooms. And for these tiny bacteria. But we also had some other micro-organisms that didn't fit anywhere. So biologists gave them their own kingdom, and this fifth kingdom was sort of an anything-that-doesn't-fit-in-the-first-four kingdom, which upset some

people. And then there was the question of viruses. Viruses have some characteristics of life, but don't reproduce on their own or use energy. So we still don't know what to do with them. The lumpers want to keep viruses in the current system. Some of the splitters say to give them a separate kingdom; and the extreme splitters say that viruses have nothing at all to do with living things and "keep them out of my department." Recent research, though, has moved us in yet another direction. Nowadays when we want to determine the characteristics of something, we look at its biochemistry and its genetic material. And what we've discovered is that some bacteria are not like the others. Many of these are called "extremophiles" EXTREME uh files. They live in very strange places— in polar ice, or in the boiling water of hot springs; or in water so salty other organisms couldn't live there. Extremophiles tend to have a different chemistry from other bacteria, a chemistry that, in some cases, is actually more related to plants and animals than to previously known bacteria. So, what to do with these strange bacteria?

Well, one thing we've done is create a new set of categories—the domains—overarching the different kingdoms. Biologists now recognize three domains. But even as we talk about these new domains, well...come back in a few years and it might all be different.

## 题目

1. What is the lecture mainly about?
  - A. The importance of classifying living organisms
  - B. The history of biological classification
  - C. The impact of the microscope on biological classification
  - D. The naming of newly discovered organisms

2. Why does the professor describe “lumpers” and “splitters”?

- A. To emphasize one difference between early and modern biologists
- B. To point out that early biological classifications were not based on scientific principles
- C. To give examples of categories in early biological classification systems
- D. To identify approaches that have shaped the development of biological classification systems

3. What can be inferred about biologists before the time of Carolus Linnaeus?

- A. They did not agree on the names of many living things.
- B. Very few of them used microscopes.
- C. They were puzzled by the discovery of microorganisms that lacked a nucleus.
- D. They had to be fluent in several languages in order to publish their research.

4. What does the professor mention as two characteristics of extremophiles? [\[Click on 2 answers.\]](#)

- A. They live in harsh environments.
- B. They are much larger than most other types of bacteria.
- C. In their structure, they may resemble viruses.
- D. In their biochemistry, they may be similar to plants and animals.

5. What is the professor's attitude toward the current system of biological



classification?

- A. She is surprised that biologists have not changed the system for so many years.
- B. She is upset that so many unnecessary distinctions have been added.
- C. She is not confident that the system has been finalized.
- D. She is eager for biologists to adopt a completely new system.

6. What does the professor imply when she says this:

(Professor) With the invention of the microscope in the late 1500s, we discovered the first microorganisms; we saw that some wiggled and moved around and others were green and just sat there. So the ones that moved like animals were classified as animals, and the more plant-like ones as plants.

- A. The microscope was developed specifically for the purpose of studying and classifying microorganisms.
- B. The invention of the microscope enabled scientists to confirm predictions about the characteristics of microorganisms.
- C. Organisms discovered with early microscopes were classified according to categories that Aristotle established.
- D. Microscopes helped scientists clarify distinctions between the plant kingdom and the animal kingdom.

答案

B D A AD C C

## 译文

旁白：请听一段生物学课上的讲座。

教授：好的。在世界上有两种分类派系，一种被我们称为统合派，一种被我们称为分割派。统合派的人会尽力把各种事物都放在一个分类下。分割派的人则会着眼于事物之间的区别，把它们尽力划分出最多的类别。

统合派和分割派都致力于确定生物的分类。伟大的哲学家亚里士多德一般会被认为是系统地生物分类的第一人。他把所有的生物分成了两个类别。它们不是动物就是植物。这些分类被生物学家称为“界”。所以如果一个生物可以四处跑来跑去，它就是动物，是动物界中的一员。如果它不动，长在土壤里，就是植物，属于植物界中的一员。这个分类系统把所有的生命体都划分进了这两个界，它一直起着很好的分类作用，即使是在发明了显微镜的时代。随着十六世纪末期显微镜的发明，我们发现了第一批微生物。我们认为一部分生物是会扭动且可以自由移动的，另一部分是绿色且不动的。所以那一些像动物一样可以移动的就被归类成了动物，更像植物的生物就被归类成了植物。大约在显微镜发明的一百年后，卡罗勒斯·林奈发明出了一个给生物分类的简单而实用的系统，这个系统是根据等级编目法来的——涉及的等级有纲，目，科等等，这些等级现在还在使用。

至今为止，林奈的分类系统最好的一点是，他普遍使用了双名法，也就是只使用两个名字来命名任何一种生物。这就代替了长长的描述性名字，也代替了地域之间、语言之间各不相同的对物种的俗称。双名法给每一个物种都起了一个独特稳定的双词名字，并且被全世界的生物学家所认同。但是这个系统也并不是没有变化的。我们拿蘑菇，一种真菌的例子来说。蘑菇从地里长出来，看起来像是植物。它以前也是被分到植物那一类的。但是使用显微镜，我们发现真菌身上有这些微小的线状细胞，它们在真菌体内不断活动。所以它实际上也不那么像植物。所以在这种情况下，分割派取得了最终的胜利，他们为真菌分出了第三个界。随着显微镜的逐渐改进，我们发现一些微生物是非常之小的。我在说细菌。我们可以看到它们并没有细胞核。所以它们要独立出自己的界，一个没有核仁的非常小的生物的界。所以植物、动物、不同种类的真菌比如蘑菇、还有这些小小的细菌各自

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